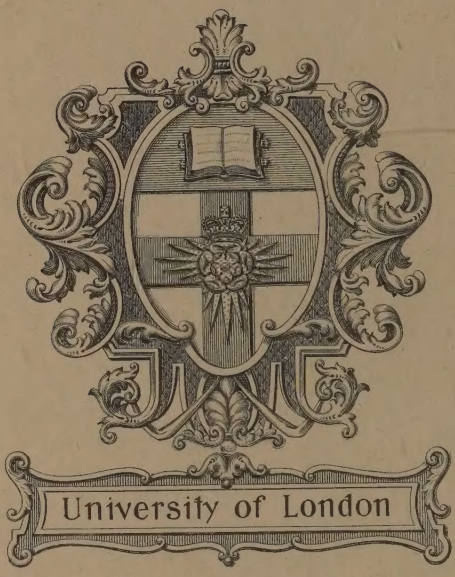
University of London

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REPORTS

FROM

COMMISSIONERS, INSPECTORS,

AND OTHERS:

THIRTY-FIVE VOLUMES.

—*(20.)*—

LABOUR.

Session

12 *March* 1894 —— 25 *August* 1894.

VOL. XXXV.

1894.

REPORTS

FROM

COMMISSIONERS, INSPECTORS,

AND OTHERS:

1894.

THIRTY-FIVE VOLUMES:—CONTENTS OF THE

TWENTIETH VOLUME.

N.B.—*THE* Figures *at the* beginning of the line, *correspond with the* N° *at the foot of each* Report; *and the* Figures *at the* end of the line, *refer to the* MS. Paging *of the Volumes arranged for The House of Commons.*

LABOUR:

[c. 7540.] Papers showing the action taken by the Board of Trade with regard to certain Recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour, respecting Seamen of the Mercantile Marine. p. 1

[c. 7421.] Fifth and Final Report of the Royal Commission on Labour. The Report, Part I. 9

[c. 7421–I.] Secretary's Report on the Work of the Office; Summaries of Evidence (with Index), and Appendices, Part II. 263

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR, 1894.

PAPERS

SHOWING THE ACTION TAKEN BY THE

BOARD OF TRADE

WITH REGARD TO CERTAIN RECOMMENDATIONS

OF THE

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR

RESPECTING

SEAMEN OF THE MERCANTILE MARINE.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

LONDON:
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BY EYRE AND SPOTTISWOODE,
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1894.

[C.—7540.] *Price* 1*d.*

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Papers showing the action taken by the Board of Trade with regard to certain Recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour respecting Seamen of the Mercantile Marine.

No. 1.

COPY OF INSTRUCTIONS TO PRINCIPAL OFFICERS AND SURVEYORS.

Report of Royal Commission on Labour, 1894.

BOARD OF TRADE,
Marine Department,
August, 1894.

ONE of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour is to the effect that the requirement of section 9 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1867, that:—

"Every place in any ship occupied by seamen or apprentices, and appropriated to their use, shall have for every such seaman or apprentice a space of not less than 72 cubic feet. . . . ."

is not sufficient, and that the space might, with advantage, be increased to at least 120 cubic feet.

The Board of Trade are aware that their officers have no power to *insist* upon more than the accommodation required by statute, but the Department have reason to believe that very many, if not the majority of, shipowners provide even more space than the Royal Commissioners recommend, and Principal Officers should take every suitable opportunity of pointing out the desirability of providing sufficient and healthy quarters for seamen, whether they are or are not fully provided for by the existing law. Care must be taken that this is done with tact, and that the right is not asserted to order anything that is not strictly required by the Merchant Shipping Acts.

COURTENAY BOYLE,
Secretary.

INGRAM B. WALKER,
Assistant Secretary.

No. 2.

COPY OF INSTRUCTIONS TO SUPERINTENDENTS OF MERCANTILE MARINE OFFICES.

Report of Royal Commission on Labour, 1894.

BOARD OF TRADE,
Marine Department,
August, 1894.

ATTENTION has been called in the above Report to the fact that, although a seaman has power under the Merchant Shipping Acts to allot half his wages to his wife or certain other relatives before he sails, the allotment notes are payable only once a month. This, it is pointed out, often involves hardship, and it is recommended that this half might be made payable fortnightly.

As the Board of Trade are of opinion that it was not intended by sec. 3 of the "Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880" to forbid voluntary arrangements between masters and seamen for allotments to be paid more frequently than once a month, Superintendents are instructed not to object to the insertion in an

agreement of a stipulation to that effect when it is desired by both master and seaman, and when the allotment is in favour of the relatives mentioned in section 169 of the "Merchant Shipping Act, 1854."

COURTENAY BOYLE,
Secretary.
INGRAM B. WALKER,
Assistant Secretary.

No. 3.

COPY OF LETTER ADDRESSED TO LOCAL MARINE BOARDS, CHAMBERS OF SHIPPING, SHIPOWNERS' ASSOCIATIONS, AND SHIPOWNERS.

BOARD OF TRADE,
M. 14,609. Marine Department,
7, Whitehall Gardens,
London, S.W.
SIR, August, 1894.

I AM directed by the Board of Trade to forward, for [your information] [the information of the] the enclosed copy of a reprint respectively of,—

(*a.*) An extract with regard to seamen from the Report of the Royal Commission on Labour;

(*b.*) An extract on the same subject from a separate minority Report of four members of the Commission.

In the views contained in these Reports there is, so far as the points here dealt with are concerned, nothing inconsistent.

It will be obvious to that in the event of Her Majesty's Government deciding to adopt some of the proposals contained in these reports fresh legislation would be required for the purpose, but the Board of Trade have, to a considerable extent, anticipated some of the recommendations made, and the Department gladly recognise that with regard to others much has been already effected by the care and forethought of shipowners themselves.

The Board of Trade feel, however, that, pending the consideration of such legislative proposals as may be decided upon, they may further appeal to shipowners generally to adopt in practice such of the recommendations of the Royal Commissioners as are clearly desirable and likely to lead to the contentment and efficiency of seamen.

With regard, for instance, to the accommodation for seamen and apprentices on board ship, the Board of Trade have reason to believe that very many, if not the majority of, shipowners now provide for a space of at least 120 cubic feet for each person, instead of adopting the present statutory minimum of 72 cubic feet. This is especially the case in new ships, and, while fully acknowledging what has already been done, the Board are sure that, with regard to old as well as to more modern vessels, shipowners generally will recognise the desirability of providing adequate and healthy quarters for their seamen, whether they are or are not required to do so by the existing law.

The Royal Commissioners point out that, although under the Merchant Shipping Acts a seaman can arrange for half his wages to be paid to his wife or to certain other relatives, the allotment notes are payable only once a month, and that this leads to hardship in many cases.

The Board of Trade are of opinion that section 3 of the "Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880," was not intended to forbid voluntary arrangements between masters and seamen for allotments to be paid more frequently than once a month. The superintendents at the different ports have, therefore, been instructed not to object in any case to the insertion in an agreement of a stipulation to that effect as regards the relatives mentioned in section 169 of the "Merchant Shipping Act, 1854," and under these circumstances many owners may probably be willing to meet the wishes of their seamen in this respect.

With regard to the question of the proper qualification of ships' cooks, the Board of Trade are of opinion that much good might be done if men desiring to ship as cooks were required (either by the production of a certificate of a recognized Training School or in some other way) to satisfy Masters that they have at least some elementary knowledge of the duties they will have to perform.

In fact, if greater care than is customary were exercised by Masters in ascertaining that men engaged are qualified for the ratings granted to them, as, for example, by requiring A.B.'s to produce proof that they are entitled to that rating under section 7 of the "Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880," the Board of Trade think it would materially tend to the efficient and satisfactory manning of ships generally.

The Board are anxious to secure the co-operation of shipowners with regard to the important recommendations of the Royal Commissioners, and they feel sure that will do all in power to assist the Department in the matter, especially with respect to the specific points referred to in this communication.

I am, &c.
(Signed) COURTENAY BOYLE.

Inclosure 1 in No. 3.

Extract, with regard to Seamen, from the Fifth and Final Report of the Royal Commission on Labour.

* * * * *

348. Without implying that many of these suggestions made with regard to other industries are not highly deserving of consideration, we desire to make a more special reference to the conditions of labour of seamen. We received much evidence with regard to the mode in which seamen enter upon engagements to serve on ships. In connection with this matter our attention was called to the practice known as "crimping," which still appears to flourish in spite of the law. Crimping was defined by Sir Henry Calcraft in evidence (Group B., Vol. II., 14,826) as "a system by which "certain boarding house keepers, if unchecked, take advantage of the weakness of "seamen, and the peculiar circumstances of their lives, to obtain complete control of "their liberty of action, and practically control the supply." The object of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, was to abolish this evil by making it necessary for shipowners to engage men directly through their own officers or servants. This it is difficult, or sometimes impossible, to do without the intervention, either of crimps or general agents, especially when ships have to make up their crews, or replace deserters at intermediate ports of call, where a ship stays only for a few hours. The law, as it stands, does not allow shipowners to have agents at ports to supply seamen, unless the Board of Trade will grant licences to such agents under section 148 of the Act of 1854. The Board have not considered it to be proper to grant such licences either to the Seamen's Union or to the Shipowners' Federation. We think it desirable that the provisions of the Act should be amended so as to make it expressly legal for any *bonâ fide* organisation, whether of employers or employed, certified as such by the Board of Trade, to act as general agents in supplying seamen to ships. Such organisations so acting would prove, we think, the most effective means of making resort to "crimps" less frequent than it now, in spite of the penal law, appears to be.

349. Accommodation on board ship is at present regulated by section 9 of the Act of 1867, which provides that "every place in any ship occupied by seamen or "apprentices and appropriated to their use shall have for every such seaman or "apprentice a space of not less than 72 cubic feet, measured on the deck or floor of "such place." We are of opinion that the evidence shows this accommodation to be too small for sanitary purposes, and that, in view of the increased size of modern ships and the fewer hands they require in proportion to their tonnage, it might be increased in the case of new ships to 120 cubic feet.

350. Allotment of wages is dealt with in sections 149–169 of the Act of 1854 and in section 3 of the Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880. A seaman has power under these Acts to allot half his wages before he sails to his wife or certain other relatives, but the allotment notes are payable only once a month. We think that this often involves hardship, and that, whilst having regard to the frequent desertions abroad, it would not seem desirable to increase the amount which can be allotted beyond one-half of the full wages, this proportion might be made payable fortnightly.

351. We think that medicines put on board ship should be certified by the chemist who supplies them. We also think that some qualification should be required from ships' cooks.

352. The insufficient manning of a certain class of ships has been a subject of complaint. We understand that the President of the Board of Trade has undertaken to appoint a departmental committee of inquiry, including some representatives of shipowners and seamen, to investigate the whole of this subject and to consider the best steps to take.

353. With regard to the constitution of local marine boards it was urged by some witnesses that the interests of the seamen are insufficiently represented. There are important practical difficulties in the way of any choice of seamen's representatives by a process of election, but we are glad to understand that it is the practice of the Board of Trade, where suitable persons of the class of an A.B. or suitable representatives of seamen can be found, to appoint such persons to be members of local marine boards,* and we consider that as the shipowners are already represented by elected members, the nominees of the Board of Trade should be, as far as possible, persons not similarly interested in shipping property.

* * * * *

* *See* Evidence of Sir Henry Calcraft, Group B., Vol. II., 14,807.

Inclosure 2 in No. 3.

Extract, with regard to Seamen, from a separate Report of four of the Royal Commissioners.

* * * * *

We have reserved for a separate section the needs of the seamen, in whose case the protective law is administered, not by the Home Office, but by the Board of Trade. Any effectual elevation of the standard of life of other classes of workers must be accompanied by a similar advance for the sailor, or the percentage of British seamen on British ships will continue to fall. The evidence produced before us leaves no doubt of the great success of previous legislation regulating the mercantile marine.† We believe that the inspection of the Board of Trade officers and their not infrequent prosecutions of offending owners have been of the greatest value. That inspection and enforcement of the law has, however, hitherto been confined, in the main, to the prevention of actual wreck and loss of life at sea.

Since 1854, for instance, the Board has had power, under section 226 of the Merchant Shipping Act, to require any Local Marine Board to appoint a medical inspector of ships, charged with the inspection of medical stores on ships. Such officers appear, however, seldom, if ever, to have been appointed. We recommend that the action of the Board should now, in the public interest, be expressly extended to the improvement of the circumstances of the common sailor or fireman on board ship, so far, at least, as regards the compulsory enforcement of the minimum requirements of health and efficiency. It must always be specially difficult, if not impossible, for a seaman himself to appeal to the courts of justice; and we consider that the Board of Trade should itself take action to ensure, both by inspection and by prosecution whenever necessary, that the law is complied with. The legislation immediately required appears to us to be (*a*) the enforcement of a compulsory manning scale‡ so adjusted as to secure a normal eight hours' day for sailors and firemen; (*b*) the restriction of the employment of Lascars, or other non-European seamen to a limited proportion of the crew; and (*c*) the insistance on the provision of proper sleeping accommodation for each seaman, with at least 120 feet of cubic space, and free from insanitary conditions.§ Further provision is required for the enforcement of the existing law. We recommend, for instance, that the Board of Trade should make it part of its duty to see that the Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and

† See the striking evidence of Sir Henry Calcraft, Permanent Secretary to the Board of Trade, before Group B.

‡ See evidence of Mr. Butcher and Mr. Wilson, M.P., Group B., 13,815–13,891.

§ Evidence of Mr. Plimsoll, B., 11,307; Captain Hatfield, B., 13,312–6; Mr. Raeburn, B., 14,089–195.

Rating) Act, 1880,* is carried out. At present, the sailor can only arrange for half his wages to be paid to his wife, and that only once a month. As this amount is often insufficient for the maintenance of his family, in many cases hardship arises. We recommend that the shipowner should be required to issue in this way, if desired by the seaman, at least two-thirds of the wages as they accrue, and to make the payments weekly.

The Bill providing for a minimum food scale, which passed its second reading in the House of Commons in 1892, ought, in our opinion, to be passed into law, and to be strictly enforced by the Board. We regard it, moreover, as important to the seaman's health that some qualification, however elementary, should be required before a man is engaged as cook.† Finally, we consider that the Local Marine Boards, of which the elected members are now chosen exclusively from shipowners by shipowners,‡ should be made equally representative of the seamen. We are glad to learn that the Board of Trade, which adds to each Board four nominated members, has lately appointed in many cases one seaman or ex-seaman. But we see no reason why the seaman registered as residing at each port should not, equally with the shipowners, possess the right of voting for and of electing representatives of their own class to a body in whose action they have no less vital an interest than their employers.

---

* See the Board of Trade Circular of 1st June, 1891, given in Sir H. Calcraft's evidence (Group B.).

† Evidence of Mr. Raeburn, B., 13,429–31.

‡ See House of Commons Return, No. 372 of 1890; evidence of Mr. Plimsoll, Sir H. Calcraft, Mr. J. H. Wilson, M.P., and others; section 110 of Merchant Shipping Act of 1854.

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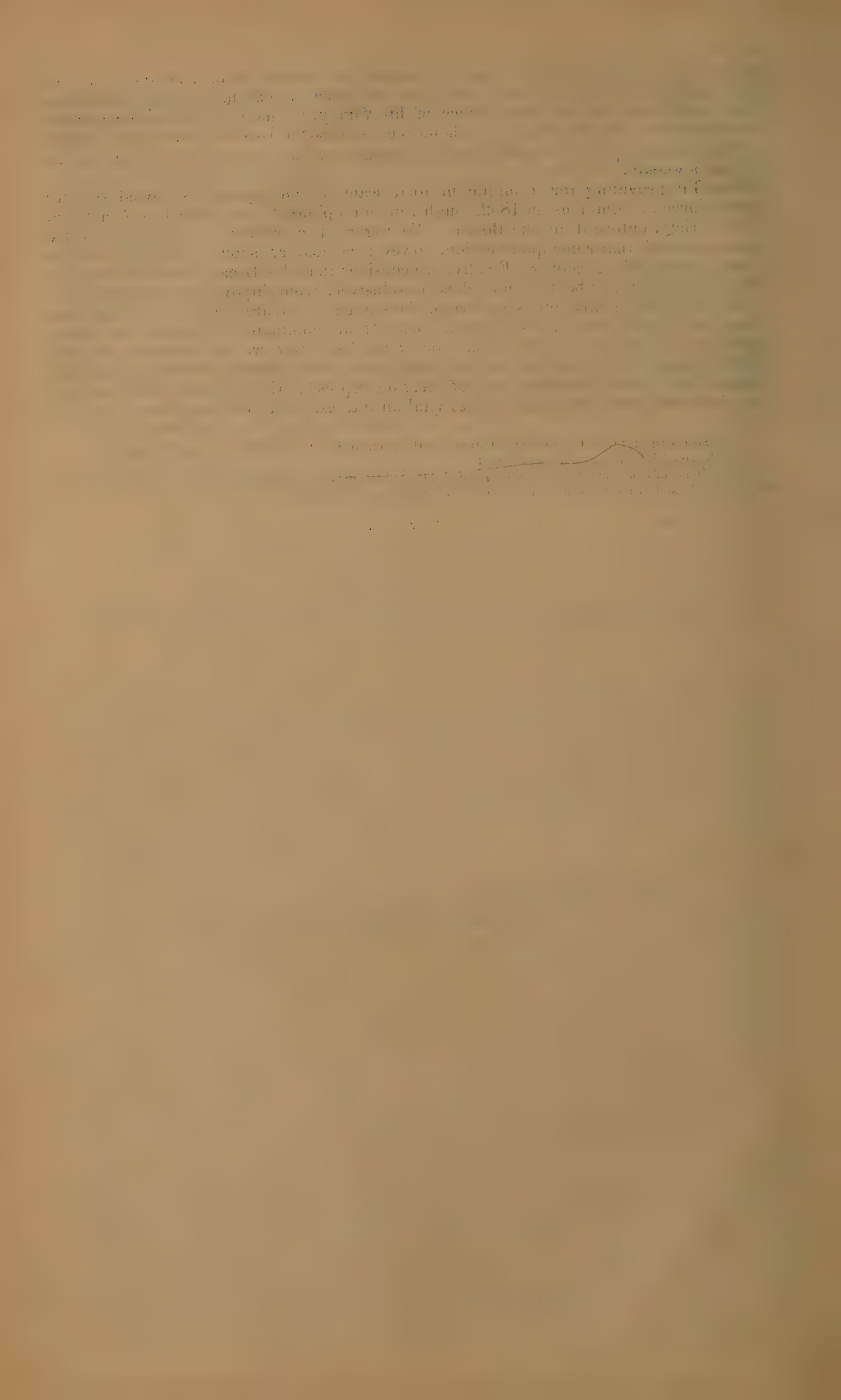

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

FIFTH AND FINAL REPORT

OF THE

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

PART I.

THE REPORT.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
June 1894.

LONDON:
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1894.

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ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

FIFTH AND FINAL REPORT.

TO THE QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY.

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR MAJESTY,

WE, the undersigned Commissioners appointed to inquire into the questions affecting the relations between employer and employed, the combinations of employers and employed, and the conditions of labour, which have been raised during the recent trade disputes in the United Kingdom, have the honour to submit to Your Majesty our Final Report.

PROCEDURE OF THE COMMISSION.

We think it well to recapitulate shortly for the purposes of this Report the chief steps we have taken in carrying out the inquiry entrusted to us.

The First Meeting of the Commission was held in the Commission Room at Westminster Hall on May 1st, 1891. We then considered the different methods which it was open to us to adopt, namely, (1) The taking of oral evidence; (2) The collection of written evidence in the shape of answers to schedules of questions; (3) The use of existing materials; (4) The appointment of Assistant Commissioners to collect information not obtainable by other means.

We appointed a Committee to draw up a scheme of procedure. The Committee reported in favour of dividing the Commission into three Committees for the purpose of instituting an inquiry into certain groups of trades. The Committees appointed were as follows, the Chairman of the Commission being an ex-officio member of each Committee:—

COMMITTEE A.—Mr. David Dale (Chairman), Sir E. Harland, Mr. T. Burt, Mr. W. Abraham, Mr. E. Trow, Mr. A. Hewlett, Sir W. T. Lewis, Mr. Gerald Balfour, The Right Hon. H. H. Fowler.

COMMITTEE B.—The Right Hon. the Earl of Derby, K.G. (Chairman), Mr. J. C. Bolton, Mr. T. H. Ismay, Mr. Tom Mann, Mr. H. Tait, Mr. S. Plimsoll, The Right Hon. Jesse Collings, Professor Marshall, The Right Hon. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach.

COMMITTEE C.—The Right Hon. A. J. Mundella (Chairman), Mr. W. Tunstill, Mr. J. Mawdsley, Mr. G. Livesey, Mr. M. Austin, The Right Hon. Sir John E. Gorst, Sir F. Pollock, The Right Hon. Leonard H. Courtney.

It was, however, understood that any member of any Committee might attend and join in the inquiries of other Committees, and this power was freely exercised.

The division of trades adopted was as follows:—

COMMITTEE A.—The Mining, Iron, Engineering, Hardware, Shipbuilding, and Cognate Trades.

COMMITTEE B.—Transport and Agriculture: the term "Transport" including Shipping, Canals, Docks, Railways, and Tramways.

COMMITTEE C.—Textile, Clothing, Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades.

The Committee on Procedure further drew up a syllabus (contained with other details in the Report of the Secretary printed in Part II. of this Report) which was adopted as a convenient summary of the subjects into which the Committees were to inquire, leaving questions of principle to be treated by the Commission as a Whole.

At later meetings we considered and adopted Schedules of Questions which we subsequently addressed to Trade Unions, Employers, and Employers' Associations.

The Committees then proceeded to take evidence with regard to special industries, and on the completion of their inquiries in December 1892 evidence on more general questions was taken before the Whole Commission.

With regard to the witnesses heard before the Committees, the method adopted was to summon representatives of Trade Unions in the first place to state their grievances, and then representatives of the Employers' Associations to state their views.

If no such Unions or Associations existed, we summoned such individual workmen or employers as seemed to be representative of the interests concerned. Evidence was also volunteered from many quarters, and was received where it appeared relevant and useful. In all we examined 583 witnesses at 151 sittings, and the evidence was from time to time printed and laid before Your Majesty.

In December 1891 the evidence having already become voluminous, we directed the Secretary to prepare Digests of the Minutes for our use. These Digests comprise (1) a Précis of the Evidence which embodies in a convenient form the substance of the evidence of each witness, preserving as far as possible the actual words used by him; (2) Abstracts of all the evidence on certain points which appeared to us to be of the most practical importance, namely:—(*a.*) Strikes, their causes, development, organisation and conduct, their cost, and the means adopted for their prevention and settlement; (*b.*) The Eight Hours' Day; (*c.*) Arbitration and Conciliation; (*d.*) The Acts of Parliament referred to in the evidence.

In the volumes of the Digest there were also printed an Analysis, which was prepared weekly, of the evidence given by each witness to facilitate reference to the evidence already taken, and a Glossary of Technical Terms which were in many cases unintelligible to persons not possessed of the necessary technical knowledge.

We further directed the Secretary from time to time to prepare for our use certain Memoranda on current and previous parliamentary inquiries and literature, among which we may mention a Précis of the Evidence given before the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Railway Servants (Hours of Labour), and a Memorandum on the Evidence taken before the Committee of the House of Lords on Sweating.

In addition to the above Digests we directed that Indexes should be prepared in three parts:—(1) An Index of Witnesses; (2) An Index of Subjects, which was intended to indicate the matter contained in the evidence with a view to enabling any person not satisfied with the Digest to obtain information at first-hand on the most important points into which we were appointed to inquire; (3) An Index of Trades on a larger scale, to give a complete review of the Labour Question with regard to any of the more important trades the conditions of which we investigated.

We also directed the Secretary to prepare a complete Glossary, with Indexes, of the Technical Terms used in the evidence, to be published as a separate volume.

Nearly 3,150 Schedules of the Questions above mentioned were sent to Trades Unions, Employers, Employers' Associations, Trades Councils, Chambers of Commerce, and Women's Trades Unions, to which 1,190 answers have been received, tabulated, and summarised by the Secretary.

Circulars have also been sent to about 2,200 State and Municipal Employers of Labour, from whom have been received nearly 900 answers, the results of which the Secretary was directed to tabulate and summarise.

We further considered it desirable to collect the Rules of Trade Unions, Employers' Associations, and Joint Boards, which were tabulated by the Secretary with Introductory Memoranda under the following heads:—

(1) Date of establishment and registration; (2) Objects; (3) Form of government; (4) Entrance fee and conditions of membership; (5) Rate of contributions and mode of payment; (6) Benefit funds; (7) Regulations for disputes with employers; (8) Attitude of members towards employers; (9) Attitude of members towards non-unionists; (10) Minimum wage, &c.; (11) Provision of work for the unemployed; (12) Investment of funds.

Lastly, when these had been completed, it appeared to us desirable that Summaries of all the above information should be drawn up under the following heads:—

Group A, *Part I.*—Mines and Quarries.
„ *Part II.*—Iron, Engineering, Hardware, Shipbuilding, and Cognate Trades.
Group B, *Part I.*—Transport by Water.
„ *Part II.*—Transport by Land.
Group C, *Part I.*—Textile and Clothing.
„ *Part II.*—Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades.
Whole Commission.—Movements, Organisations, and Institutions.

The Documents on which the Summaries are based include:—

1. The Minutes of Evidence with Appendices.
2. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.

3. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards.
4. The Rules of Accident, Sick, Insurance, and Superannuation Funds, handed in to the Commission.
5. Certain other Documents handed in or forwarded to the Commission, but not printed with the above.
6. Further Correspondence on points requiring additional explanation.
7. Current official publications, such as Parliamentary Returns, Reports of the Factory Inspectors, and of the Board of Trade.

There are appended to the Summaries the following Appendices, drawn up by the Secretary:—

1. Acts of Parliament referred to in the Evidence, with the amendments proposed by the Witnesses, in parallel columns.
2. Summary of the Returns received on State and Municipal Employment of Labour.
3. Summary on the Employment of Women.
4. Memorandum on the Economic Operation of the Royalty System.
5. Memorandum on the Evidence relating to Employers' Liability. (In connection with this we refer to our remarks in paragraphs 52 to 54.)
6. Memorandum on the Evidence relating to the Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887.
7. Memorandum on the Evidence relating to the Merchant Shipping Acts, 1854–90.
8. Memorandum on the Evidence relating to the Factory and Workshops Acts, 1878–91.
9. The administration of certain important industrial enactments.

The Summaries, therefore, present with their Appendices a complete résumé of all the information available from official sources up to the time of the preparation of this Report. To the Summaries themselves an Index has been added which directs an enquirer to ascertain the information we have collected on any point and its sources.

Meanwhile Committee B., in July 1891, recommended the appointment of Mr. W. C. Little as an Assistant Agricultural Commissioner to analyse and condense the information already collected within the last few years on the subject of Agricultural Labour. The same Committee also recommended the appointment of 12 further Assistant Commissioners in January 1892. The following gentlemen were subsequently appointed Assistant Commissioners:—Mr. A. J. Spencer, Mr. R. C. Richards, Mr. W. E. Bear, Mr. C. M. Chapman, Mr. D. Lleufer Thomas, Mr. E. Wilkinson, Mr. W. P. O'Brien, C.B., Mr. A. Wilson Fox, Mr. R. McCrea, Mr. H. Rutherfurd, Mr. R. Hunter Pringle, and Mr. G. R. Gillespie, and they have collected information, as instructed by the Committee, under the superintendence of Mr. Little, on the condition of the agricultural labourer.

Committee C. also recommended the appointment of four Lady Assistant Commissioners on February 2nd, 1892, viz.:—Miss E. Orme, Miss M. Abraham, Miss M. H. Irwin, and Miss C. E. Collet, to collect information as to the Employment of Women which the Commission was prevented from procuring by the nature of its composition and the place of its meetings. Four Lady Assistant Commissioners were duly appointed and prepared 19 Reports in the course of 1892 and 1893. From these and other sources we directed the Secretary to draw up a complete Summary with regard to the Employment of Women for our use, which is printed as Appendix III. to the Summaries contained in Part II. of this Report.

With regard to the information which we found it desirable to obtain from the Colonies, India, and Foreign Countries, we decided to apply in the first case to the Colonial Office, the India Office, and the Foreign Office. We subsequently decided with regard to the Colonies and Foreign Countries to direct the Secretary to prepare Reports for our use from the information received from these Offices, and from other information previously collected by him in those countries. We also directed the Secretary at different times to proceed to Holland, Germany, France, Belgium, the United States and Switzerland, to obtain special information which we required and which he was unable to obtain by writing or other means. A List of the Reports so published is printed in an Appendix to the Report of the Secretary on the Work of the Office.

It will be gathered from the account of the procedure of this Commission, that the range of our Inquiry has been very wide. The work undertaken and carried on during the last three years has been of a magnitude and extent unprecedented in the history of Royal Commissions, and we desire to record our opinion that its results are of the highest value, and cannot be measured solely by the contents of our Report itself.

The oral inquiries which have been conducted by the Commission and by its Committees form only a part of that work. They have afforded to representatives, whether employers or employed, of almost every branch of industry in the United Kingdom, the oppor-

tunity of stating their grievances or of expressing their views on a great variety of subjects of vital importance to both, and the public expression and discussion of such views may, we hope, have led in many cases to a better mutual understanding between these classes.

We have also received the suggestions and opinions of some of the highest authorities on labour questions. But in addition to the information thus obtained, the returns which we have received, and the inquiries of our Assistant Commissioners, have provided a large amount of information never previously collected on a similar scale.

These materials will, we believe, prove to be of great value to those who may hereafter, either in a public or a private capacity, have to deal with industrial questions, a value which will, we think, be very greatly enhanced by the way in which information derived from many sources, of great bulk and contained in numerous volumes, has been summarised and condensed in the Summaries of Evidence contained in the second part of this Report, and thus made readily accessible and available.

Further, the information which has been for the first time collected and arranged in reference to similar matters and questions in foreign countries and in the Colonies will, we believe, be found to be of equal value.

These results will, in our opinion, amply justify the time and expense which have been involved in this Inquiry.

It will be seen from the above observations that the work of our secretarial staff has been very considerable. A more detailed account of it is given in "the Secretary's Report upon the Work of the Office," printed at the beginning of the volume containing the "Summaries of Evidence," which accompanies the present Report. We believe that we are justified in saying that the official work has exceeded that compressed into a similar space of time in the case of any former Royal Commission, and we desire to express our complete satisfaction with the zeal and energy of all those employed in it.

The work accomplished by one of our Secretaries, Mr. Geoffrey Drage, has been of a special and exceptional character. The Abstracts, Summaries, and Reports, already mentioned, have been prepared either directly by him or under his instructions. This work has required not only much care and labour, but a very complete acquaintance with the principal authorities and writers on labour questions in all parts of the world, together with considerable literary ability.

In the attempt to condense within reasonable limits so vast an amount of information and opinion upon labour questions, it has been necessary for us to place a considerable amount of responsibility on Mr. Drage himself; but without necessarily associating ourselves with all the conclusions or statements of fact which these documents contain, we desire to express our sense of the conscientious manner in which Mr. Drage has discharged the difficult and laborious duties which have been imposed on him, and of the great value of his services.

We desire also to express our appreciation of the valuable services rendered by Mr. John Burnett, Labour Correspondent of the Board of Trade, who acted as Joint Secretary. During his connection with the Commission the work of his Department, which he has carried on simultaneously, has necessarily taken up the greater part of his time; but his advice has, on all occasions, been of great assistance to us, and his intimate and practical acquaintance with labour questions for many years has rendered his help, especially in the selection of witnesses, of the greatest value to us.

We also wish to express our sense of the excellent work done by Mr. F. V. Hornby, the Assistant Secretary, who has contributed materially to the efficiency of the Office, where his legal training and official experience have been, we understand, of the greatest assistance to the Secretary.

The employment of Women to do much of the more skilled, as well as routine work of the office is a new experiment in the Public Service, which has, we think, been fully justified by success. The Secretary has reported to us most favourably of the energy and intelligence with which they have discharged their duties.

We also desire to express our indebtedness to the Assistant Commissioners who have been employed by us, and, in particular, our thanks are due to Mr. Little, the senior Assistant Agricultural Commissioner, whose great knowledge of his subject has been invaluable for the purposes of that branch of the inquiry, and to Miss Orme, the senior Lady Assistant Commissioner.

We have received considerable assistance in the collection of information from several public officers, and, in particular, the Home Office, the Foreign Office, the India Office, the Colonial Office, the Board of Trade, and the Board of Agriculture.

In the preparation of the Foreign Reports, published by the Commission, our Secretary has received much assistance from the information collected and reports supplied by many of Your Majesty's diplomatic and consular officers. We desire to express our thanks to those officers, and also to the following foreign and colonial diplomatists, statesmen, and officials who, among others, have been good enough to furnish our Secretary with useful information, namely, Mr. Carroll D. Wright, United States Commissioner of Labour; Sir Charles Mills, K.C.M.G., Agent-General for Cape Colony; Sir Charles Tupper, Bart., G.C.M.G., High Commissioner for the Dominion of Canada; Dr. Garran, chairman of the New South Wales Royal Commission on Labour; Sir William Windeyer, senior Puisne Judge of New South Wales; Count Metternich, of the German Embassy; Count Palffy, of the Austro-Hungarian Embassy; Commendatore Luigi Bodio, Director-General of Statistics, Rome; Dr. Baernreither, Member of the Austrian Parliament; and M. Sainctelette, President of the Belgian Royal Commission on Labour.

Before we reached the final stage of our labours we were deprived, by the death of the Earl of Derby, of a colleague who, as Chairman of the "B" Committee, had rendered most efficient service to the Commission, and whose judgment and advice in the consideration of our Report would have been of the highest value.

INTRODUCTORY OBSERVATIONS.

We think it to be desirable, in the first place, to state briefly the procedure which has been adopted in framing this Report. It was decided by the Commission that, before considering the definite Recommendations which we might think it desirable to submit to Your Majesty, it would be advisable to review in a general manner the facts, opinions, and arguments brought to our notice in various ways. The several parts of the Review in which this attempt has been made were prepared, in the first instance, by the Chairman, were submitted at various intervals to the Commission, were fully, though not verbally or minutely, discussed, and have undergone extensive alterations introduced with a view to make them, as far as possible, impartial statements of the facts, opinions, and arguments with which they were intended to deal. At a later stage of the proceedings Memoranda were submitted by the Chairman as a basis for the discussion of certain points on which definite Recommendations might be made, and, after full discussion, the Recommendations which will be found at the close of this Report were agreed to by the majority of the Members of the Commission.

Appended to the Report will be found supplementary observations by Members who, while concurring generally in the Report, have desired to qualify their assent to some of the statements or Recommendations contained in it, or to add some further suggestions.

We desire to make a special reference to the Report signed by Messrs. William Abraham, Michael Austin, James Mawdsley, and Tom Mann. That Report had already been prepared and was circulated substantially in its present form at a time when the Commission was still engaged in considering the Recommendations drafted by the Chairman. At no period of the proceedings were any of the suggestions which it contains submitted in the form of amendments to be proposed to the Chairman's draft Report.

We regret that in the discussions which took place during the preparation of our Report we had not been placed in the possession of the views which were thus brought before us for the first time in the draft Report of our colleagues.

The Review of the Evidence referred to has been divided for convenience into the following general heads, namely:—

I.—Conditions of Labour.
II.—Associations and Organisations of Employers and Employed.
III.—Relations between Employers and Employed.
IV.—Conciliation and Arbitration.
V.—Limitation of Hours of Work by Legislation.
VI.—Irregularity of Employment.

VII.—A Labour Department and Labour Statistics.
VIII.—The Employment of Women.

The subject of Agricultural Labour is dealt with in a Review prepared by Mr. Little, and printed on pages 195 to 253 of this volume.

This method of procedure has involved the occasional repetition of facts in different connections, as it has not been possible to keep the various subjects absolutely distinct from one another consistently with the object of presenting a fairly complete view of each. It must be added that a great deal of the evidence which we have received has not been brought within the scope of this Review. It was unavoidable that a Commission conducting so large an inquiry should receive a great amount of information upon subjects lying only on the fringe of the main issues specifically indicated by the Reference made to us by Your Majesty, viz., the investigation of "questions "affecting the relations between employer and employed, the combinations of "employers and of employed, and the conditions of labour, which have been raised "during the recent trade disputes in the United Kingdom." The discussion of such subjects before the Commission and the information which has been accumulated and arranged is not, we believe, without value, but it has been thought desirable that, in the following final Review of Evidence, matters not falling immediately within the Reference should, as a rule, be treated very shortly, if at all, and that attention should be concentrated upon those results of the evidence which bear directly upon these issues. The questions which appear to be more specially referred to this Commission are the following:—

(1.) What are the leading causes of modern disputes between employers and employed; out of what conditions of industry do they arise; and what is the effect upon them of organisations on either side?

(2.) By what means or institutions can they be prevented from arising, or if they do arise, can they be most pacifically settled without actual conflict in the shape of strikes or lock-outs?

(3.) Can any of these causes of dispute be wholly or partially removed by practicable legislation, due regard being had to the general interests of the country?

We have not desired to restrict our inquiry within too rigid lines. At the same time it should be understood that we do not intend in this Review to survey the whole of what has been termed the "social question," or to undertake an examination of the fundamental causes of wealth and poverty, or to discuss the remedies by which evils and misfortunes, not directly connected with or bearing upon industrial disputes, can be met. Thus we have felt it to be our duty to examine proposals put forward for obviating the clash of industrial interests by the supersession, wherever practicable, of private employers by public authorities; but it has not appeared to be within our province to examine in detail those schemes for the employment by public authorities of the temporarily unemployed, which are really connected not so much with the ordinary course of industry as with the extension or modification of the existing Poor Law. So again, we have not thought it necessary to do more than touch upon the general social benefits which may result from the existence of the great co-operative associations of consumers, whilst we have attempted to consider more carefully the special relations of such associations to the work-people whom they employ where they engage in productive operations. Our attention has chiefly been directed towards the amelioration of the relations of employers and employed, but in paragraphs 87 to 89, will be found some observations bearing upon the way in which harmony between these classes, so far as they are organised, may possibly be secured at the expense of the interests of other members of the community. Subsequently to the close of the evidence there have been various developments of labour questions, and, in particular, a very serious and widespread contest in the coal-mining industry, which (with all the accessory matters which it has involved) would, had it taken place at an earlier date, have deserved very special study at our hands. It must, however, be observed that the Miners' Federation refused at the time when evidence was being invited to be represented before the Commission by witnesses.

GENERAL REVIEW OF THE EVIDENCE.

I.

CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

1. Wages, and Questions connected with Piece-work.

2. Hours of Labour, and Questions connected with Overtime.

3. Permanence of Engagements, and Questions connected with Apprenticeship.

4. Sanitary Conditions, and Questions connected with certain Industries and Home Workers; Recent Administrative Action.

5. Accidents, and Questions connected with Employers' Liability, &c.

6. General Condition of the Working Classes.

1.—Wages, and Questions connected with Piece-work.

Wages.

Sources of information.

1. The three Committees of the Commission which inquired into the circumstances of the different groups of trades, received much information as to rates of wages, hours of work, and the sanitary conditions of labour prevailing in the various industries and districts. Much information upon these points is also contained in answers to the questions addressed in writing to officials of trade unions and employers' associations and to other persons. Valuable information bearing upon the subject of wages and hours has also been collected by the Commercial Department of the Board of Trade, in pursuance of the Resolution of the House of Commons of March 1886 for collecting Labour Statistics.

Publications by Board of Trade.

2. This Department published, among several returns of a similar character, Returns of Wages (C. 5172, session 1887), published between 1830 and 1886, and a Return (375, session 1890) showing the average hours of labour worked in several important trades in each tenth year from 1850 to 1890. The Department has also published several volumes containing the result of a careful inquiry made into the wages of many important trades as they stood in the year 1886. The Annual Reports published by the Department on trade unions and strikes also contain much information as to wages.

Scope of inquiry by the Commission.

3. We have not considered it to be our special duty to conduct a statistical inquiry into rates of wages and hours, a task which can be more effectually discharged by the officials of the Board of Trade, but to ascertain the degree in which these matters have given rise to trade conflicts and the modes in which such rates might be settled from time to time without such conflicts arising. The information incidentally received with regard to existing wages and hours has, however, been so far as possible worked out in the Office of the Commission and arranged in a form convenient for reference in the Summaries of Evidence.

General impression.

4. The general impression left by the information before us is that the level of wage-rates has risen considerably during the last 50 years both in respect of their nominal value and (with the exception of house rent in large towns) their power of purchasing commodities. At the same time it appears that the daily hours of labour have during the same period been in most cases shortened, and the sanitary conditions of work improved.

Mr. Giffen's evidence.

5. The following view was put forward in evidence by Mr. R. Giffen. Taking 1842 as an approximate starting point, there took place between then and about the year 1872, broadly speaking, a considerable general rise in the price of commodities, including both those made and those consumed by the working classes. This rise of price was accompanied by a considerable rise in wages. Subsequently to that date there has been no considerable or marked rise in wages generally, although there has been in many cases a certain steady rise, and certainly in no case or only in very

exceptional cases have these wage-rates fallen to a point lower than their average level of about 20 years ago. On the other hand, there has been since about 1872 a great fall in the price of most commodities, especially in the prices of articles of food and clothing.

General improvement.

6. It does not come within our province to discuss the question to what extent these phenomena, if and in so far as they are correctly described, are due to changes in the relation of money to other commodities, to improvements in the arts of production, to the income which is derived by this country from foreign investments (now estimated to amount to nearly 100 millions annually), to increased savings invested in this country, or to the opening up of new sources of food supply abroad. But if the general rise of wages up to about the year 1872, their subsequent maintenance or increase, and the fall in the prices of articles consumed by the working classes since about 1872 may be taken as general facts, they seem to bear out the testimony of good observers that on the whole there has been an immense improvement during the last 50 years in the condition of these classes. It must further be remembered that many individuals among them not only derive income from wages but also from a certain stock of invested savings. A considerable amount of property also belongs to them in the form of freehold houses and furniture.

Mr. Giffen's estimates as to wages.

7. The elaborate inquiries made by Mr. Giffen have led him to the following conclusions which were submitted by him to the Commission in evidence. He considers, on the basis of actual returns for the year 1885 as to great masses of working men, that, taking the whole of Great Britain and Ireland, the actual earnings of adult males engaged in manual labour are approximately as follows:—

Under 10*s.* a week	0·2 per cent.
10*s.* to 15*s.* „	2·5 „
15*s.* „ 20*s.* „	20·9 „
20*s.* „ 25*s.* „	35·4 „
25*s.* „ 30*s.* „	23·6 „
30*s.* „ 35*s.* „	11·2 „
35*s.* „ 40*s.* „	4·4 „
Above 40*s.* „	1·8 „

Thus, according to this calculation 59 per cent. of the total number earn between 20*s.* and 30*s.* a week, or about the average rate, and, of the remainder rather less than 24 per cent. earn under 20*s.*, and 17 per cent. above 30*s.* Mr. Giffen estimates the average annual earnings of adult males engaged in labour to be about 60*l.*, and those of boys and lads to be about 23*l.* 8*s.* The average annual earnings of women he estimates to be, inclusive of those in domestic service, about 40*l.*, exclusive of those in domestic service, about 32*l.*; of girls, inclusive of those in domestic service, about 23*l.*, exclusive of those in domestic service, about 18*l.* 4*s.* Domestic service, appears, according to the census, to engage between one-third and one-half of all females employed, and the remuneration for it is high compared with that obtained in other employments for women. The average remuneration of women in domestic employment would come out more nearly at 50*l.* a year, and of girls at 28*l.* The average earnings of each wage-earner, taking men, women, and children together, Mr. Giffen puts at 48*l.* a year. Means were taken by the Board of Trade in making these investigations to ascertain the actual earnings, including allowances, to which these figures apply, as distinguished both from rates of wages and from mere money payments.

Persons receiving under 20*s.* a week.

8. The estimate that nearly 24 per cent. of men in employment receive wages not exceeding 20*s.* a week is to be considered in connection with the following circumstances:—

(1.) This fraction of the adult male working population embraces a large proportion of the agricultural labourers in Great Britain and Ireland.

(2.) A certain portion of the 24 per cent. are men belonging to skilled textile trades which employ many women and children. In connection with these trades it must be remembered that, although a cotton operative, for example, may be earning no more than 20*s.* a week, he, with his wife and two or three children may be earning, as a family, an income as large or larger than that which is earned by a hewer of coal who maintains his whole family. To some extent this is also true of agricultural labourers, especially in some northern counties where the women work as hard as the men. Mr. Giffen calculates that, dividing the aggregate annual income of the

working classes by the number of adult males, the result would be a sum rather above 80*l.* a head, thus exceeding by upwards of 20*l.* the average income of adult male workers alone, and the average family income, where workpeople are grouped in families, would no doubt exceed the income earned by male workers supporting families by their own exertions.

(3.) A certain, though not a very appreciable part of the men earning no more than 20*s.* a week are old men past the vigour of life, who are still employed, but for less than the average wages, in their trades, of men in full vigour. After deducting from the 25 per cent. the mass of agricultural labourers, a certain proportion of the textile male operatives, and old men on half pay, the greater part of the residue appears to consist of workers in the less skilled and more or less casual employments in great cities. This part of the population is to be found in great numbers in the East of London, where, according to the estimate made by Mr. Charles Booth, in the result of his careful inquiries, about 22½ per cent. of the total population (all ages and sexes) of the district with which he deals, or about 204,000 persons, belong to families in receipt of incomes of no more, on the average, than from 18*s.* to 21*s.* a week, while 11¼ per cent., or about 100,000 of the same population, fall below this level, not including about 11,000 who belong to the lowest class of all. (*Labour and Life of the People, Vol. I., Part I., Chapter* 2.)

Between the points indicated by the receipt of a family regular income of 22*s.* a week, and that indicated by the receipt of a family regular income of 30*s.* a week come, in Mr. Booth's opinion, the great central mass of East London working class families.

General improvement in wages.

9. It seems to be certain that 50 years ago the proportion of persons receiving very low wages to the total working population was very much larger than it is at present, although, in view of the great growth of population, the actual number of this class may not be less. At that time agricultural labour engaged a much larger proportion of the working population at even lower wages than those now received in that occupation. The very poor rural population of Ireland was also larger then than it now is. The total improvement, then, so far as relates to wages, seems to consist in this, that, while in specific employments during the last 50 years there has been a great rise of wages, and a rise also in the general remuneration of unskilled labour, there has also been a gradual substitution of better paid employments for the worse paid employments that existed at a former period, causing the percentage of persons earning the lowest rates to be greatly reduced. Thus the improvement has made itself felt throughout the scale. This being the fact with regard to money wages there also appears to be reason for thinking that, taking together the rise of prices up to about the year 1872 and their subsequent fall, the purchasing power of money is at least as great now as it was 50 years ago, especially with regard to the articles most consumed by the poorer classes, and much greater than it was 20 years ago.

Questions connected with Piece-work.

Wages, how paid.

10. Wages are paid either by time (so much per week, day, or hour, as the case may be), or by the piece. There is also a method intermediate between these two, known as the task-wage system, under which payment is by time, coupled with a stipulation that a minimum of work shall be done within the time. Payment by the piece is the prevailing rule in large departments of the mining, iron and steel, and textile industries. It also prevails to a large extent in various other important trades, and is the rule in some of the worst paid industries of the country, such as the make-up of cheap clothing and furniture.

Arguments in favour of piece-work.

11. The advantages urged in favour of piece-work are (1) that it stimulates the industry of the workers and diminishes the cost of supervision; (2), that it is the easiest way of securing to the best men the fruits of their superior capacity, of which it is not desirable either in justice to them, or in the interests of the community, to deprive them; and (3), that it enables employers in some cases to find work for weakly or elderly men whom they could not profitably employ at the standard daily wage.

Arguments against piece-work.

12. Many trade unions seem to be opposed to the practice. It is argued, on this side:—

(1.) That the eventual result of piece-work is to lower the general level of wages. Employers measure the prices for it by what the best or quickest workman can do, so that although the best men may, in the first instance, gain by it,

the average men lose. Accordingly, where work is paid by the piece the constant object of the workpeople is to obtain stable and permanent price lists.

(2.) That piece-work tends to injure the physical well-being of the workman by leading to excessive intensity of exertion.

(3.) „ piece-work leads to "scamping" of work, and is, therefore, against the interests of the public. This is a reason, in particular, why it should not be permitted in works of a public character.

(4.) „ piece-work leads to jealousy and ill-feeling among men, and to separation of interests.

(5.) „ it tempts individual workmen to do more than their fair share of work and gain more than their fair share of wages, while others find it difficult to obtain employment.

Some of these arguments are generally regarded as worthy of consideration with reference to the special circumstances of particular cases, but there are some who deny to the last any validity at all. They hold that it involves the fallacy that the amount of employment is fixed; and they urge on the contrary that every increase in the energy of any one trade makes a corresponding addition to the employment of other trades and to the wages received in them.

Collective piece-work.

13. Where the "piece" to be paid for is a job assigned to a group of workmen, the method may be described as collective piece-work. The favour or disfavour with which collective piece-work is viewed by workmen depends in great measure upon the manner in which the constitution of the group is determined, and the collective wage is divided among its members. Where the collective wage is divided among the members of the group in proportions determined among themselves, the system approaches to a form of co-operative production. At the other end of the scale it passes into a system of contract work, under which the subordinate members of the group receive only time-wages, and the whole gain, if any, arising from special efficiency goes to the foreman in charge.

2.—Hours of Labour, and Questions connected with Overtime.

Hours of Labour.

General reduction of hours.

14. The Return which was published by the Board of Trade in the year 1890 shows the average number of hours worked weekly in the chief trade centres in certain important industries in every tenth year from 1850 to 1890. Taking this information together with that contained in other reports of the Board of Trade, and with that supplied to the Commission in oral and written evidence, it seems clear that, in the great majority of skilled trades, the hours of labour have been considerably reduced within the last 50 years. In some cases this effect has been due to, or at least accelerated by, legislation. This has been the case with regard to the labour of women, young persons, and children, whose hours are limited by the Acts passed for the regulation of factories, workshops, and mines. Indirectly, this legislation has also affected the hours of labour of men employed in connection with these establishments. In the case of skilled trades carried on by adult men, the normal hours of labour, though untouched by the Factory Acts, have shown a tendency of recent years to approximate to nine a day or 54 a week. This limitation has been general, and not confined to trades in which there are unions. In some cases it has been achieved by the action of trade unions, whether by friendly negotiation with employers or by strikes, and the custom in those trades where it is established has become in turn a potent instrument for reducing the number of the remaining exceptions. In some cases the reduction of hours of labour has not been accompanied by a diminution of output. Modern improvements in the arts of production have contributed to this result, and the reduction of hours may have proved a stimulus to the invention of such improvements. It was pointed out in evidence in connection with the cotton industry, that a diminution of hours of work does not always mean diminution of labour. Machinery worked at a higher rate of speed during nine hours in the absence of corresponding improvements diminishing the strain upon the workers may involve as much exertion as would machinery worked at a lower speed for ten hours.

In the case of unskilled labour.

15. Curtailment of the hours of skilled workmen has had a like effect upon those of such general or unskilled labourers as work in connection with them. The labour of another large portion of the latter class fluctuates so much from week to week, and even from day to day, that it would hardly be possible to ascertain its average duration. The hours of work of agricultural labourers would not seem to have varied greatly from what they were in former times. They are dictated to a great

extent by the seasons, the varying length of daylight, the condition of the ground, and the nature of the operations to be performed. To some extent this is also true of other industries carried on in the open air, such as building or brickmaking and dock labour.

Cases where long hours are worked for high pay.

16. In some cases very long hours are worked in occupations wherein high earnings can be gained by piece-work. An instance of this is the occupation of workmen engaged at blast-furnaces in the pig-iron trade. In the Cleveland district, according to the evidence of Mr. Snow, the furnaces are worked continually by alternate shifts of men on duty for 12 hours each, and also on alternate Sundays. This industry, together with the manufactured iron trade, where puddlers and millmen work alternate shifts, is, according to the statements made in evidence by Mr. Trow, eminently adapted by its nature to a system of three eight-hour shifts, the result of which would also be to somewhat increase the output. Various attempts, however, made by employers to introduce a three-shift system into puddling have failed on account of the resistance of the puddlers themselves (who earn from 6*s.* to 8*s.* per shift), the men having a strong objection to what they consider the unreasonable hours of commencing work under the three-shift system. In the mill department there is also a strong objection on the part of the men who prefer to work the long hours, by which they can earn 20*s.* a day or more. In a like manner the physically stronger and more energetic class of dock-labourers in London often work very long hours and earn considerable pay, and it appears from the evidence that employers, even though they might think it more to their advantage to have a shift system, would find it difficult to introduce it against the will of these men.

Cases where long hours are worked for low pay.

17. Very long hours are also worked in the baking industry, in some classes of shops, and on many lines of tramways and omnibuses. Excessive hours of labour form also one portion of the miseries of the unorganised and over-crowded industries connected with the make-up of cheap clothing, cabinet-making, and some other manufactures, especially in London. It may, indeed, be said that very long hours, where they are still worked, are often due to causes of an opposite character. In some occupations the workmen are influenced by the hope of gain beyond the average, in others by dread of starvation. In the one case hours are long because the men in possession of the work successfully resist sharing it, and their wages, with others. In the other case the hours are long because the competition for work is so great and the remuneration for it so low that a great deal of labour has to be done to earn a very slender livelihood.

Hours of work and hours of duty.

18. In comparing the hours of work in various occupations, it should be borne in mind that the number of hours is a very incomplete test of the hardness of work, and that in many cases hours of duty are not necessarily hours of actual work. It is obvious that 14 hours of duty as a porter at a station on a country branch line, or 12 hours duty as a seaman at intervals of four hours on a good steamship in calm weather, differ so much in kind from 10 hours' work attending looms in Lancashire, or eight hours of hewing coal in a mine, that it would be impracticable to draw any common conclusion with regard to the four cases. Generally speaking, however, the evidence may be said to show that although some highly paid piece-workers on the one side, and considerable classes of ill-paid and unorganised operatives on the other, work for very long hours, the general mass of skilled workmen, together with the unskilled labourers who work with them, do not now have a working-day much in excess of nine hours. It may be added that well-organised workmen very rarely, if ever, have lost the gains acquired by them in the way of reduction of hours of work, and that the tendency to the reduction of the normal working-day by voluntary effort and negotiation with employers does not appear to have exhausted itself.

Questions connected with Overtime.

Questions with regard to overtime.

19. The questions which most frequently occur with regard to hours of work are (1) What shall be the normal standard of hours in a trade? (2) Shall any overtime be worked? (3) If so, shall the amount of overtime worked be limited and defined, and how? (4) What shall be the extra pay for overtime work? Obviously, the last three of these questions can only arise when and where some fixed standard of hours has been attained. The strikes which have taken place within the last few years having for their object the reduction of the normal standard of hours, have, it would appear, been more frequent among the less skilled trades, and in some of the occupations

connected with transport. It is alleged that in some instances the object of the demand for reduced hours is not so much actually to shorten work as to increase the time during which extra pay can be claimed. In railway labour also, questions as to the reduction of normal hours have arisen, and the serious strike on Scotch railways in 1891 turned largely upon this point. The London carpenters and joiners struck in the same year for shorter normal hours as well as higher wages. The strike was ended by an arbitration award which conceded to the men part of their claim in respect of hours.

Policy of trade union as to overtime.

20. In most of the skilled and organised trades which have long enjoyed a definite and not unreasonable standard of normal hours, the question chiefly at issue in recent years has been that of the definition and regulation of overtime. The general modern policy of trade unions has been to restrict overtime as much as possible, and to define strictly (1) the amount of hours of overtime which it shall, by the custom of the trade, be legitimate for a workman to do in the week; (2) the amount of extra pay for overtime. Rigid rules in regard to these matters seem to obtain chiefly in trades connected with shipbuilding and engineering. Casual overtime in emergencies, *e.g.*, for carrying out repairs, is not usually objected to by men in these trades.

Arguments against working overtime.

21. The general arguments for and against the practice of overtime at extra rates of pay are, to a certain extent, upon the same lines as those (referred to in paragraphs 174 to 176 of this Report) which relate to proposals for the legal limitation of hours of work. The arguments against overtime may be shortly stated as follows :—

(1.) Overtime, even if in consideration of extra pay, is bad for men physically and morally. It leaves them no leisure for social and family intercourse or self-improvement. Even if the bad physical result of overtime be not at present visible, it impairs the general "physique" of the race of workmen, and will be bad for future generations. It also leads to bad work, which in some cases, as that of railway men, may be an actual source of danger to the public.

(2.) Some employers will increase hours of work if they can, and would be successful in doing so when bad trade gives them an advantage over the men, unless they are prevented by rigid rules about overtime, to be observed whether trade is good or bad.

(3.) Overtime, if allowed, is an encouragement to alternate rushes of work and slack employment. If no employer could work overtime, "jobs" would be spread out over longer periods and fluctuations of industry and irregularity of employment would be diminished. It is the competition between employers in the same trade which causes them to press work forward in good times with feverish speed. If, through strict trade union rules, systematic overtime can be prevented throughout a trade, one employer can no longer compete in this way with another at the cost of his workmen.

(4.) Admitting that many individual workmen like to work unlimited overtime for the sake of extra pay, yet they ought to be restricted, inasmuch as by so doing they do harm to the interests of the general body of men. The result of systematic overtime is that work and wages are unfairly shared, that some men have more work to do than is good for them, while others go lacking employment.

Arguments in favour of overtime.

22. Arguments to the following effect were adduced on the other side, in favour of liberty or greater liberty, as to overtime at extra pay :—

(1.) The evil effects, moral and physical, which are ascribed to overtime, obviously involve a question of degree. No universal rule can be laid down applicable to every kind of work and every individual workman.

(2.) It is not usually to the interest of the employers themselves to have systematic overtime, least of all when trade is bad; but the rules of some unions go too far in the direction of preventing all overtime.

(3.) Working overtime can have little, if any, effect on the fluctuations of industry. The chief causes of such fluctuations are beyond control; and, when trade is beginning to improve, very rigid rules as to overtime are injurious to the interests of all concerned, as depriving work of a desirable elasticity and power of rapid adaptation to circumstances. A whole industry might

permanently suffer from the transfer of orders, which, in consequence of such rules, could not to be executed in time, to our competitors abroad.

In those industries where fluctuations are frequent, especially where they depend on seasons, the abolition of all overtime would be most prejudicial to the workmen themselves, because without it they could not make up by extra work and wages at one season for less work and wages at another. Further than this, a right use of occasional overtime not only does not increase fluctuations of industry, but positively diminishes irregularity of employment. Where there is exceptional demand for the work of a trade, it is better that those in it should work a moderate amount of overtime than that their work should become temporarily so scarce and so highly paid as to attract into the trade men who cannot find steady and permanent employment in it. Even as things are, much of the existing irregularity of work in a trade is due to short periods of abnormally high wages, which tend to cause labour to be misdirected, and are, in the long run, as injurious to the trade itself as to other trades which have to buy from it.

To this it was answered (*see e.g.*, Evidence, Group A. 25,123) (*a*) that in skilled trades men can usually only enter young by way of apprenticeship, and that, therefore, there can be no taking in of outsiders in good times (*see*, however, paragraph 28, § 2); (*b*) that even in good times there is not enough, or barely enough employment, for all the existing men in such trades.

(4.) Individual men, if not constrained by trade-union action, like extra work at extra pay, and ought not to be prevented from disposing of their labour as they think best in their own interest.

(5.) To treat the amount of employment as a fixed quantity is an economic fallacy to which reference has already been made in connection with piece-work. The more work people can do in one trade the more employment, in the long run, there will be for those in others. It is quite consistent with this to hold that where many men are out of work in a trade, while others in it are working overtime, it would be a gain that the work should be more evenly distributed.

Interest of employers and workmen.

23. No doubt, in some cases, especially where much machinery is employed, long hours of work may be to the pecuniary advantage of employers, but this advantage partly or wholly vanishes when workmen have enforced their claim to high extra pay for work beyond certain normal hours. Many employers gave evidence to the effect that it is not to their own interest to employ tired men at higher pay. When possible, especially in the case of work paid by the piece or the hour, it is much more to their interest to have eight-hour shifts of labour. The shift system, however, is not practicable in all cases. Sometimes there are not sufficient men to enable it to be introduced suddenly throughout the whole of a district. Sometimes, in many kinds of skilled work, a second man cannot take the place of a first man at a given moment without injury to the work in hand. Often the men themselves so much prefer to work overtime at extra pay, that they cannot be induced to surrender their places to men of a fresh shift.

3.—Permanence of Engagements, and Questions connected with Apprenticeship.*

Permanence of engagements.

24. Although practical permanence of engagement is common in many industries, yet in very few instances does the legal and customary notice to terminate engagements upon either side exceed a month. More often it appears to be limited to one or two weeks, and in many cases, and especially in the case of unskilled labour, a workman may be discharged or may leave his employment without any notice at all.

Decay of old system of service.

25. In earlier times engagements were generally for a year at least, and this custom was enforced by legislation. When the old system was finally superseded in some of the leading trades by the factory system, the practice of taking on and discharging workpeople at short notice to suit the fluctuations of trade, appears to have arisen in the interest of employers. At the present day the trade unions would seem themselves to be opposed to any system of long notice to terminate engagements because it would interfere with their power to strike all hands simultaneously in a trade at short notice, at the time most convenient for that purpose.

Former law relating to apprenticeship.

26. In close connection with this branch of the subject are the questions connected with apprenticing. The system of apprenticeship in the skilled trades was very

* The subject of fluctuations of employment is treated of in a later part of this Report (*see* Review VI., page 73).

carefully regulated by the Act of 5 Eliz. c. 4. which appears to have defined and made statutory the essential part of the general custom of Europe in previous times. This Act, after strictly defining the social classes from which apprentices might be taken into the various skilled trades, enacted that no person should practise any occupation, either as master or journeyman, unless he had been apprenticed to it seven years at least. The Act further limited, in the case of certain textile and other trades, the proportion of apprentices to journeymen. In this way the Act specifically separated off unskilled from skilled labour and drew strict lines of demarcation between the several skilled trades.

Decline of system of apprenticeship.

27. The result of the invention of machinery, the division of labour, and the development of manufacture on the great scale at the end of the last and beginning of the present century, was to separate in many important trades the class of employers from that of employed, and to break down the old system of apprentice, journeyman, and master. When provisions relating to apprenticeship in the Act 5 Eliz. c. 4 were finally repealed in the year 1814 by the Act 54 Geo. III., c. 96., there ceased to be any legal guarantee for the restriction of the number of workmen in any trade. The custom, however, of regular apprenticeship continued in many trades, especially in those which were still practised upon the small scale and not transferred to large works or factories, and where the introduction of machinery and sub-division of labour had not seriously diminished the general skill and training required in the workmen. Apprenticeship for seven, or, more often, for five years, still exists as a custom in many trades of this kind, but it may be gathered from the oral and written evidence that the custom has a natural tendency to die out where it is not made actually necessary by the special difficulty of learning a highly skilled trade, or is not enforced by the action of strong trade unions. There seems to be a decided opinion among workmen in some trades, who are not themselves strong enough to enforce rules of apprenticeship, that Parliament should return to the Elizabethan principles, by making apprenticeship necessary and limiting the proportion of apprentices to journeymen. Some strongly organised trades have practically effected this for themselves, but the apprenticeship question remains, in many cases, one of the leading points at issue between employers and employed. A frequent object of trade unions is to secure that no one shall enter the trade without serving a five years' apprenticeship between the ages of 16 to 21, and that there shall not be more than one apprentice to every three or four journeymen. It is on this last question of proportion that disputes on this subject commonly turn.

Arguments for apprenticeship rules.

28. The arguments usually adduced on the side of the workmen may be summarised thus, viz. :—

(1.) A long education in a trade is desirable to ensure good work. There is no guarantee under the present system that a lad shall serve either for a sufficiently long period, or that during that period he shall be properly taught. The result of this is a lowering of the standard of efficiency.

(2.) Unless the proportion of apprentices to journeymen be systematically restricted, employers will, when trade is brisk, flood a trade with apprentices to the detriment of older hands, and, in subsequent bad times, these apprentices will either be discharged before attaining to the higher wages of journeymen, or remain to compete with journeymen, displacing them and lowering wages.

(3.) If some trades succeed in restricting the number of apprentices, kindred trades must do the same, otherwise they will be swamped by youths who cannot enter the protected trades.

Arguments against apprenticeship rules.

29. On the other side the following arguments are urged :—

(1.) The length of apprenticeship insisted upon is usually far more than enough, under modern conditions, to learn any trade. In some trades the man can learn the business well enough even if he does not begin till after 21, and it is unjust to prevent such men from entering into a trade if they wish to do so.

(2.) The trade unions aim at a monopoly of work by the existing number of their members, through establishing such a limitation of apprentices that this number can never increase. This policy, if successful, would fatally arrest the development of trade in this country, besides being unfair to the children of workmen outside the trade.

(3.) The number of apprentices in a trade at any given time does not show how many of them will become journeymen therein. Many of them emigrate

or drift off to other occupations. Therefore, if the proportion of apprentices to journeymen be too strictly limited, there is a danger lest the number of workmen in a trade may actually be diminished, or, at least, not increased *pari passu* with the demand.

(4.) The argument that if some trades succeed in restricting the number of apprentices other trades must do the same, tends to show that artificial hindrances to entering a trade are contrary to the public interest, not that they should be made universal.

Apprenticeship in certain skilled industries.

30. It is to be observed that the shipbuilding and engineering industries, in which these questions of apprenticeship are the most prominent, are also the industries, which, more perhaps than any others, are exposed to great fluctuations of employment resulting from fluctuations in international commerce. In these industries the alternating rushes and slackness of work are most notable. It is, therefore, natural that it should be to the interest of employers in these trades to have means of rapidly increasing or diminishing their industrial forces, and it is equally natural that the workmen should take means to protect themselves against the injury which they may thereby sustain.

Proposals for licences in certain industries.

31. Somewhat akin to the question of apprenticeship is the demand for the assistance of the public authorities in effecting a limitation of the number of persons allowed to practise certain occupations. Our attention was, in particular, called to proposals of this kind in connection with the men engaged in street transport in London. The drivers of cabs and omnibuses in London are required to hold a police licence which they can obtain after inquiry into character, and, in the case of cabdrivers, an examination in efficiency. It was suggested by witnesses on their behalf that the number of licences granted should be limited with a view to making the number of them granted to drivers correspond more nearly to the number of existing cabs and omnibuses. On the part of cabmen it was argued that, inasmuch as the fares which they can charge are limited by law, they ought also to have some legal protection against excessive competition. Carmen and waggoners in London are not required to hold licences. A witness on their behalf suggested that they also should be required to hold licences, on the ground that such a regulation would add to the safety of the public, and would tend to raise the standard of the class of men. This occupation is one in which the existing class of drivers is exposed to great competition from men drawn from rural districts.

4.—Sanitary Conditions, and Questions connected with certain Industries and Home Workers; Recent Administrative Action.

Sanitary Conditions.

Complaint of insufficient inspection.

32. Many complaints were laid before us with regard to the injurious effects of certain industries upon the health of those engaged in them, more especially in the case of chemical manufactures, and the work of potters, grinders, and bakers. In some cases these effects are due to the nature of the materials used, in others to the character of the places where the work is carried on. In other cases again the danger of accidents arising from machinery was a subject of complaint. The complaints received in this connection were, as a rule, directed not against any alleged inadequacy of the existing laws, but against the difficulty of enforcing them, a difficulty usually attributed to insufficiency of inspection. It is a very general opinion among the working classes that the number of inspectors is not nearly sufficient, and that their staff should be greatly increased, especially by the appointment of inspectors or assistant inspectors taken from among people who have a practical acquaintance with work of various kinds.

Factory and Workshops Act of 1891.

33. The evidence received must be considered in the light of the fact that, at the date when it was given, sufficient time had not elapsed to test the effect of the changes introduced by the Factory and Workshops Act, 1891. Under this Act an important division of duties has been established in connection with the inspection of workshops (as distinguished from factories). The supervision, so far as relates to all sanitary matters, of all workshops, including those in which adult males only are employed, has now been placed in the hands of the local sanitary authorities. It was asserted by some witnesses that these authorities were less zealous in enforcing sanitary regulations, being not infrequently in close relations with the employers neglecting them. In those workshops which fall under the inspection of factory inspectors for the purpose of enforcing limitations of hours, those inspectors are still bound to give notice to the local

authority of any insanitary conditions which they may find to exist, but now, if within a reasonable time that authority does not take proceedings to remedy the evil, the factory inspectors are empowered themselves to take proceedings (s. 2.). The Act of 1891 also contains a provision (s. 1) that if the Secretary of State is satisfied that the requirements of the law as to sanitary matters are not observed in any workshops or class of workshops (including those in which adult male labour only is employed) he may direct the factory inspectors to take such steps as may be necessary for enforcing those requirements.

Division of duties between H.M. Inspectors and sanitary authorities.

34. There seems to be considerable doubt whether the provision in the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, which places the duty of sanitary inspection of workshops (as distinguished from factories) in the hands of the local sanitary authorities, is likely to work successfully. Although in some large towns the local authorities have taken up the work of inspection with vigour, this appears to be by no means the case everywhere. It has been suggested* that the division of duties and responsibilities between the central and local officers is not conducive to the effective carrying out of the law, and that it might be better to make either H.M. inspectors or the local authorities solely responsible for the sanitary inspection of all factories and workshops, and for the enforcement of necessary improvements.

Act of 1891, s. 8.

35. Another important provision of the Act of 1891 (s. 8) is as follows:—"Where the Secretary of State certifies that in his opinion any machinery or process or "particular description of manual labour used in a factory or workshop (other than a "domestic workshop) is dangerous or injurious to health or dangerous to life or limb, "either generally or in the case of women, children, or any other class of persons, or "that the provision for the admission of fresh air is not sufficient, or that the quantity "of dust generated or inhaled in any factory or workshop is dangerous or injurious "to health," the Chief Inspector may take certain steps for the establishment of special rules or the adoption of special measures to meet the evil. Such rules have subsequently been laid down in the case of the manufacture of white lead, paints, colours, lucifer matches, the extraction of arsenic, and the enamelling of iron plates. The rules, when established, may be amended from time to time.

Mr. Whymper's opinion.

36. It was observed by Mr. Whymper, the late Chief Inspector of Factories, in a circular which he prepared to explain the effect of the Act of 1891, that "the conditions "which the special rules may embrace seem almost to exhaust the possibilities of "danger and insanitation."† The powers possessed by the factory inspectors under the Act of 1878 for securing the proper fencing and protection of dangerous machinery in factories have also been extended by the Act of 1891 (s. 6.).

General effect of factory legislation.

37. The general effect of the factory and workshop legislation should be to afford considerable security to workpeople in factories and in those workshops which fall within the inspection of the factory inspectors, if and in so far as that inspection can by system or sufficiency of staff be rendered effective. The last-mentioned workshops have a double security, inasmuch as they may be visited either by the factory inspectors or by the officials of the local sanitary authorities. In the case of workshops which employ adult male labour only, proper inspection will chiefly depend upon the willingness and efficiency with which it is undertaken by the local authority. In any case the effectiveness of the law with regard to the prevention of accidents, and the maintenance of healthy conditions would appear to depend, to a considerable extent, upon the willingness of workpeople to co-operate with the proper authorities, and to draw their attention to such evils as exist. It may be gathered from the evidence that very often, from apathy, dread of loss of employment, or ignorance of the law, workpeople, while complaining of the rareness of visits by inspectors, take no steps to invite the attention of inspectors to evils. They are probably, in many cases, not aware that they could do this without any fear of incurring the resentment of employers, inasmuch as factory inspectors are instructed to act upon anonymous communications. In this, as in other matters, those artisans who possess more skill, strength, or resource can organise and take care of themselves, while those who are weak and unskilled neither aid themselves nor take such steps as would ensure protection under the provisions of the law.

Condition of certain Industries.

Condition of certain industries.

38. Attention has been strongly called from time to time to the state of working people in certain occupations, who have to work very long hours for very low pay,

* *See* Report of Chief Inspector for 1892, pp. 73, 74.

† *See* also p. 3 of the same Report.

and frequently under the most insanitary conditions. The most marked among these industries are those connected with the make-up of cheap clothing and furniture, *i.e.*, tailoring, boot-making, sempstress work, and cabinet-making, but they include a multitude of small industries practised in large urban centres, and especially in London. Among these trades may also be included the manufacture by hand of nails and other small metal industries practised in the Midland districts. Industries falling under these heads are to a great extent carried on without the use of steam or water power, and either by small groups of workers or by individuals working at home. Very often, as in the case of nail and file making, they present instances of cheap labour by hand competing with difficulty against the production of the same article by machinery. It is also sometimes the case with industries of these descriptions that, either by reason of their inherent simplicity, or because they have become sub-divided into a number of small and easy processes, they can be learnt with very little training by any one.

Causes of evils of the "sweated industries."

39. Employments of this kind have been termed the "sweated industries." A widespread impression with regard to them has been that the bad conditions of labour, low pay, long hours, and insanitary arrangements are due to the practice of excessive distribution of work by way of contracts and sub-contracts with the result that profit which should reach the workpeople is absorbed by a series of middlemen. Recent investigations, including those undertaken by a Committee of the House of Lords, go to show that this impression is not generally correct, though it may in some cases be justified by facts.* The evils in question seem to be dependent upon two conditions, first, that in these occupations an excessive number of small masters are competing against each other to an extent which makes it necessary for each of them, in order to live himself, to reduce the cost of production to the utmost; and next, that an overcrowded and unorganised mass of workpeople (whether working in their shops or taking work to do at home) are competing with one another for employment. The over-supply of labour renders it difficult to establish effective organisations among the workpeople (a difficulty which is enhanced in the case of occupations scattered through innumerable small workshops or lodgings, especially in the case of an immense and shifting population like that of London), and the absence of organisation, in its turn, deprives them of that protection which is possessed by workmen in trades requiring greater skill or energy. Thus a vicious circle of interacting causes is formed. It is important to remember that the increased effectiveness of organisation among the stronger workers tends to add to the number of less competent or less fortunate persons driven down into those unorganised industries in which little skill or energy is required, and thereby increase the over-supply of labour in them. It must also be borne in mind that one result of increased stringency in the legislative and administrative regulation of workshops may be to raise the cost of production in such workshops, and thereby cause contractors to put out more work to be done by workpeople in their homes, or in such workshops as are so small and hidden as to escape practically all supervision.

Possible natural remedies.

40. On the other hand, the evils in question, in the case of some of the present "sweated" industries, may be eventually brought to an end by natural causes. In certain of these trades, especially in boot-making, there seems to be a tendency towards the more extensive use of machinery, and consequently towards the removal

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* Mr. Charles Booth made the following statement in the evidence which he gave to the Commission (*Evidence, Whole Commission*, 5415). He is referring to the result of the elaborate investigation which he has undertaken with regard to labour in London. "The popular notion as to sub-contract and the conception of its methods which gave them a bad name was that someone who had contracted to do a quantity of work made a profit by sub-letting it to small master men, who, in their turn, perhaps sub-let again, and that, finally, the profits of contractors and sub-contractors alike were 'sweated' out of the workpeople. This idea was shown to be baseless; such sub-letting seldom occurs: except, indeed, with regard to special processes which are frequently the better paid portions of the work; and in cases of pure distribution it was shown that the sub-contractor played a useful part in bringing the workers and the work together. Those who obtained work direct from the wholesale house were usually not paid any better than those whose work came to them through a middleman. The middleman's profit was thus shown to be a charge on the work and not a charge on the workers. The word 'sub-contract' was further used to mean the giving out of work to be done by small master men. This was, in fact, a 'contract,' but by a confusion of ideas and for the convenience of condemnation it was still called 'sub-contract.' It was shown that this system was very general and by no means always associated with any evils; but it was found to be conducive to industrial oppression when the workers were helpless. Finally, it was found impossible to draw any distinction between small masters working for a wholesale house, and those working for their own account who perhaps sold their productions to the wholesale house, and it thus became evident that it was truly neither contract nor sub-contract, but the working for small masters that was to be associated with the evils of sweating."

of the trade into establishments in country towns, and the consolidation of small workshops into large factories. The immediate result of this transference, as of other remedies, might, no doubt, be to increase the competition and distress of the existing workpeople in the old centres, who would not, as a rule, be able to follow the trade to its new centres, or possess aptitudes for new methods of work.

Effect of production by co-operative societies.

41. Again, it must be noticed that in some cases the great co-operative associations of consumers have begun to manufacture for themselves in their own factories part of the articles of clothing produced by the sweated industries. In such factories favourable conditions of work are ensured, or at least rendered probable, by the nature of the case. The Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society carries on at present 14 or 15 manufacturing industries, including boot-making, tailoring, and shirt-making. This Society has taken steps, by giving a small premium to work done in their factories, to induce shirt finishers to work in them instead of taking work home. The English Wholesale Society professes to ensure very good conditions to those who work in its factories. Inasmuch, also, as the manufactures in question are of a comparatively simple kind and require little capital, it is possible that independent co-operative associations of workmen may have success in them, especially if supported by the sympathy and custom of public bodies or associations of consumers. Manufacturing societies of this kind have been successfully started among the bootmakers of Leicester and Kettering. It has been suggested that the evils now existing in London could be cured by the establishment there of great co-operative associations of consumers carrying on their own manufactures. But the difficulty of establishing these associations in London, the centre of the small industries, has never yet been overcome. It has been observed that, as a rule, trade unions and associations of consumers flourish best in the same districts, and amid the same populations, that is, so far as present experience goes, amid settled populations practising large staple industries.

Suggestions for extension of Factory and Workshop Acts.

42. Under these circumstances various plans have been suggested for more effectively extending the principles of the Factory and Workshop Acts to industries of this class. "Workshops," under the Factory and Workshops Act, are distinguished on the one side from "factories" by the circumstance that no mechanical power is used in them, and, on the other side, from domestic workshops by the circumstance that an employer has a right of access to or control over the premises used. Domestic workshops are private rooms in which work is carried on with regularity, but in which the only persons employed are members of the same family dwelling there. (Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, s. 16.) Private rooms in which labour is exercised at irregular intervals only, and does not furnish the whole or the principal means of living to a family, do not fall within the scope of the Acts. Domestic workshops, like other workshops, are under the supervision of the local authorities with regard to sanitary matters. The provisions of the Acts which prescribe the fixing of the actual times for work and meals, and the affixing of notices in the workrooms (where protected persons are employed), do not apply to domestic workshops, but the restrictions upon the length of the hours of children and young persons, though not of adult women, do apply to domestic workshops (Act, 1878, s. 16). The fixed amount of overtime allowed by the Acts in the case of protected persons in certain trades does not extend to workshops of this kind.

General result of Acts, and view of inspectors and others as to further legislation.

43. The general result of these Acts, so far as relates to workshops is, therefore, that all workshops, including rooms regularly used for that purpose by single families, are, in sanitary matters, under the supervision of the local authorities, whose duties, if they fail to discharge them, may be taken over by the factory inspectors, and that all such workshops in which there is any labour of protected persons fall, as to hours of work, under the supervision of the factory inspectors. The question remains as to the manner in which such supervision can be made effective in practice. It was provided by the Act of 1878 that notice of the occupation for work of any factory should be sent to an inspector. This provision was extended by the Act of 1891 (s. 26) to workshops, not including domestic workshops. The inspector on receiving any such notice is to communicate it to the local sanitary authority. It has been suggested by several of the inspectors that it should further be made a penal offence to occupy any factory or workshop without obtaining a licence issued by a competent authority. It is proposed by one inspector that the licence should not be granted before the authority was able to certify that the premises in question were fit for occupation, had sufficient sanitary accommodation, had been limewashed and

properly ventilated, and contained cubic space for so many persons. These suggestions are endorsed by Mr. Sprague Oram, the present Chief Inspector of Factories, who previously, as Travelling Secretary to the House of Lords Committee on "Sweating," had conferences relating to this subject with the local authorities, trade unions, employers and employed, in various parts of England and Scotland. He makes the following definite suggestions in his Report for 1892, p. 76 :—

(1.) That the occupiers of workshops should be required to obtain a certificate, or a licence, from a registrar to be appointed by the local authority.

(2.) That within three months from the granting of the certificate the workshops should be visited by the sanitary officer of the local authority, and the licence signed by him to show the date of his visit.

(3.) That if the workshop should be found not to be in such a sanitary condition as is required by the Public Health Act, a medical officer of health should be empowered to take proceedings at once against the owner of the property.

(4.) That not only occupiers of factories and workshops, but all contractors and shopkeepers who employ out-workers, should keep lists of such out-workers, and be only permitted to employ those who occupied licensed factories or workshops, and that if the name of any out-worker be omitted from the list, or if any person is employed as an out-worker whose work-place is unlicensed, the employer of such out-worker should be liable to a substantial penalty.

(5.) That the sanitary officer of the local authority should report to the medical officer of health such places as employ females, young persons, or children, and lists of such places only should be forwarded to the Chief Inspector of Factories.

Mr. Sprague Oram adds that, if it should be deemed desirable to limit the proposed regulations at first, instead of making them applicable to all branches of business, the first steps might be confined to manufacturers of wearing apparel, "amongst whom the greatest evils connected with these matters exist." It must be observed that the Chief Inspector excludes from these proposals of compulsorily licensed work-rooms, rooms where only one woman, or a man and his wife are employed, and feels some doubt whether it would be practicable to extend them to "domestic workshops," where only a man's family is employed.

Question of sufficiency of number of inspectors

44. It is possible that, if proposals more or less of this character were adopted, it might be found that the intention of the Factory and Workshop and Public Health Acts could be carried out more effectively than at present so far as relates to sanitary matters, even without any great increase of central or local inspectors, inasmuch as the condition of workshops would be brought more systematically, and, as it were, automatically, before the attention of the authorities. It seems, however, that, under the present system at any rate, the staff of H.M. Inspectors has proved insufficient to control the sanitary condition of factories and workshops. Now that the inspection of workshops, with respect to this matter, has been transferred to the local authorities, it partly depends upon the energy with which they take up the matter whether their inspecting staff is sufficient. The amount of energy displayed varies much, of course, with the characteristics of different authorities.

Responsibility for condition of domestic workshops. (1.) Mr. Booth's proposal.

45. The present obligation, under the Act of 1891, to register workshops, does not extend to "domestic workshops," in which many parts of the tailoring, boot-making, cabinet-making, and sempstress trades are carried on, often under the most insanitary conditions, the workers frequently using the same rooms in which they sleep. It is represented that the increased administrative pressure upon regular workshops may have the effect of causing more work to be done by these outworkers. To meet these evils, Mr. Charles Booth proposed that responsibility for the sanitary condition of all workshops, and even, in the case of protected persons, the responsibility for the due observation of the legal hours of work, should be thrown upon the landlord, or person to whom the rent is paid, as well as on the tenant who occupies the workshop. Both landlord and tenant should be made responsible, as well for structural defects as for misuse of the premises (*e.g.*, overcrowding, or insanitation caused by the tenant, or working illegal hours). "The occupier, if fined for structural defects, would be "entitled to stop the amount out of his rent; the landlord, if fined for misuse, would "be entitled to collect the amount with his rent from the occupier, or recover by a "summary process." (Evidence, Whole Commission, 5451.) The landlord ought, further, to be made responsible for registration (5428). These provisions Mr. Booth would propose to extend to every case in which persons work together, with the sole exception of husband and wife (5419).

(2.) Mr. S. Webb's proposal.

46. Another suggestion is that which was made by Mr. Sidney Webb (Evidence, Whole Commission, 3740), viz., that, in addition to the owner of premises containing rooms used as workshops being responsible for the sanitary conditions, the person giving out work to be done by workpeople or persons belonging to him should be made responsible for seeing that all the regulations of the Factory and Workshop Acts were there complied with.* It was represented that the balance of advantage between out-work and factory work is at present so slight in many cases that this additional pressure of responsibility would often be sufficient to induce a giver-out of work to discontinue the practice and establish or enlarge a regular factory or workshop, to the ultimate advantage of the working class.

Section 27 of Act of 1891.

47. A step in the direction of the more effectual supervision of out-work was taken by the Act of 1891, s. 27, which enacted that "the occupier of every factory and "workshop . . . and every contractor employed by any such occupier in the "business of the factory or workshop, shall, if so required by the Secretary of State "by an Order . . . . keep in the prescribed form and with the prescribed "particulars lists showing the names of all persons directly employed by him, either "as workman or as contractor, in the business of the factory or workshop, outside "the factory or workshop, and the places where they are employed, and every such "list shall be open to inspection by any inspector under the principal Act or by "any officer of a sanitary authority."

Recent Administrative Action.

Recent steps taken by the Home Secretary.

48. The following information has, subsequently to the close of the evidence, been communicated to the Commission on the part of the Home Office :—

In the autumn of 1892, two important steps were taken by the Home Secretary :— (1) he issued an Order requiring all occupiers of factories and workshops engaged in the following industries to keep lists of out-workers, viz., the manufacture of all kinds of wearing apparel, cabinet and furniture making, upholstery work, file-cutting, and electro-plating ; (2) he undertook the formation of committees of inspectors assisted by medical, chemical, and other experts, to investigate the evils incidental to labour in lead works, chemical and alkali works, lucifer match factories, potteries and quarries, and to suggest remedies and preventives.

Increase of inspectors.

49. The first of these steps was followed in 1893 by a substantial addition to the staff of factory inspectors. For the first time, two female inspectors were appointed, and a new class of inspectors' assistants was created. These assistants (15 in number) are intended by the Home Secretary to be active men of practical knowledge and experience, their special function being to follow up the out-workers' lists, and thus deal a blow at some of the worst evils admittedly inherent in the "sweating system." The bulk of them are now at work in London, where they have been placed under the charge of Mr. Lakeman, one of the most experienced of H.M. Inspectors, who has been specially detached for this purpose. The Home Secretary has announced his intention af strengthening still further in the immediate future the inspectorate, not only of factories, but also of mines. As regards the former, there are to be appointed two more female inspectors, one additional superintending inspector, and 10 assistant inspectors ; as regards the latter, there are to be appointed four additional assistant inspectors. Akin to this departure has been the provision during 1893 of offices for inspectors in Central London (for Mr. Lakeman), Glasgow, Birmingham, and Leeds. These offices are designed to be the recognised centres of factory inspection in their respective districts, places where all concerned, whether employers or workmen, can call to give or ask for information. The system is to be extended by the Home Secretary in 1894 by the provision of offices in Manchester, Liverpool, Blackburn, Sheffield, Newcastle, Nottingham, Norwich, Bristol, Southampton, Plymouth, Swansea, Edinburgh, Dundee, Dublin, and Belfast.

Rules and Inquiries.

50. The second of the steps indicated above has led to a two-fold result. The reports of all the Committees have been presented to Parliament, and special rules for the regulation of the various industries have been drafted in accordance with the Committee's suggestions. But besides special rules, further legislation has been found

* In other words, as this witness expressed it, "it is proposed to make the giver-out of work the person "responsible for the observation of the Factory Acts, at any rate as regards sanitation and the ages of the "persons employed in the places where he allows his work to be done ; that, in fact, if he chooses to carry "on his work not in one factory but in a series of 50 slum tenements in Spitalfields, that they should "collectively be regarded in the eye of the law as his factory, and that he should not be allowed to evade his "responsibilities in that way." (Evidence, Whole Commission, 3740.)

to be necessary, in order to give full effect to the recommendations contained in the Reports, especially to give the Home Secretary power to deal with unreasonably long hours of labour in dangerous industries, and to place quarries under the control of the Inspector of Mines.

The most recent steps taken by the Home Secretary on the above lines have been (*a*) the institution of exhaustive inquiries in respect of laundries, the linen industries of Belfast, the Merionethshire slate mines, and the Sheffield grinders; (*b*) the scheduling as occupations dangerous to health of the manufacture of red, orange, or yellow lead, lead smelting, the tinning and enamelling of iron hollow ware, electric accumulator works, flax mills, and linen factories; and (*c*) the appointment of committees to consider the subjects of statistics relating to factories and workshops, and mines and minerals.

5.—Accidents, and Questions connected with Employers' Liability, &c.

Accidents.

51. The subject of accidents to workmen may be looked at from two points of view, (1) the various legislative provisions intended to guard against accidents; (2) the means of obtaining compensation, or relief given to those who have suffered from accidents. Notice has already been taken (*see* paragraphs 35 and 36) of the general powers of factory inspectors to insist upon proper precautions being taken with regard to dangerous machinery in factories, and of the special provision for the establishment of rules in the case of industries attended by special dangers. It should be noticed that by s. 31 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, as amended by s. 22 of the Act of 1891, it is provided that in case of any accident in a factory or workshop causing death or bodily injury, notice of the accident must be sent to the factory inspector and the certifying surgeon of the district. The certifying surgeon, upon receiving such notice, is to proceed to the factory or workshop, investigate the circumstances, and report to the inspector, who, in case of any death from such accident, is at liberty to attend the inquest and examine witnesses. The same liberty is also accorded to the occupier of the factory or workshop in which the accident has occurred, and to any person appointed by the order in writing of the majority of the workpeople employed there. The procedure in the case of accidents in mines is regulated by the Mines Regulation Acts.

Employers' liability.

52. The Commission received much evidence with regard to the subject of the legal liabilities of employers to make compensation to workmen in the case of accidents due to various causes. This subject was investigated by a Select Committee of the House of Commons in the year 1886, and has subsequently been very fully debated in Parliament in connection with the Bill for the Amendment of the Employers' Liability Act, which was brought into Parliament in the session of 1893. It would appear from the result of those debates that there is at present a fairly general agreement with regard to the modification of the existing legal doctrine of "common employment," which formed the chief feature of the measure under discussion. There was, however, much difference upon the question whether workmen should be allowed by agreement to forego the right to bring actions under the Act in cases where accident funds exist, to which employers contribute in a certain proportion.

53. We received a good deal of evidence, especially in the case of the coal-mining industry, as to the character, administration, and advantages of joint accident funds, formed upon the basis of "contracting out" of the Act. We also heard a considerable number of representatives of trade unions express the opinion that workmen should not be allowed to "contract out." The information which we have obtained upon the subject is summed up in Appendix V. to the Summaries of Evidence. This matter has recently been very fully discussed in both Houses of Parliament and turns upon contested questions of general policy. We do not feel that we can usefully attempt to express an opinion with regard to it.

54. Much information is contained in the Report which our Secretary has prepared upon labour questions in Germany, with regard to the system of compulsory insurance against accidents now established by the law of that country. The Report upon France gives an account of the scheme which is at present before the French Legislature. It appears to us that it may eventually become desirable to institute a special inquiry, with the view of ascertaining whether any similar legislation in this country may be advisable or practicable. The subject, however, is one which is too large for us to discuss upon the evidence in our possession.

6.—General Condition of the Working Classes.

General observations.

55. It has not appeared to be within the intention of the Reference made to us that we should inquire minutely into the whole condition of the classes of society supported by manual labour. In the course, however, of the evidence which we have received as bearing upon the particular questions which affect the relations of employers and employed, much information was incidentally given with regard to general conditions of life. It was also thought desirable to take some special evidence from representatives of the great associations of consumers, and from officials connected with the registration of friendly societies, as well as the valuable evidence given by Mr. Giffen with regard to the relative aggregate income of the working classes. Some notice of the operation of the friendly benefit side of trade unions will be taken in the following part of this Report.*

Skilled workmen.

56. The impression left by the evidence as a whole is that among the more settled and stable population of skilled workpeople there has during the last half century been considerable and continuous progress in the general improvement of conditions of life, side by side with the establishment of strong trade custom adapted to the modern system and scale of industry. Experience may fairly be said to have shown that this part of the population possesses in a highly remarkable degree the power of organisation, self-government, and self-help. Workpeople of this class earn better wages, work fewer hours, have secured improved conditions of industrial and domestic life in other respects, and have furnished themselves through trade unions and friendly societies with means of providing against the various contingencies of sickness, accidents, and temporary want of employment. By means of associations of consumers they have themselves become organisers and managers of prosperous trading undertakings on a large scale; their attempts at joint productive enterprise, though less fortunate, have not been entirely without some measure of success; while by the means of building societies, or otherwise, workmen have, in many cases, acquired the ownership of the houses in which they live.

Unskilled labour.

57. The classes who compose the lower grades of industry, regarded as a whole, have probably benefited no less than the skilled workers from the increased efficiency of production, from the advantages conferred by legislation, from the cheapening of food and clothing, and from the opening out of new fields for capital and labour. In their case also the improvement manifests itself in better pay and more favourable conditions of work; but chiefly in this, that of the mass of wholly unskilled labour, part has been absorbed into higher grades, while the percentage of the total working population earning bare subsistence wages has been greatly reduced. The movement in the direction of organising unskilled labour will be spoken of later on in this Report.

Residuum population.

58. There is still a deplorably large residuum of the population, chiefly to be found in our large cities, who lead wretchedly poor lives, and are seldom far removed from the level of starvation; but it would seem that, not only the relative, but perhaps even the actual numbers of this class also are diminishing.†

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* *See* paragraph 70 *post*.

† Mr. J. M. Ludlow, formerly Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies, who has personally and officially paid attention to industrial questions for a longer continuous period than, perhaps, any person, made the following general observations in his evidence before the Commission :—

"I think the condition of the working classes has changed immensely, but not so much, I am happy to "say, as the change in public opinion on the subjects relating to that class. I find now that boys and girls "almost fresh from school are at a point of advancement in relation to this question at which in 1848 we "could not bring grown up people to, and were considered heretics and revolutionists for trying to bring them "to. I think the change in public opinion on that subject has been something perfectly marvellous. I "cannot express it sufficiently. The working class has also developed enormously in intellectual acquirements "and habits of business and largeness of outlook, though, perhaps, they have lost a little of that enthusiasm "and spirit of generous aspiration which, I think, distinguished my working-men friends of the earlier days. "Now the black spots in the country may, I think, almost be counted on the fingers. In former days it was "very nearly black with but few white spots." (Evidence, Whole Commission, 1852.)

II.

ASSOCIATIONS AND ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

1. Royal Commission of 1867 on Trade Unions, and subsequent Legislation; Scope of Inquiry by the present Commission, so far as relates to these Associations.
2. The Objects, Constitution, and Policy of ordinary Trade Unions.
3. In what Industries Trade Unions have been most successful, and the reverse.
4. Organisations of Employers.
5. Amalgamations and Federations.
6. Mixed Associations.
7. Representations made as to the injurious or beneficial Effects of Trade Unions.

1.—Royal Commission of 1867 on Trade Unions, and subsequent Legislation; Scope of Inquiry by the present Commission, so far as relates to these Associations.

59. It does not seem to be necessary for the purposes of this Report to trace the history, which has been set forth by various writers and is now well known, of the long process by which trade unions gradually acquired their present status, and obtained from the Legislature the recognition of their right of free combination for trade objects, and the legal protection to their funds and property which they now possess. It will be sufficient to refer, very shortly, to the Report of the Royal Commission of 1867, and to subsequent legislation with regard to these associations.

Royal Commission of 1867.

60. The object of the Royal Commission of 1867 was partly to investigate certain charges which had been made with respect to some then recent acts of violence and intimidation alleged to have been committed by trade unionists, but chiefly to inquire into the organisation and rules of trade unions and other associations, whether of workmen or employers, and the effect produced by such bodies, both on the relations between workmen and employers and on the trade and industry of the country. That Commission, therefore, to some extent covered ground allotted to the present Commission.

Recommendations of the Commission.

61. In the result of their inquiry the Commission of 1867 recommended certain modifications of the then existing law with a view (1) to secure that no combination of persons for the purpose of determining between themselves, or of stipulating for, the terms on which they will consent to employ or be employed, should be unlawful by reason only that its operation would be in restraint of trade; (2) to give to all such unions as complied with certain conditions facilities for becoming registered, and thereby acquiring legal capacities, rights, and liabilities arising from a status recognised by law, so far as regards legal protection for their property. At the same time the Report of this Commission laid great stress on the importance of maintaining the purely voluntary character of industrial organisations, and of fully protecting the freedom of the individual in the disposal of his labour or of his capital.

Subsequent legislation of 1871 and 1875.

62. These recommendations of the Royal Commission of 1867 were, in substance, carried out by the legislation of the year 1871, and (after a further inquiry into the labour laws by another Commission), the legislation of the year 1875. By the effect of the present governing statute called the "Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875," combined action for trade purposes is relieved from all penal consequences so long as it does not amount to any breach of ordinary law, or extend to certain special modes of action, and some special cases, carefully defined in that statute. (*See* paragraph 102, *post.*)

Trade Union Act, 1871.

63. The Trade Union Act, passed in 1871, contained these important declarations, viz., that—

"(1.) The purposes of any trade union shall not, by reason merely that they are in "restraint of trade, be deemed to be unlawful so as to render any member of "such trade union liable to criminal prosecution for conspiracy or otherwise;

"(2.) The purposes of any trade union shall not, by reason merely that they are in "restraint of trade, be unlawful so as to render void or voidable any agree-"ment or trust.

The Act then provides (section 4) that "Nothing in this Act shall enable any court "to entertain any legal proceeding instituted with the object of directly enforcing or "recovering damages for the breach of any of the following agreements, namely:—

" (1.) Any agreement between members of a trade union as such, concerning the
" conditions on which any members for the time being of such trade union
" shall or shall not sell their goods, transact business, employ, or be employed;
" (2.) Any agreement for the payment by any person of any subscription or penalty
" to a trade union;
" (3.) Any agreement for the application of the funds of a trade union (*a*) to
" provide benefits to members; or (*b*) to furnish contributions to any employer
" or workman, not a member of such trade union, in consideration of such
" employer or workman acting in conformity with the rules or resolutions
" of such trade union; or (*c*) to discharge any fine imposed upon any person
" by sentence of a court of justice; or,
" (4.) Any agreement made between one trade union and another; or,
" (5.) Any bond to secure the performance of any of the above-mentioned agreements.
" But nothing in this section shall be deemed to constitute any of the above-
" mentioned agreements unlawful."

A trade union registered under this Act may hold land, not exceeding an acre, and personal estate, in the name of trustees, who may sue or be sued in respect of that property. Any trade union may be registered on showing that its rules contain certain provisions, and that it has otherwise complied with the regulations respecting registry in force under the Act. A trade union when registered is bound to furnish the Office of the Registrar of Friendly Societies with an annual statement of accounts. A considerable number of trade unions have registered themselves under this Act. The Report of the Royal Commission of 1867 contained a recommendation that no trade union should be registered the rules of which prevented the employment or limited the number of apprentices in any trade; prevented the introduction or limited the use of machinery in any trade; prevented any workman from taking a sub-contract or working by the piece or working with non-unionists; or authorised the application of funds in support of any other unconnected union engaged in a conflict with its own employers. The recommendation was opposed by a minority of the Commission, and did not become part of the law.

Definition of a trade union.

64. By the Trade Union Act of 1871 as amended by the Trade Union Act of 1876 a trade union is defined as follows:—"The term 'trade union' means any combination, " whether temporary or permanent, for regulating the relations between workmen and " masters, or between workmen and workmen, or between masters and masters, or " for imposing restrictive conditions on the conduct of any trade or business whether " such combination would or would not, if the principal Act had not been passed, have " been deemed to have been an unlawful combination by reason of some one or more " of its purposes being in restraint of trade." The term, therefore, embraces employers' associations, a certain number of which have, in fact, registered themselves under the Act of 1871.* It is to be observed that one effect of the Trades Union Act of 1871 (section 4, sub-section 4) is expressly to make an agreement between two unions, although registered, non-enforceable as against either of them in a court of law. This would, therefore, prevent any agreement between an association of workmen and an association of employers from having, as between such bodies, any binding force at law. It is, however, provided that the Act shall not affect "any agreement between an employer and those employed by him as to such employment." In this Report the term "trade union" is employed in its usual sense as meaning an association of workmen.

Information collected by the present Commission.

65. Much valuable information has been collected by the Secretary with regard to the constitution and rules of a great number of industrial associations, both of employed and employers. These have been tabulated and published in a separate volume, and will probably be found to be of great service not only to those who wish to study the nature of these societies, but also to those whose practical object it is to prepare the best kind of constitution for future societies of this kind, or to amend existing ones. The Commission has also received much evidence, both oral and in the form of answers to written questions, with regard to these associations. Such evidence mostly relates to their numerical strength, relatively to that of the trades to which they belong, their policy and objects, and has been received both from those who are within and those who are outside their organisations.

Object of the Commission.

66. We have considered it to be our main object, so far as relates to these associations, whether of employers or employed, and their larger development in the shape of federations of associations, to inquire to what extent their existence or

* *See* Evidence of Mr. E. W. Brabrook, Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies (Evidence, Whole Commission, 1423 *et seq*).

absence, strength or weakness, in various trades and occupations, have affected for good or evil the relations between employers and employed, and are a cause of, or obstacle to, conflicts between these classes. If, and in so far as in the result of this Inquiry it should appear that the increase of strength and organisation in these industrial bodies tends, on the whole (in spite of occasional conflicts of great magnitude), towards the establishment of a kind of industrial peace higher than that which has previously prevailed, this would be a reason, subject to the consideration of the effects of such increase of strength upon the general interests of the community, for favouring any legislation which should offer to those organisations a better legal basis than they already possess. The point was well put in a statement made by a minority of the Royal Commission which inquired into the subject of trade unions in the year 1867 :—

"The practical problem before us is this: seeing that the bulk of the artizan population consider it their interest to form themselves into these associations, "in what way can they be rendered most conducive to public policy?"

2.—The Objects, Constitution, and Policy of ordinary Trade Unions.

67. Without entering, in this Report, into much detail with regard to the constitution and character of these industrial associations, ample information as to which will be found in the Digests and Summaries, it may be desirable to sketch shortly the objects, policy, and constitution of the ordinary trade union, and then to refer to those developments, chiefly in the direction of the organisation of unskilled labour and the amalgamation and federation of unions which have characterised the period subsequent to the Report of the Royal Commission of 1867.

Number of members of trade unions.

68. In addition to the information collected by the Commission, copious particulars as to the numbers, funds, expenditure, and objects of trade unions are supplied by the returns on this subject which have been made by the Labour Correspondent of the Board of Trade. Mr. Giffen stated in evidence before the Commission (Evidence, Whole Commission, 6987–8) that the account of trade unions obtained in the Returns of the Board of Trade is now tolerably complete, and that the total membership amounts, according to the last Return, to 871,000 persons, with an annual income of nearly 1,200,000*l*. Mr. Fenwick, the secretary of the Parliamentary Committee of the Trade Union Congress, said in evidence that a million and a quarter of trade unionists were represented at that Congress in 1892, that there were certainly a million and a half of trade unionists in the country, and that, in his opinion, their number approached two millions. The total number of trade unionists who actually subscribe to their societies is very doubtful and varying, especially in the case of the newer societies of less skilled or general labourers. The figures obtained from the Census of 1891 are of some service in indicating the proportions borne by trade unionists to the total number of persons in England and Wales engaged in manual labour. The industrial class, in the classification used in the Census, excludes the agricultural and fishing population who, in England and Wales, amounted to 1,336,945 persons over 10 years of age, and the persons employed in transport by land and sea, amounting to 983,370, and those employed in domestic and kindred services to the number of 1,900,328, but it includes all those who work in other productive or distributive industrial occupations. Thus limited, the industrial class, at the Census of 1891, numbered 7,336,344 persons over 10 years of age, of whom 5,495,446 were males. These figures include employers, clerks, and officials as well as workmen. Having regard to the small progress which trade unionism has made among the agricultural population, and the persons engaged in domestic service, it is evident that it chiefly exists among the "industrial class" of the Census, and especially among that portion of the five and a half million males who are adult workmen, and engaged in productive as contrasted with distributive enterprise. The class engaged in transport adds an appreciable but very vague and fluctuating contingent, and the industrial population of Scotland and Ireland has also to be taken into account.

Funds.

69. The funds of trade unions are supported by entrance fees and by subscriptions varying from about 1*d*. a week to 1*s*. or more, and these, in the case of large societies, bring in a considerable annual income. Most trade unions also reserve the right of raising money from their members by special levy for strikes or other extraordinary purposes. Some of the societies have accumulated large reserve funds, and derive some income from investments or from interest on deposit at banks.

Application of funds.

70. The two main divisions of the objects to which trade unions of the normal type apply their funds are (1) trade purposes, viz., in connection with disputes and trade conflicts; (2) friendly and benevolent purposes. In some cases the funds for "trade"

and "friendly and benevolent" purposes are kept distinct, but in most cases all purposes are met out of a single fund. It is alleged that the system of a single fund tends to make societies more peacefully disposed, and more cautious how they embark on trade conflicts, inasmuch as strikes seriously impair the funds available for friendly and benevolent purposes. This has sometimes been urged by the leaders of what has been called "new unionism" as a reason for objecting to a society having any benevolent purposes at all, lest its fighting efficiency should be diminished. On the other hand, it is alleged that, apart from the intrinsic merit of the friendly and benevolent purposes, they are very effective in giving solidity and permanency to a trade union, and that without them men are not inclined to hold to a society when there is no immediate prospect of obtaining better trade conditions through its agency. An objection taken to the single fund system is that for the purpose of securing friendly benefits it is financially unsound, and that in the case of some trade unions the solvency of the friendly and benevolent fund virtually depends upon the power of the union to raise special "levies."

Some trade unions apply their funds to not more than one or two objects, others to many. Generalising from the evidence, it may be said that a trade society of the strongest, best established, and wealthiest kind might probably, after meeting its working expenses, apply its income to all or most of the following purposes, viz.:—

(1.) Trade disputes, including grants to any men who have been discharged or refused employment by employers, or who have left their employment for trade reasons.
(2.) Subscriptions to any larger federation to which the trade union may belong, and grants in aid of men of other trades in their disputes.
(3.) Maintenance of members out of work through depression of trade or other legitimate causes, and payments for travelling in search of work, or emigration.
(4.) Payments for defraying cost of funerals of members and their wives, and for maintenance to those incapacitated for work by accident, sickness, or in some cases, by old age.
(5.) Payments to replace burnt, lost, or broken tools (in some trades), and distress benefits generally.
(6.) Educational expenditure, and grants for special benevolent purposes.
(7.) Acquisition and circulation of information with regard to trade matters.
(8.) Expenditure on parliamentary representation.
(9.) Payment of legal expenses of members in connection with trade litigation, including actions brought under the Employers' Liability Act.

Sphere of trade unions.

71. Thus a trade society, organised on the most complete scale, not only increases the power of its members in negotiating with regard to the standard rate of wages and other general questions, but acts as an assurance to them against all kinds of risks. It has been suggested by several witnesses that powerful and wealthy trade unions might extend the sphere of their operations by themselves (in alliance, perhaps, with co-operative distributive societies) carrying on to some extent and in some trades operations of manufacturing production; and some attempts of this kind have been made. There are, however, few signs of any great development of this movement at present.

Constitution.

72. The constitution of these societies varies a good deal, chiefly with regard to the amount of real power which is vested in the hands of the central executive of each. In some cases, as in that of the Durham coal-miners, so many references have to be made in the case of general questions to the local "lodges" or branches, to be decided by ballot, that the central body are little more than delegates acting under immediate instructions, and having to refer points to their constituents even in the midst of negotiations with employers. In other cases, especially where a trade is scattered in various branches all over the country and through districts differing widely in local circumstances from each other, much power and discretion is frequently left with the district or executive committees of local branches. In most unions of this kind, however, the control of the funds possessed by the central executive gives a deciding power in the last resort. Since it alone can finance a branch in case of a strike, the central executive can require that a strike shall be justified to it before being undertaken by the district or local branch. In the case of some societies the permanent officials have much more power than in that of others. In some cases a very complete control is lodged with the central executive of a society, careful provision being made for the rapid circulation of life from all parts of the society

through that executive. The Society of the Boiler-makers and Iron Shipbuilders presents an instance of very successful working of a society strongly centralised in this manner.

Leading characteristics.

73. Generalising from features presented by this and other strong trade unions among the skilled artisans, we are brought to the conclusion that the following are the leading characteristics of the most permanent and successful societies. A typical society of this kind will include, if not all, at least such a proportion of men in a trade as will give it a controlling power in the trade and enable it to treat with employers as representative of the whole, and to make its agreements and decisions binding on the whole trade. It will have a strong central executive council, thoroughly representative of the members and implicitly trusted by them. This machinery will enable the society to negotiate with employers with the least possible friction, either from time to time, as occasion may require, or by way of a permanent joint board for the purpose of settling hour and wage-rate questions, and other points of dispute, and to give undertakings and enter into agreements upon which employers can rely. It was shown in evidence that at least one powerful trade union goes so far as to make itself responsible for the proper fulfilment of contracts made with employers by its members, and to compensate employers from its funds for loss through bad work, recouping itself by fining the members in default.*

Chief objects of policy.

74. The chief objects of policy aimed at by trade unions (apart from benefit purposes) may be said to be;

(1.) To obtain such conditions as will enable them to deal in a body with their employers, and ultimately perhaps to acquire, so far as possible, a monopoly of employment in their respective trades. The means to this end are the inclusion in the trade union of as many as possible of the men working in each trade; the prohibition of encroachment on their special department of work by men of other trades; and the control by the union of admission to the trade. To achieve the last mentioned object many unions endeavour to insist upon all workmen in the trade passing through a fixed period of apprenticeship before a certain age, and to limit the proportion of apprentices to journeymen. It is the general policy of some unions to try to prevent their members from working with non-unionists. The extent to which this is enforced varies much with the relative strength of unions, and it is most successfully applied where men work in sets or gangs as, for instance, in iron shipbuilding. It may be added that most unions would probably be willing, and some unions actually offer, to supply employers with suitable workmen, the union acting as an agency for this purpose.

(2.) To maintain a minimum wage-rate, and to advance it, or prevent its being reduced, so far as possible.

(3.) To maintain a fixed maximum of hours of work, and to reduce it when practicable.

(4.) To distribute the available work among members so that as few as possible shall be out of employment. In connection with this, as well as for other reasons, the general policy of many trade unions is opposed to piece-work and to systematic overtime.

(5.) In general, to improve the conditions of labour, protect members or groups of members from hard usage on the part of employers and managers, and to maintain trade customs and privileges.

3.—In what Industries Trade Unions have been most Successful, and the Reverse.

Effect of power and constitution of a trade union.

75. The evidence shows that the power and constitution of a trade union have a most important influence upon the character of the relations between employers and employed in the industry. It is, therefore, important to consider in what kind of industries trade unions are found to have been most successful or unsuccessful. To some extent, no doubt, trade unions depend for their permanence and power upon having a succession of able officials and leaders to manage them, and probably personal ability has much to do with their successful launching and establishment. But some industries are, by their nature, more adapted for organisation than others are.

* Evidence, Group A., Vol. III., 20,719; 20,769.

Distinction between skilled and unskilled industries.

76. A broad and fundamental distinction may be drawn in the following respect between skilled and unskilled industries.* The fact that a trade is skilled, *i.e.* requires training from an early age, or, at any rate, for some considerable time, constitutes it, *ipso facto*, a kind of natural crafts guild, defended from sudden invasion by men of other trades by its difficulty of acquirement, and sometimes, also, by the fact that expensive "kits" of tools must be provided by the workmen. Youths who enter such a trade have to be taught their work by men already in it, and thus a strong society, once established, is able to control the conditions of entrance and practically to compel new comers to join it. The natural facilities which skilled industries possess for organisation may be more or less neutralised in the case of trades in which the workers,

(1.) are widely scattered, and frequently on the move, as *e.g.*, sailors;
(2.) carry on the work in their own homes, or independently, or in very small groups;
(3.) are for the most part women;
(4.) have, through the operation of any special cause, to contend against an overstocked or irregular labour market.

On the other hand, when a skilled industry is carried on in more or less large factories, workshops, or mines, and (at any rate in some central districts) brings a large number of workmen into close contact; when, in other words, a trade combines the elements of skill, co-operation in the same work of a number of people, and local contiguity, it seems under all these circumstances to be easy to convert the natural craft thus existing into a formal and permanent trade union. The monopoly possessed by an industry and its consequent facilities for organisation may be further developed by extraneous causes, as for instance by legislation. Coal mining affords a good illustration of this. It is not among the class of highly skilled industries and yet it is one in which, except in the West of Scotland, trade unionism has had remarkable success. The natural monopoly for which in some trades workmen are mostly indebted to their special skill is obtained by the coal miners not only from the fact that their industry is concentrated in certain districts, and that they have practical possession of the villages adjacent to the pits in which they work, but also through the operation of the provision in the Coal Mines Regulation Act of 1887, Rule 39, which reads as follows:—"No person not now employed as a coal or ironstone getter shall be allowed "to work alone as a coal or ironstone getter in the face of the workings until he has "had two years' experience of such work under the supervision of skilled workmen, or "unless he shall have been previously employed for two years in or about the face of "the workings of a mine," a provision intended to secure greater safety in mines, but which also renders it impossible for employers to bring in new men, in case of a strike, to take the place of the strikers.

Unskilled labour.

77. Unskilled or general labour, that is, labour in occupations which require little or no training, stands on a very different footing from skilled labour in respect to the facilities which it affords for strong and enduring organisation. The evidence shows that trade societies among the class of unskilled labourers have been apt to rise suddenly and rapidly, enrol a great number of members, and then as quickly decline. Those who try to organise labour of this class meet with many difficulties. Among these are the comparative poverty, less regular habits, and frequently the roving disposition of this class of workmen. The chief difficulty, however, appears to be that workmen in these departments of labour do not possess the natural monopoly which belongs to men in skilled trades. If they strike, their employers usually find it easy at very short notice to obtain men of the same class to take their places. Inasmuch as the power to fight by way of strike is the primary basis of trade unions, weakness in this respect often deters men from joining or holding to unions of unskilled labour. Various cases were brought to our notice in which an unsuccessful strike by an association of this kind resulted in the loss of a great part of its members. Upon the whole it is not as yet shown by experience that it is easy, if, indeed, it is practicable, to mould into a permanent organisation men working at an occupation which is not of the nature of a craft requiring special training. Such an organisation, not being built upon the foundation of a natural monopoly of skill, is apt to fall away and perish in times of trade depression or other adverse circumstances.

* In the category of skilled trades fall, among others, all those connected with the higher grades of shipbuilding and engineering, those of the various artificers in metal and clay, printing and bookbinding, the superior work in building and the trades connected with the decoration of buildings, carpentering and coachbuilding, the great textile industries, the make-up of the better description of clothing, the preparation of many articles of luxury, the more skilled work in railways, and some agricultural work. Mining, and the manufacture of iron and steel, may also be included in this list, and many smaller industries, involving a certain fineness of work.

Benefit funds.

78. It has already been observed (*see* paragraph 70) that benefit funds for friendly purposes are of service in giving solidity and permanency to trade unions, and inducing members of these societies to remain in them even when there is no immediate prospect of gaining by means of them better trade conditions. The comparative poverty of workers in unskilled occupations, and the smallness of the subscriptions which they are able to afford, makes it difficult for their organisations to support funds of this kind, even if, as a matter of policy, they were disposed to establish them. The result of this is that an association of this kind is usually limited to merely fighting purposes, and its prosperity and numerical strength is apt to depend upon its success in trade conflicts.

Methods of action.

79. An effect of the absence, in the case of unskilled or general labourers, of the natural monopoly, secured by specific skill to workmen in trades which require much training, is a tendency towards the use in industrial conflicts of more or less violent methods of action to prevent the introduction of non-unionist or "free" labourers to take the place of unionists who have struck or been locked out. Another consequence of the weakness, due to the absence of this natural monopoly, of any particular section of general labour appears to be the attempt to bring various sections not, strictly speaking, engaged in the same occupation, to the assistance of each other in industrial conflicts. The most striking illustrations of this tendency were afforded by the contest between the Shipping Federation (of shipowners) and the Seamen's Union in and about the year 1891 (*see* Summaries of Evidence, Group B., Part I., paragraph 227 (*c.*), (*d.*), (*e.*), (*f.*)), when the attempt was made, by inducing dock-labourers in various parts to refuse to work on ships not exclusively manned with union crews, to compel shipowners to employ such crews only.* It may be added that a further consequence of the difficulty of organising general or unskilled labour is an inclination on the part of leaders of this portion of the industrial population to look rather to the action of the State than to that of trade unions as a means of achieving their ends. A marked difference in this respect runs, on the whole, through the evidence given by the representatives of skilled trades and that given by representatives of industries which either from want of the monopoly given by specific skill or (as in the case of the miners in the West of Scotland) from other special causes, are weak in organisation.

New unionism.

80. Some of the leading characteristics of unskilled and feebly organised labour, which have been here referred to, will be considered more in detail in other parts of this Report. It is in this class of industries that there is chiefly to be found the spirit or policy frequently called "new unionism," in contrast to the older unionism of the skilled trades which occupied the attention of the Royal Commission of 1867. The chief feature of the annual trade union congresses held in recent years, appears to be the rise in numerical representation and importance of this "new unionism." The spirit characteristic of the movement seems to be due to the particular circumstances of unskilled or general labour, and especially to the natural difficulties which attend its organisation, but this spirit has, no doubt to some and probably to a considerable extent, influenced or modified the views held by representatives of the skilled trades, especially with regard to the substitution in certain important matters, notably that of hours of work, of State action for independent attempts by trade unions to obtain concessions from employers.

4.—Organisations of Employers.

Employers' Associations.

81. Formal organisations of employers usually make their appearance at a later date than those of the workmen, and arise for purposes of joint resistance when individual employers find themselves too weak to cope with the growing strength of trade unions. Some associations of employers are, however, of old standing, were originally formed for watching legislation affecting the trade, or for tempering competition by agreement among themselves, and have subsequently developed into instruments of mutual protection against the action of trade unions. Employers' associations are of various degrees of solidity and compactness in different trades, varying, perhaps, with the degree in which these qualities are found in the associations of workmen in those trades. Employers frequently seem to combine rather unwillingly,

* A further and equally striking illustration is afforded by the great Australian strikes amongst wharf labourers, seamen and marine officers, miners, and shearers, in 1890 and 1891, which originated in a refusal on the part of the employers to employ none but union shearers, and was taken up by the other trades with the object of enforcing the exclusive employment of union labour. (*See* Foreign Reports, Vol. II. pp. 28, 29.)

and the trade competition between them often makes it difficult for them to hold together. Just as in some trades many workmen remain outside the organisations, so also many employers remain outside the employers' associations, and it often seems to happen that non-associated employers employ non-associated men.

5.—Amalgamations and Federations.

Amalgamations and Federations.

82. In recent years there has been a decided tendency towards (*a*) the amalgamation of trade unions with one another; (*b*) the federation of trade unions in the same trades; (*c*) the federation of trade unions' associations in different trades with a view to obtaining greater force in industrial warfare. The same tendency has been visible in the case of employers' associations. A distinction must be drawn between cases (*b*) and (*c*). A federation of unions in the same trade is really often an incomplete amalgamation. Of this kind of combination the Miners' Federation is a conspicuous instance.

A combination of unions or associations in different trades is rather a mere alliance. Of this kind, perhaps, may be said to be the federation recently formed among various trades engaged in shipbuilding and engineering. This federation was established in reply to the formation of an employers' "National Federation of Shipbuilders and Engineers," which was formed for the purpose of mutual protection and resistance to what the employers in question considered to be encroachments on the part of trade unions with regard to "free labour," apprenticeship rules, and so forth. It is alleged on both sides that the whole force of either federation would only be exercised by way of general strike or lock-out in extreme cases. In Durham and Northumberland the various classes of workmen employed in the mines are organised in the first place in their sectional associations, which, again, are federated for the purpose of dealing with employers.

Among the unskilled trades large schemes of amalgamation or federation have also of late appeared, and attempts have been made to carry them into practical effect by means of "sympathy strikes," such as those of dock and riverside labourers on behalf of the policy of the Seamen's Union. On the other side, the "Shipping Federation" of ship-owning firms and local associations, organised to resist these movements, is remarkable both for its extent and power and for the fact that, being incorporated as a limited joint stock company, it has a legal personality.

It has not, as yet, been shown by experience that trades of a totally distinct character from each other can be permanently amalgamated or federated together. For this purpose a certain natural affinity of occupation would seem to be necessary. But the annual trade union congresses bring the various associations which take part in them into a certain connection, the chief object of which is to secure common action in matters requiring legislative treatment.

In many industrial centres "Trade Councils" also exist, composed of the representatives of different and independent trades, and these have a great and apparently increasing influence in consolidating for common action, in some circumstances, the forces of local trades. It is usually one of their professed objects to assist in organising labour as yet unorganised.

6.—Mixed Associations.

Mixed Associations.

83. One outcome of the recent conflicts with regard to employment of "free labour" has been the development of certain institutions by which employers and those immediately in their employ have, in some cases, become formed into a kind of mixed association. The institution by the Shipping Federation of its registry system would seem to be an attempt to move in this direction, and the re-organisation of dock labour at Southampton after the strike of 1890 is an instance of the same tendency.

In a certain sense such an institution as the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Manufactured Iron and Steel Trade of the North of England may be regarded as having formed the employers and men who belong to it into a kind of mixed organisation, although each side in this case has its separate association. For this Board, which meets regularly twice a year, and has its standing joint committee, is composed of one employer and one elected workman from each of the works in association, so that it may be said to form a complete industrial parliament.

There are some cases also in the same trade where single large works, for instance, the "Barrow Steel Works" have a kind of mixed assembly or tribunal of their own for settling trade disputes. Any system under which representatives of employers

and workmen in a trade meet periodically in conference or joint committee, as in the South Wales coal mining trade, may be considered as tending in the same direction. The same thing may also be said of some systems of organised profit-sharing, especially where, as in the case of the South Metropolitan Gas Company, the system is worked under the supervision of a joint committee. (*See* Memorandum by Mr. Livesey, on Profit-sharing, printed as Appendix I. to this Report.)

7.—Representations made as to the injurious or beneficial Effects of Trade Unions.

84. The employers who have given evidence have usually recognised a legitimate province for trade unions in bargaining as to wages and hours and watching over the general interests of their members, and admitted that strong organisations, acting within those limits, tend on the whole to improve industrial relations, and to make their members act in a better informed way and a more reasonable spirit. This is a subject which will be considered more in detail in the following part of this Report.* But the view has also been put forward, even by those who hold these opinions, that the action and rules of trade unions have been in some respects prejudicial to the efficiency of production and to the industrial prosperity of the country.

85. The allegations upon this point are as follows :—

Allegations as to injurious effects of trade unions.

(1.) That trade unions have a growing tendency to interfere with details of business, and so to take away that concentration of command which is necessary for successful management, and hamper employers in carrying on their business according to the methods which they believe to be best.

(2.) That trade unions often misjudge the true position of affairs, and by ill-timed and excessive demands, as well as by placing employers under apprehension of these, discourage enterprise and further investment of capital in this country, to the detriment of all concerned, including ultimately, if not immediately, their own members. As a proof that trade unions have done less than is frequently believed in the way of raising wages, it is contended that wages have in many cases risen as much and as fast in unorganised as in organised employments. It is urged that the extension of machinery in manufactures, and the development of railways and steam navigation, are the main causes of the increased demand for labour and consequent advance of wages during the last half century.

(3.) That though organisations may tend to diminish the frequency of industrial conflicts, they extend their range; and that such conflicts on a large scale, especially in industries which supply raw material, are far more injurious to associated and dependent trades than are more frequent conflicts on a small scale.

(4.) That workmen with a powerful union behind them are apt to become too confident as to their position, and to think that they cannot be discharged or punished, and so are likely to become indolent, careless or insubordinate, especially in cases where the foremen are unionists with divided allegiance.

(5.) That the action of trade unions has a tendency to bring about a uniformity of wages and hours, both as between individual workmen and as between different localities; and that by insisting on a minimum wage which, in effect, determines the standard, and by seeking to abolish overtime and piece work, they are reducing workmen to a dead level of enterprise, discouraging work of more than average merit, and taking away from individual workmen the motive power of ambition and self-interest. A few independent workmen, in evidence, concurred with this view, which was put forward by many employers in trades where the unions are most powerful. It is further alleged that the uniformity of wages and hours which trade unions sometimes enforce as between different localities, tends to injure localities possessing less natural advantages in favour of those possessing greater ones, because the former places can only compete with the latter by means of lower wages (usually compensated for by lower cost of living) or longer hours.

(6.) That trade unions injure trades by the rigidity of their rules. It was said, for instance, that if, at the commencement of the iron ship-building industry, the workmen had enforced their present rigid limitations on apprenticeship, the industry, for want of sufficient hands, could never have developed to its present dimensions. It is also pointed out that the rigid organisation of the different trades in some cases gives rise to a too complete division of work, which prevents men from doing work for which they are qualified and which

* *See* Paragraphs 90 to 92 *post*.

would at times conveniently fall to their lot, thus occasioning bad economy in production. This was the cause of the recent "demarcation" disputes between various trades in the North of England. In the case of some trades connected with shipbuilding, it was alleged by representatives of "unskilled labourers" employed in them, and admitted by those of the skilled workmen, that the organisation of the latter, as a rule, makes it difficult for those men who start in the lower class to rise to the higher kind of work, even if they have acquired sufficient experience and skill. The rule or practice of refusing to work with non-unionists may also be mentioned under this head.

Representation made as to the beneficial results of trade unions.

86. The representatives of trade unions claim that, even supposing it to be possible to prove some drawbacks, the existence of these societies is essential to preserve the independence of workmen and to protect their interests. In proof of the benefits of trade unionism they point to the position of workmen in various trades before and after these associations were formed, and maintain that the action of trade unions has secured improved wages, hours and conditions of labour not only directly for organised workmen, but indirectly for those not organised. The refusal of unionists to work with non-unionists is often justified on the ground that the latter without cost to themselves have reaped the benefits secured by the sacrifices and exertions of the organised workmen.

These witnesses deny that their organisations tend to enforce a dead level of wages, except with regard to "minimum rates," and represent that in almost every trade there are found many men in receipt of wages above what is known as the "minimum of the trade," in consequence of their being better workmen. They deny, then, that these organisations take away the motive of self-interest and therefore diminish the energy of the individual workman, but they allege that, in the interests of large bodies of workmen, it is necessary to some extent to restrain by rules the natural desire of the individual workman to work overtime, for the sake of higher wages, and other modes by which he might seek to benefit himself at the cost of his fellow workmen as well as of his own health and strength, or that of his offspring. This action is not, they maintain, injurious in the long run to the general interests of industry, inasmuch as association raises the "*morale*" of the employed, disciplines and educates them, and by rendering their work more intelligent, increases its value. It is necessary, they say, that their rules shall place a check upon the natural temptation of the employers to excessive competition with one another at the expense of the employed, by way of cheapness of goods and speed of production attained by overwork and under-pay, but on the whole, and in the long run, these rules, by their steadying effect, are good for the trade of the country. They allege that the action of strong trade unions is beneficial even to employers by preventing them from destroying each other through unlimited competition. It is usually admitted on both sides that strong organisations have been proved by experience to be almost a condition precedent to the success of voluntary methods or institutions of conciliation and arbitration, so far as these institutions extend beyond the limits of a single establishment to a whole trade or district, and will be no less essential for the purpose of any further development of such institutions, whether voluntary or created by the action of the State.

How action of trade associations may affect general interests of the community.

87. We have not lost sight of the fact that the concern of the community, as a whole, with regard to the strength of organisation of employers and employed, and the agreement between them which it may be possible to obtain, is not limited to the effect of such strength or agreement upon the interests of these classes. Our attention has chiefly been devoted to the interests of employers and employed in particular trades, not because these interests are the only ones which need to be considered, but because such a course appeared to be most in accordance with the special reference made to us, and because it seemed to us to be more important that our enquiry should be thorough, so far as it went, than that it should cover a very wide area. Even when thus limited our task remained a very heavy one. It should also be observed that specific evidence can more easily be obtained with regard to the interests of particular industrial groups than as to the general interests of the public. In order to take a complete view of the whole question it would be necessary to consider not merely the effect of the action of trade unions and employers' associations upon the workmen and employers engaged in particular industries, but in addition, the effect of a highly developed system of such organisations upon the interests of the community at large and upon the wage-earning classes generally, whether unionists or non-unionists.

Possible dangers of strong organisation

88. We have thought it desirable to call attention in a concise manner to the fact that agreement between a strong combination of employers on the one side, and workmen on the other, may possibly be attained, in some cases, by measures which tend to repress individual energy and freedom of industrial experiment. One result of such agreement may be to place difficulties in the way of new men endeavouring to work their way into a trade by means of methods of production not sanctioned by the existing trade custom. Such changes, though not immediately convenient to the employers and employed already engaged in a trade, have often, in the end, by enhancing the efficiency of production, conferred important benefits upon the public, and have contributed to the ultimate prosperity of the trade itself. The danger is not great in those trades which produce chiefly for foreign markets, nor, again, in those which are subject to intense foreign competition in the home market, but even in these trades, the growth of international combinations may make it possible to subordinate public to private interest. In the numerous trades in which foreign competition does not exist, or is not very keen, the pressure and the support of a strong union of workmen may give cohesion to associations of employers. Hitherto such associations have seldom been able to impose their collective will upon all the employers engaged in a trade. There appears, however, to be some danger that, under the pressure of, and in alliance with, strong combinations of workmen, such associations might obtain virtually the same power with regard to fixing prices and determining the methods of production that similar associations have derived in earlier times from legal monopolies.

Further considerations.

89. It must further be pointed out that unskilled labour, which it is more difficult to organise, may eventually suffer if skilled trades become close corporations, and, in any case, it is clear that a complete combination of employers and employed in any one great trade for the purpose of raising prices to an artificial level would, if successful, not only impose a tax upon the public but upon those engaged in related and dependent industries. It is obvious also that, where unionists are very strong, their refusal to work with non-unionists may altogether deprive the latter of employment; especially if they are for one reason or another unable to earn the minimum wages fixed by the trade union.

We desire to point out the existence of these various disadvantages which a very complete organisation of industry might involve, without expressing any opinion as to the proximity of dangers of this kind. Having called attention to the existence of such dangers we are free to pass to an examination of the influence which associations of employers and employed exert upon the relations of these classes, and of the methods by which questions arising between them are settled.

III.

RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

1. In the case of (*a*) Strongly Organised Industries, and (*b*) Other Industries.
2. Chief Causes of Industrial Disputes, and Questions connected with Proceedings during them.
3. Modes of Sharing the Proceeds of Industry.
4. Summary of Present State of Relations.

1.—Relations between Employers and Employed in the case of (*a*) Strongly Organised Industries and (*b*) Other Industries.

General view.

90. This part of the inquiry may be considered under two heads: (1) those cases in which the relations are between employers, or bodies of employers, and strongly organised bodies of workmen, and (2) cases where the workmen's organisations are weak or non-existent. With regard to those industries which are carried on on a large scale and require the co-operation of great bodies of more or less skilled and trained workmen, the evidence received by the Commission points to the conclusion that, on the whole, and notwithstanding occasional conflicts on a very large scale, the increased strength of organisations may tend towards the maintenance of harmonious

relations between employers and employed in a manner suitable to the modern conditions of industry. The belief was expressed both by employers and workmen that where a skilled trade is well organised, good relations tend to prevail, and countless minor quarrels are obviated or nipped in the bud.

Relations where trade organisations are strong.

91. The following were among the reasons given :—

(1.) Strikes are not embarked upon, where a trade society is strong, without the securing of plenty of time for consideration by the rules and procedure of such societies, and quarrels are avoided which, in badly organised trades, often arise from ignorance, false rumours, panic, and misunderstanding, and personal pride and prejudice. It is the practice with some of the best organised trade unions never to support a strike entered upon without a previous offer to submit the dispute to arbitration. Organisations of employers have a corresponding effect in preventing hasty lock-outs on the part of individual employers. The leaders of associations on either side are likely to have broader views than individuals and local men.

(2.) The strength of a trade union breeds respect in the minds of employers; this leads them to treat its representatives with courtesy, and courtesy in turn leads to an increase of good feeling.

(3.) Strong organisation in any trade is almost a condition precedent to the establishment of permanent and effective joint boards of conciliation or arbitration for the trade generally, because unless most men in a trade belong to the society it is (*a*) difficult to obtain a satisfactory representation of workmen on such a board, and (*b*) difficult for the executive or leaders of the men to stop local strikes, or to ensure that disputes shall be carried to the joint board, and that the decisions arrived at by that board shall be respected by the workmen.

Further observations.

92. It must be admitted, as in some degree a set off to the first of these considerations, that strikes are occasionally initiated at the head-quarters of an organisation, in furtherance of a general policy adopted by the leaders, which would, perhaps, not have been entered upon had no organisation existed, or an organisation more loosely knit and less widely extended. It is also true that when both sides in a trade are strongly organised and in possession of considerable financial resources, a trade conflict, when it does occur, may be on a very large scale, very protracted, and very costly. But just as a modern war between two great European States, costly though it is, seems to represent a higher stage of civilisation than the incessant local fights and border raids which occur in times or places where Governments are less strong and centralised, so, on the whole, an occasional great trade conflict, breaking in upon years of peace, seems to be preferable to continued local bickerings, stoppages of work, and petty conflicts. A large conflict of this kind is usually begun with cool deliberation, turns upon some real and substantial question, is carried on with less bitterness and violence, is probably settled by a regular and well thought out treaty of peace, and does not leave behind it much personal rancour or ill-feeling between individual employers and their workmen. The fact that such a conflict is between great associations and not between individuals has the effect, no doubt, of diminishing personal animosities. Much testimony was given both by employers and workmen to the good effects produced by the meeting in conference upon equal terms of the representatives of associations on either side, and the increasing reasonableness and fairness which such conferences tend to instil. When organisations on either side are so strong as fairly to balance each other, the result of the situation is a disposition, already realised in certain cases, to form a mixed board, meeting regularly to discuss and settle questions affecting their relations.

Relations where trade organisations are weak.

93. If peaceable relations are, upon the whole, the result of strong and firmly established trade unionism, it seems no less clear from the evidence that trade unionism in a weak and struggling condition rather tends to increase the number and bitterness of industrial conflicts. The experience of those industries which have reached a high degree of organisation usually seems to be that the most quarrelsome period of a trade's existence is when it is just emerging from the patriarchal condition in which each employer governs his establishment and deals with his own men with no outside interference, but has not yet fully entered into that other condition in which transactions take place between strong associations fully recognising each other.

Difficulties in such cases.

94. This seems to be in some measure due to the fact that when organisation has partially established itself and brought men together, grievances, which during the unorganised period have long been latent, come suddenly to light, and also in some measure to the fact that in early stages of organisation the workmen have not yet learned by experience what their union can and what it can not achieve. In weak organisations of no long standing, the leaders or executive often have no great hold over the men, who are, in such cases, apt to abandon an union if its policy does not coincide with their own views. The result is that unwise trade conflicts are frequently precipitated by the hasty action of sections of workmen. But the effort to force recognition for trade unions at the hands of employers seems to be the chief cause of the frequent and violent conflicts which usually attend the earlier stages of organisation. Many recent conflicts in the ranks of less skilled labour which were brought to our notice seem to have been, in reality, wholly due to the determination of members of new trade societies to compel employers to recognise and deal with them. It is not unnatural that at first employers should usually be unwilling to negotiate with their leaders as not being really representative of the workmen, and that they should take up the position that, while they are ready and willing to negotiate with representatives or deputations of the workmen in their immediate employ, they will not treat with officials of organisations to which perhaps only a fraction of their workmen belong.

Employment of non-unionists.

95. It must be added that where trade unions are weak and do not command and control the majority of men capable of working at an industry, the struggle between employers and employed during actual strikes and lock-outs does not resolve itself into the mere question of who can hold out the longest. If the employers think that there are others able and willing to do the work, they have an alternative to stopping their works, as they must do, where the men are highly organised. For reasons already given this is especially the case when the labour required is unskilled, or nearly so, and can, therefore, readily be supplied from the ranks of the unemployed or imported from country districts. The result usually is great acrimony, and sometimes even deplorable violence while a contest lasts, and a legacy of bitterness after it. The case is different where the occupation in question requires skill and long training, and where the workmen are well and strongly organised. Where workmen are bound together into a natural craft by a common skill and training, they are defended by the nature of things against an importation of outside labour, and, even if not at all organised, they have too much professional sympathy with each other, as a rule, to take each other's places. Where this is not the case, in unskilled occupations, attempts have often been made to raise a kind of artificial barrier, sometimes by violent proceedings, against the importation of outside labour. In this, as in many points, the evidence makes it clear that the cases of skilled and unskilled labour fall into very different categories.

Free labour.

96. A great deal of the evidence which was brought before us with regard to unskilled occupations, such as dock and riverside labour, and occupations in which organisation is particularly difficult, such as that of seamen, was accordingly devoted to accounts of strikes to prevent the employment of "free labour." This is a question which raises in a very definite form the issue of the government and control of industrial undertakings. Employers have felt it to be essential to resist to the utmost of their power the claim made by workmen in the unskilled trades to prevent them from employing non-unionist labour. Especially have they felt it necessary to resist this claim in the matter of seamen, in view of the great importance of strict discipline on board ships. The claim also of non-unionists to dispose freely of their labour is one that cannot be left out of account in this connection.

Relations considered apart from trade organisations.

97. Apart from the action of trade unions, the relations between employers and employed naturally vary infinitely, according to industries, localities, the class of persons on either side, and other circumstances. It is obvious that no general statement can be made on this subject embracing trades which vary, in the matter of permanence of employment, from a condition of almost life-long relations between the same employer and employed, to one in which labourers are frequently engaged by the day, or even the hour, to do casual work. In cases where the relation is tolerably permanent, it does not appear from the oral and written evidence that there is in general much ill-feeling between the parties, although there may be often a good deal of grumbling on either side. The case of work on railways may be referred to as

a good instance of employment which is usually of a permanent character. The most conspicuous instance of extremely casual and temporary relations between employers and employed, is that of the London riverside labourers, especially previous to the strikes of 1889, to which reference will be made in another part of this Report.*

Trade unions and single establishments.

98. The growth of organisations of workmen, with a membership extending throughout an entire industry, has undoubtedly contributed to accentuate the line which divides workmen from employers in single establishments. It is, however, felt by some, that, if the object to be attained is not only peace, but peace with goodwill, this cannot be secured in perfection where an industrial establishment is divided against itself. In pursuance of this idea, attempts have been made to link the interests of employers and employed within single establishments more closely together by systems of profit-sharing, and by means of mutual benefit and accident funds presently to be noticed, and thus reproduce the old-fashioned sentiment of unity, only on a basis of more equal relations suited to the altered spirit of the times. The attitude of trade unions has not always been very favourable to these attempts, but their jealousy, so far as this exists, arises from difference rather of means than of ends. It appears to be thought that, with the development of such schemes, the opportunities of activity of trade unions would diminish and the reasons for their existence be weakened. It may be admitted that this apprehension is not without a certain justification, but it is urged by some that it is founded on too narrow a view of the range of action of trade unions. Much will remain for them to achieve, and to preserve when obtained, however strongly may be developed the sentiment of goodwill between employers and employed in particular establishments or particular industries. There seems to be no sufficient reason why the conversion of separate establishments into independent industrial polities constituted on the footing of partnership, should not exist side by side with trade unionism as a means to solving the problems which the relations of capital and labour present.

2.—Chief Causes of Industrial Disputes, and Questions connected with Proceedings during them.

Evidence as to.

99. Much evidence has been received with regard to the causes and origin, the course and termination of strikes and lock-outs in a great many trades. In the case of one important conflict which has taken place since we began to sit, viz., that in the Durham mining industry in the year 1892, we have been furnished with a statement agreed to by both parties. This statement is printed in the Minutes of Evidence, Group A, Volume III., pages 388 to 394, and supplies an instructive account of a typical conflict, between strong organisations. A full and useful account of the various negotiations which marked the progress of the great contest in 1893 between the Miners' Federation and the Federated Coalowners has been given to the public by the *Labour Gazette*† now published on behalf of the Board of Trade.

Causes of disputes.

100. The essence of most of the disputes between employers and employed is, of course, the shares in which the receipts of their common undertaking shall be divided. By far the largest proportion of disputes, strikes, and lock-outs, have direct reference to the increase or diminution of the standard of wages, or the introduction of fixed price-lists. Many other disputes relate to the standard of hours, a question which in many cases forms part of a conflict with regard to wages. Other conflicts are undertaken by trade societies with a view to compel employers to recognise them, to strengthen and enlarge their organisation, to limit the number of youths entering the trade, to prevent the employment of non-unionists, or sometimes that of women and children, to defend unionist colleagues, or assert unionist rules and customs, and, generally speaking, to protect the monopoly of workmen already in the organisation. As has already been indicated, the ultimate object of all this policy is by increasing their strength and securing as far as possible a monopoly of employment to obtain as large a share as possible of the receipts of the industry, and to exercise a voice as to the general conditions under which it is carried on. Many disputes are connected with special customs or circumstances in particular works, with attempts to alter or prevent the alteration of various working arrangements, with questions of piece-work, overtime, holidays, meal times, and the introduction or abolition of systems of fines, deductions, and so forth. Some are of a merely personal nature, being connected for instance, with the unpopularity of particular officials. "Sympathy" or "on principle" strikes, of which much has lately been heard in connection with the less

* *See* paragraphs 223 and 224 *post*.

† Numbers for July, August, September, October, November, and December.

skilled industries, are those in which men engaged in one occupation strike, without alleging any special grievance of their own, expressly in order to support men engaged in some other occupation who are involved in a conflict with their employers. A common instance of this kind of strike, in recent times, has been the refusal of dock labourers to discharge or to coal ships manned by non-unionist crews. There are also instances of a number of employers closing their works for a time in order to support a particular employer against whom a strike is being directed. Finally, there are the "demarcation disputes" in which organised bodies of workmen employed in some complex trade like shipbuilding, as, for instance, shipwrights and joiners, are at issue with regard to the province of work belonging to each section. In this last case employers, although not directly concerned in the disputes, yet have to bear the inconvenience and expense of the strikes or stoppages of work to which they lead.

Magnitude and cost of disputes.

101. Industrial disputes vary infinitely in the matter of magnitude and duration, from stoppages of work in a particular mine or factory, only lasting for a day or two, up to disputes involving great districts and masses of workpeople, lasting sometimes for several weeks, or even months, and costing in wages, and in loss to the accumulated funds of trade unions and to capital, large sums of money, besides causing widespread disorganisation among the allied and dependent trades.

It is, however, possible to exaggerate the cost of trade disputes. Mr. Burnett, as Labour Correspondent of the Board of Trade, in his Report on the Strikes and Lock-outs of the year 1891 (one of a series containing much information as to the causes, results, scale, and cost of these conflicts) estimates the "aggregate assumed loss of wages that might "have been earned in that year" to be 1,500,000*l.*, a sum which does not, as Mr. Giffen observed in his evidence, amount to more than a fraction of 1 per cent. of the total annual wages paid in this country. Mr. Burnett further points out (pages 30 and 31) that, where work is contracted for, and not produced for a speculative or open market, it still remains to be done after the stoppage caused by the dispute is ended. If the stoppage has not been of long duration, the work in arrear can often be made up by overtime, extra shifts, or otherwise, and it does not follow of necessity that at the end of the year there will be any actual loss either of annual wages or profits. On the other hand, the loss to workers in dependent employments by cessation of work in one industry is often very heavy. A strike or lock-out of cotton spinners will throw weavers out of work; a strike or lock-out of coal miners will act in a like way on ironworkers and many other industries. Indirectly, a trade conflict may inflict permanent loss upon an industry or district, if the effect of it is to divert business to foreigners or to a rival district in this country.

It should be noticed in this connection that a long stoppage of work may enable employers to clear off surplus stock and to tide over a period of depression. Sometimes also, when the article produced is, like coal, one of primary importance, cessation of work on a large scale itself creates a rapid rise of price. Such a rise, though not desirable from the consumer's point of view, may facilitate the settlement of the dispute, and recoup both to employers and workmen the loss, or some of it, which they have suffered through the cessation of work. There is evidence indicating that some employers have even favoured a strike by workmen as a mode of raising prices and wages which the competition of employers generally and of surplus labour had brought down to a very low figure.*

Intimidation and picketing.

102. Our attention was frequently called in the course of the evidence to the present law with regard to intimidation during strikes. The Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, after declaring in section 3 that "an agreement or combination "by two or more persons to do or procure to be done any act in contemplation or "futherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen shall not be indictable "as a conspiracy if such act committed by one person would not be punishable as a "crime," provides by the seventh section that "every person who, with a view to "compel any other person to abstain from doing or to do any act which such other "person has a legal right to do or abstain from doing, wrongfully and without legal "authority (1) uses violence to or intimidates such other person, or his wife or children, "or injures his property, or, (2) persistently follows such other person about from "place to place, or, (3) hides any tools, clothes, or other property owned or used by such "other person, or deprives him of or hinders him in the use thereof, or, (4) watches or "besets the house or other place where such other person resides, or works, or carries

* *See* Summaries of Evidence, Group A., paragraph 162, and Evidence, Group A. 19,997.

" on business or happens to be, or the approach to such house or place, or, (5) " follows such other person with two or more other persons in a disorderly manner " in or through any street or road, shall, on conviction thereof by a court of summary " jurisdiction, or on indictment as herein-after mentioned, be liable either to pay a " penalty not exceeding 20*l.*, or to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three months, " with or without hard labour." The seventh section also contains a proviso that " attending at or near the house or place where a person resides, or works, or carries " on business, or happens to be, or the approach to such house or place, in order " merely to obtain or communicate information, shall not be deemed a watching or " besetting within the meaning of this section."

Complaint with regard to the law.

103. It was contended by many witnesses on behalf of employers that, inasmuch as the number of persons who may attend to communicate information (a procedure usually known as " picketing ") is not limited by the Act, it is practically very difficult to fix the point at which communication of information becomes intimidation, and that for this reason it is not easy to obtain any conviction for intimidation. In this way, they contend, the effect of the seventh section is virtually nullified. Much evidence was given, especially in the case of strikes connected with dock and maritime labour, of picketing, which caused, or at any rate was accompanied by, much violence and intimidation. On the ground of this difficulty in distinguishing, under the terms of the existing law, between giving information and intimidation, many employers expressed a desire either that the clause allowing attendance to communicate information should be repealed altogether, or that the number of persons allowed to attend for that purpose should be strictly defined, and should be limited to two or three. On the other hand several representatives of trade unions alleged that the whole of the seventh clause bears hardly upon trade unionists, and especially upon their officials; that, under the Act, conduct which is not really intimidation has been interpreted by magistrates to be such; and that, as the law stands, it is possible to obtain convictions against innocent persons. The opinion was expressed by more than one witness on this side that the seventh section should be repealed altogether. An important definition or limitation of the word " intimidation," as used in this section, was given by the Court of Queen's Bench in the year 1891, in the cases of *Gibson* v. *Lawson* and *Curran* v. *Treleaven*.* The effect of these decisions is that threats by members of a trade union to strike or to withdraw themselves from the service of a particular employer, if men not belonging to their society were employed, do not amount to intimidation within the meaning of the statute, whether the threat is made, as in one of these cases, to the non-unionist employed, or, as in the other, to the employer. A memorandum prepared for the Commission by Sir Frederick Pollock, with regard to the law of combinations and the effect of recent legal decisions, is printed as Appendix II. to this Report.

Rights of civil action.

104. It can hardly be denied that conduct of the kind referred to in the cases of *Gibson* v. *Lawson* and *Curran* v. *Treleaven*, although held not to be intimidation liable to penal consequences within the meaning of the Act of 1875, may inflict great hardship upon employers, and, still more, upon non-unionist workmen, who may very possibly, in some cases, practically be deprived of employment unless they consent to join associations of which they disapprove. The question arises whether any civil remedy remains to the employer or non-unionist workman. It must be observed that although the Act of 1875 exempts conduct which does not amount to intimidation, in the sense which the Courts give to intimidation, from penal consequences, it leaves untouched the right, if any, of persons injured by such conduct to bring civil actions to recover damages. It may be true that even where the employer or non-unionist workman may have the civil remedy referred to, that remedy may yet in many cases be practically valueless. Although the discharge of the workman from employment may be due to decisions taken by a trade-union and consequent action by some official on its behalf, the trade-union cannot be sued, nor can damages be recovered from its collective funds. In the recent case of *Temperton* v. *Russell and others*, the plaintiff, who carried on business as a builder, sued the officers of three trade unions, and of the joint committee of these trade unions, " as well on their own " behalf as on behalf of and representing all the members of each of the said " societies and joint committee to which they severally belong," for damages, and also for an injunction to restrain the trade unions and joint committee from molesting him in the conduct of his business. It was held by the Lord Chief Justice and Mr. Justice Hawkins that the plaintiff was not entitled to sue the

* *See* Law Reports 1891, 2 Q.B. 545.

trade union officers who were defendants in their representative character, but only as individuals, and this decision was confirmed by the Court of Appeal. Damages were subsequently recovered in this action against the officials of the three trade unions, and an injunction obtained restraining the defendants.* This case shows that persons injured by the action of trade unions and their agents can only proceed against the agents personally, and, whilst they may obtain verdicts against them, they may, in many easily conceivable cases, be unable to recover adequate damages. This difficulty is one which illustrates the inconvenience which may be caused by the existence of associations having, as a matter of fact, very real corporate existence and modes of action, but no legal personality corresponding thereto.

3.—Modes of Sharing the Proceeds of Industry.

Division of proceeds of labour.

105. The essential point of discord between employers and workmen being the mode and proportions in which the net receipts from the sale of produce shall be divided, the machinery by which this is settled has great influence upon the character of the relations between them. Other causes of disputes are, usually, only secondary, and in more or less near connection with the main issue. If workmen consider that they are being treated with openness and justice, and if they find the employers disposed to look upon them rather in the light of industrial partners than as servants, it seems from the evidence that contentment and friendliness on the whole exist.

Definition of sliding scales and wages boards.

106. Our attention was strongly called to two methods of settling this division of receipts without resort to strikes or lock-outs, by means of machinery intended to have as far as possible a permanent character, namely, "sliding scales" and "wages boards." Instances of the success of these institutions in averting trade conflicts for fairly long periods are to be found in a few important trades, or trade-districts, and emphatic testimony was, in some cases, borne both by employers and workmen to their efficiency in preventing and removing causes of conflict, and in improving the good understanding and cordiality between the parties. The trades in which they have succeeded best are those in which both employers and workmen are highly organised, and in which there is a fairly equal balance of power between them. A "sliding scale" may be shortly defined as an arrangement by which wages are made to rise and fall upon a fixed principle in accordance with the rise and fall of the price of the product of the industry in question.† A "wages board" may be defined as an institution for the periodical settlement and revision according to prices and other circumstances of general rates of wages by regular meetings of representatives of employers and workmen engaged in the same branch of industry. In some cases a sliding scale has operated under the supervision of a wages-board meeting periodically.

Sliding scales.

107. A sliding scale is usually based on an ascertainment from the books of an adequate number of employers of the net average selling price of the commodity which is to regulate the wages, such ascertainment being obtained for a series of recent years, the various rates of wages which have prevailed during the like period being also similarly ascertained. The relation in the past of piece-work rates and prices (which relation had probably been brought about by free bargaining or, it might be, as the result of a strike or arbitration), being thus established, a scale is constructed of a character which, had it been in operation during the years taken as a guide, would, over that whole period, have yielded not less but probably rather higher earnings, but would have yielded them in an uniform relation to the price of the commodity, and would have procured them without friction or loss of time, or perhaps, occasionally, suspension of work. The then prevailing rates of wages, and the price of the commodity which it is agreed shall yield those rates of wages are thenceforth termed "the standard rates of wages," and "the standard price." It is agreed that, for a prescribed period, probably two or three years, prices shall be ascertained every two or three months by public accountants from employers' books, and the rates of wages for the ensuing two or three months shall be those attaching under the agreed scale to the last ascertainment.

Instances of sliding scales.

108. In England and Wales the iron and steel trade seems of late years to have been generally governed by sliding scales. The three most important scales have

* *See* Temperton *v.* Russell (No. 2), 1893, 1 Q.B. 715; 62 L. J. Q.B. 412, 4 R. 376. The Court held that the evidence showed the defendants to have procured some persons to break their existing contracts with the plaintiff, and to have combined to induce others not to enter into contracts with him, and that the action was maintainable on both grounds.

† In the case of the Cleveland ironstone mines, wages follow under the sliding scale the price, not of the ironstone itself, but of the pig-iron which is manufactured from it.

been those regulating (1) the North of England district and some other districts which follow it in the matter of general wages-rates, (2) the Midland district and its followers, (3) the South Wales district. Sliding scales, with occasional intervals and modifications, have existed in the Northern district since 1871, and in the Midland district from 1874 to 1890, and in the Welsh district since 1890. The general rule has been to take average net realised prices through accountants at the end of each quarter or two months as a guide for the automatic increase or reduction of wages for the following like period. In each district the operation of the scale has been subject to the supervision of a central joint committee or wages board. In the Cleveland ironstone mines wages were regulated by sliding scales from 1879 to 1889. Sliding scales for coal mines have been in operation from time to time in Northumberland and Durham, but no scale has existed in the former county since 1887, or in the latter since 1889. Wages in South Wales have been governed by a sliding scale, with various modifications and some interruptions, from 1876 to the present time, and in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire (with an interval between 1884 and 1888) since 1874, and in the Cannock Chase district from 1874 to 1883. In the other English and Scotch mining districts it seems that sliding scales have either never been established or have been speedily abandoned.

Advantages of sliding scales.

109. The advantages claimed for this system are (1) that it obviates disputes about wages, at any rate, during fixed periods; (2) that it promotes a feeling of co-partnership and common interest between employers and employed; (3) that it enables employers to calculate what will be the cost of production, in wages, for some time ahead, and therefore to enter into long contracts with some feeling of security; (4) that it causes alterations in the rates of wages to take place gradually and by a series of small steps, instead of suddenly and at a bound.

Difficulties of sliding scale.

110. The frequent failure of attempts to establish a permanent sliding scale seems to be chiefly due to the difficulties of agreeing on a basis price, many of which, however, are such as may gradually be removed as the real nature of the problem becomes better understood. A common difficulty in settling and revising the basis of sliding scales arises from one party or the other contending that other circumstances besides the average wages and selling prices for a preceding term of years should be taken into consideration, such as changes in the cost of material, or the state of the labour market, or the relative wages of men in other districts and like industries, or competition with other districts and countries. An experienced witness giving evidence on behalf of employers in the iron and steel trade thought that, in view of all this, it would never be possible to have a permanent sliding-scale, based upon the price of the product apart from other circumstances, and that any sliding scale would require revision every few years. It also appears that workmen are apt to think that the sliding scale does not operate quickly enough to give them the full advantage of an upward movement of prices. It was explained that this feeling on their part is often due to the fact that the actual average prices which employers are getting frequently by no means correspond with the "quoted" market prices of the day, because in the coal trade, employers have to make large contracts, as a rule, for three or four months ahead, and in foreign trade often much longer. It was explained by a witness of great experience that the dissatisfaction so often felt by miners with the operation of the sliding scale was due to the fact that the prices, inflated by speculation in a rising market, which they see quoted in newspapers, are usually much in excess of the real average price which is being obtained by coal owners, and represent merely the temporary value of a small part of the coal in the market, so that workmen are apt to think that, under a sliding scale, they do not get the full advantage of rising prices. The only remedy seems to be that there should be a joint standing committee of employers and employed charged with the supervision of a sliding scale, and working upon frequent periodical reports made by accountants having full power to examine the books of employers, and that the workmen at large should implicitly trust their representatives, and delegate the fullest powers to them. All this implies a trade very highly organised in some respects.

Further observations as to sliding scales.

111. The system of sliding scales, so far as existing experience shows, is not applicable to all industries, but only to those in which, as in iron smelting, there is a certain simplicity in the product and steadiness in the cost of the raw material, or which, like coal mining, consist in the extraction of the raw material itself. It was represented that it would be very difficult to apply such a system to any complex manufacture in which the varying prices of the ingredient raw materials were a disturbing force in the cost of production. This is no doubt the reason why it has been introduced into so few industries. Even in coal mining, to which it seems

specially applicable, it has had only a limited success. But representatives both of employers and workmen, in industries in which this system has been tried, agree that, if a satisfactory basis to a scale could be arrived at, the system would be one conducive to friendly relations and the good of the trade. It seems, however, to be desirable to notice at this point a fundamental objection taken by many workmen to the principle of a sliding scale, namely, that wages should determine prices, and not prices wages. Objection is also made by some to any system of sliding scale which does not provide a minimum below which the wage-rate is not to fall, on the ground that the cost of a certain minimum standard of life for the workers should be the first charge upon the produce of industry, and should be maintained even in times of depression of trade. This appears to be the principle underlying the great struggle in the coal trade, which arose after we closed the evidence, and was described in that struggle as the maintenance of the "living wage." The establishment of a sliding scale is also objected to by some workmen on the ground that, whilst the scale lasts, it renders the chief work of the union superfluous, and so weakens the organisation by causing its members to withdraw from it.

Wages boards.

112. Wages boards are to be distinguished both from mere occasional meetings or conferences between representatives or committees of employers and employed in a trade for the purpose of discussing wage rates or other points at issue, and from the joint committees which are frequently constituted in trades for the purpose of hearing and determining in a judicial manner questions arising between individual employers and those whom they employ. The object of a true wages board is to prevent conflicts by means of periodical and organised meetings of representatives of employers and employed for the purpose of discussing and revising general wage rates in accordance with the changing circumstances of the time. Thus a wages board fulfils the same purpose as a sliding scale, but does not pretend to adopt any automatic principle of regulating wages in exact accordance with prices. A wages board in this way avoids some of the difficulties which have frequently led to the failure of sliding scales. In some cases the two systems have been advantageously combined, and the principal business of a wages board has been the supervision and occasional revision of a sliding scale. Although the primary purpose of a wages board is the regulation of wages, it may also be made use of for the discussion of other general trade questions, and be, as it were, a parliament of the trade.

Instances of wages boards.

113. The most complete instances of wages boards possessing a continuous history of some length, during which serious conflicts have been successfully avoided, are those presented by branches of the iron and steel trade. Full evidence was given with regard to the working and success of the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Manufactured Iron and Steel Trade of the North of England which was founded in 1869, and of the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, which was founded in 1876. The constitutions of these Boards have been summarised and are printed in the Volume of Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed (*see* pages 368–70). In the case of the Northern Board it is a rule that each of the works affiliated to the Board must be represented upon it by one employer and one workman. In the case of the Midland Board, the 42 firms which, at the date of the evidence, belonged to it, are represented on the Board by 12 persons chosen by the employers and 12 workmen elected by their fellows. The secretary of the workmen's association said, in evidence, that the workmen desired to adopt the Northern plan, so that each of the 42 firms would be represented on the Board by one employer and one workman. This would make an industrial assembly of 84 members, meeting twice a year. Both the Northern and the Midland Boards have a standing joint committee to deal with minor disputes, subject to an appeal to the full board. The mode in which reference of questions in the last resort to arbitration is secured in these Boards is referred to hereafter.* The president of the Northern Board stated in evidence (which was strongly corroborated by the representative of the workmen) that "the effect of the Board of Arbitration has been most satisfactory. "The relations of workmen and their employers seem to be entirely changed. There "is much more feeling of sympathy and respect than ever existed before, and that "feeling has extended from the works of the members of the Board to the other "works. There is very much more reason than there ever used to be formerly." Similar evidence was given with regard to the good effect of the Midland Board in improving relations.

Other instances.

114. Institutions of the same kind have, of recent years, been formed in the iron and steel industry in South Wales and West Scotland. Evidence was received as to other

* *See* paragraph 138 *post*.

boards of this kind in various trades not always showing permanent success. The board in the hosiery trade, for instance, which was one of the earliest and long one of the most successful of these organisations, seems to have ceased to have any formal existence. A wages board which existed for a long time in the Staffordshire Potteries seems to have also failed, in consequence of the dissatisfaction of the workmen with the results.

Frequent conferences.

115. Special attention has been called in this part of the Report to the wages boards, which have a permanent character and a written constitution, but, in practice, they do not, perhaps, differ essentially, except in so far as they may embody a rule for reference to arbitration, from the frequent meetings between representatives of employers and employed for the same purpose, which are held in some trades not in pursuance of formal rule, but, as a matter of fact, and in accordance with established custom. Of this kind are the frequent conferences between the central committees of the coal-owners' and miners' organisations in Durham and Northumberland to settle general or "county" questions. There is, however, an advantage in a permanent organisation about which authority grows, and which is always ready to deal with difficulties as they crop up, instead of being called into activity after feelings of dissension have arisen. On the whole, it appears that sliding scales and wages boards, considered as modes of dividing the receipts of industry between employers and employed, have met with some success, chequered by failures, in a few important trades, in which both sides are strongly organised, and the conditions of the industry itself are favourable. It is obvious that this success has not as yet extended to any considerable portion of the whole field of industry, and it is not yet proved by experience that these modes of action can exist without strong organisation on the side of the employed, or that such strong organisation can permanently exist, except in a class of trades possessing certain natural advantages.

General view.

116. The evidence of many of the witnesses who appeared before the Commission as representatives of, or in sympathy with, the working classes, indicates a widespread feeling of dissatisfaction, at any rate in theory, with the relation between employers and employed in the shape which at present it usually wears. In practice, however, it seems to be difficult, under the present conditions of trade for any other system of conducting industry to take the place, on any very large scale, of that now existing. The proposals made for the substitution to a large extent of public authorities for private employers, in the carrying on of industrial operations, have received special consideration in another part of this Report.* But we may here examine various forms of industrial organisation which aim at harmonising, as far as may be, the interests of employers and employed in private undertakings.

Profit-sharing.

117. Perhaps the simplest form is that usually called "profit-sharing." In this case the employer while retaining the general conduct and government of the business in his own hands, institutes a system by which, after payment of wages at current rates, and payment of a fixed amount of interest upon the capital invested in the concern, together with remuneration for management by the employer, the residue of the net receipts is divided in fixed shares between capital and labour. A possible development (of which one or two cases were brought to our notice) is the investment and accumulation of the profits coming to each workman under this arrangement, for the purpose of making him eventually a shareholder in the business under the Companies Acts. Where this is open to them the workmen may not only reap the advantages of profit-sharing, but, eventually, as shareholders, obtain a certain participation in the government of the business for which they work. The ultimate government would in this case be one of a mixed kind, which would, probably, be better able to exist in the present commercial world than would the pure democracies of productive co-operation. At present, however, it is more usual in profit-sharing concerns either to pay out to the workmen their shares as they fall due, or, at their choice, to retain the amount in the business as loan capital at interest.

Thames Ironworks scheme.

118. In some industries it may be possible to adopt some form of collective piecework, on the lines of an interesting experiment, which was described to the Commission by Mr. A. F. Hills, the managing director of the Thames Ironworks Shipbuilding Company, under the name of the "Good Fellowship Scheme" in 1890. Its essential feature consists in this, that all the members of the associated group receive a regular time-wage, however long the job may take to finish; if, however, the total wage thus paid falls short of the estimated labour-value of the job, the difference is divided among

* *See* paragraphs 244 to 251 *post*.

the members of the group.* Such a plan, if successful, might combine some of the advantages of piece-work in stimulating energy, with the growth of common interests among the employees in one another's work, and a greater harmony of interest between them and their employers. Such, at least, seems to have been the result so far at the Thames Ironworks, where a system of direct profit-sharing is now proposed to be combined with it; and indeed in all cases where profit-sharing has worked well the evidence shows that the system has been highly conducive to the maintenance and increase of friendly feelings between employers and workmen. It must, however, be admitted that workmen themselves do not in all cases approve of the introduction of such systems. They sometimes view them with suspicion as having a tendency to detach by particular benefits the interests of sections of workmen from those of the general body of men in a trade or district, and consequently to draw men away from their trade unions.

South Metropolitan Gas Company.

119. The Commission received a full description of the profit-sharing scheme established in London by the South Metropolitan Gas Company. Although the establishment of this scheme involved a strike on account of objections taken by the Gas-workers' Union to some of the proposals, it appears to have worked excellently. It is stated to have improved greatly the relations between the Company and its workmen, to have caused the latter to take greater interest in the success and economic efficiency of the business, and to have given them opportunities, of which they have largely availed themselves, of accumulating savings by investment with the Company of the bonus which they receive under the scheme. A description of this scheme and its results is contained in a memorandum upon profit-sharing prepared by Mr. George Livesey, the chairman of the South Metropolitan Gas Company, and a member of this Commission. This Memorandum is printed as Appendix I. to this Report.†

Attempts to dispense with employers.

120. Many attempts have been made, especially during the last 50 years, to launch industrial enterprises on the principle of associations of producers in which the individual capitalist employer shall be dispensed with, the business being conducted by the workmen themselves or their representatives, with the aid, in some cases, of outside shareholders, mostly in their own ranks of life. This was the main idea of the earlier promoters of the English co-operative movement. Its influence may be seen in the original programme of the Rochdale Pioneer Society, which included the cultivation of land by members out of employment, and the establishment of a self-supporting home colony of united interests. Again, the "Co-operative Union," formed for the purpose of promulgating co-operative principles and interests, and to which a large proportion of the existing societies are affiliated, professes to have for one of its leading objects the conciliation of the "conflicting interests of the capitalist, the worker, and the "purchaser, through an equitable division among them of the fund commonly known "as profit." But in practice it has not been found easy to act fully up to this principle, especially as regards the trading profit made by the Distributive Societies. There are now in the United Kingdom nearly 1,500 working-class Distributive Societies, doing a business of more than 30,000,000*l.* annually, and 150 Productive Societies doing a business of two and a half millions. Our attention was especially called to the English

* For instance, when a ship is to be constructed a number of different trades, such as boiler-makers, engineers, joiners and carpenters, shipwrights and others, have to be combined in the undertaking. The Company, before sending in their tender, consult with the men of each trade as to the price at which they will be prepared to do their part of the work. In each case the men, through their committees, make the necessary calculations and fix their price. This is accepted or modified, after consultation, by the Company, according to the possibilities of the case. If the tender thus put together is accepted, and the work taken in hand, the men in each trade, after being paid weekly the current or trade-union rate of wages receive, to be divided among them upon the completion of monthly portions of the work, the difference between the wages they have been paid and the estimated labour-value of the work done. If there should be no such excess there would be no gain for them; if there should be a loss, it would fall on the Company. It is claimed on behalf of this system that while avoiding on the one hand the "individual selfishness," the jealousy, and other evils alleged to be inherent in piece-work of the ordinary kind, it avoids, on the other hand, the stagnation and apathy which is the consequence of a "dead level of fixed daily rates, without a bonus and without overtime." It is further stated that, inasmuch as this benefit is secured by the collective energy and capacity of industrial groups, the men in each group take care (thus saving cost of supervision) that each man in the group does his work well, and have even gone so far as to get incapable workers eliminated. The adoption of this system, while it involved at the outset a great deal of trouble, and an entire re-cast of the method of book-keeping, and was besides viewed with suspicion by the trade unions, was stated by Mr. Hills to have changed entirely the relations between the Company and the workmen, between whom there had previously been some severe conflicts.

† *See also* for a full account of the scheme of the South Metropolitan Gas Company, Summaries of Evidence, Group C., paragraph 428.

and Scottish Wholesale Societies. The English Wholesale Society was founded in 1863 at a conference of representatives of local societies, and only registered co-operative societies are capable of becoming members or shareholders of it. The Scottish Wholesale Society was founded in 1868.

Production as carried on by Co-operative Distributive Societies.

121. Evidence was given on behalf of these two great societies, especially with regard to the remuneration of labour in the manufactures which they carry on. The English Co-operative Wholesale Society began business in its present form in 1864, and has already attained very large proportions. None but registered co-operative societies may become shareholders of it; and of these there are nearly 1,000. Its business as a wholesale dealer supplying the Distributive Societies is more than 8,000,000*l.* annually: and having added to its trading business several manufacturing and other productive departments, its output in those is a good deal over half a million. It employs about 3,000 workmen in direct production, but does not use any method of profit-sharing. Its representatives claim that its service offers special advantages to workmen, inasmuch as wages are at the highest current standard rate, the sanitary conditions of labour excellent, and the employment steady and continuous. It manufactures for a certain and secure market with which it is in intimate contact, and, as an employer, may be expected to have special sympathy with working people.

English system.

122. A Distributive Co-operative Society which makes goods in an auxiliary department of its own, or which produces them from the wholesale of which it is a part owner, adds, it is argued, manufacturing profits to store-keeping profits; and, under the English system, the whole advantage of both sets of profits ultimately accrues to the persons who make purchases at the stores, in proportion to the amount of their purchases. These persons usually belong to the working classes, but there is nothing to prevent rich people dealing at the stores. As regards the workmen employed in their manufacturing works, these societies do not, as a rule, pretend to be more than model and sympathetic employers, paying the best rates of wages, and ensuring the best conditions of work; while every one who chooses to be a member of any Distributive Society has a share in the control of great enterprises, based on principles of perfect equality, and exercising an educating influence on all who have any part in them, however small.

Scottish system.

123. A different policy in this respect is pursued by Scottish Co-operative Societies. Many of the Distributive Societies which carry on production in Scotland have adopted the system of sharing profits with their workmen, and this is also done by the Scottish Wholesale Society, the success of which is quite as remarkable as that of its elder English sister. The present plan of this Society is, after payment of interest upon capital, to share the net profits made in the distributive and productive departments taken together between the purchasers and the employees in both departments, the payment to the employees being made at the same rate per pound on wages, as the payment to the purchasers on the purchases. The Society carries on 14 or 15 productive industries, and for the purpose of the payments out of profits to the workmen, no distinction is made on account of the different profits received in each business. The Scottish societies, like the English, appear to ensure good conditions of work. The Scottish Wholesale Society also makes it a rule to invest all their accumulations of capital exclusively in extending co-operative enterprise, unlike the English Wholesale, which has large investments in railway stock and other securities.

Co-partnership Societies.

124. Evidence was given also on behalf of "co-partnership" societies for co-operative production, which are attempting to carry out the plan of dispensing with employers and "introducing the principle of representative government into the workshops."* Such enterprises have shown in their early stages an even larger per centage of failures than other forms of co-operation in the same stages, and perhaps might appear to have little chance of succeeding in existing conditions except in industries of a very simple kind, or when they possess some especial *clientèle*, such as that which is sometimes afforded by the sympathy of distributive co-operative stores or of public bodies. They have had, however, it is alleged, but small advantages of this kind. They complain that public bodies seldom exert themselves in England as they do in some other countries, so to frame their contracts as to adapt them to Co-operative Societies; and that they have, in a great measure, lost the advantage of an easy market in Distributive Societies, in consequence of the policy of entering into competition with them, which has been

* Evidence, Whole Commission, 7533.

adopted by the Wholesale Society. They allege that that Society could have afforded them good knowledge of the wants of a large class of customers, and a good access to them, had it not become a rival to them. Under such disadvantages it might have been expected that these little industrial republics would have but small chance of surviving in the competition in the open market with individual firms and companies possessing the advantages of more special commercial training, greater command of capital, firmer internal discipline, and the benefit of the alliances and natural sympathies, existing connections and good-will, which prevail in the general world of commerce. Nevertheless the movement appeals strongly to those working men who do not regard employment as consisting simply of receiving so much wage in return for so much work; and who do not value highly the infinitesimal share in the management of their own work which employees in a factory of the Wholesale may derive from membership of a Distributive Society. Its advocates claim that theirs is the only method of employment which develops every faculty of the workman "to the advantage of himself, his fellow-workers, and the community."* However this may be, the recent history of the movement is not altogether discouraging. Besides many smaller societies, there are about a dozen, each of which produces from twenty to eighty thousand pounds worth of goods annually, has much expensive machinery, and employs a great deal of skilled labour.

General view of methods of adjustment of wages.

125. Although there seems to be good reason to hope that the principles of profit-sharing and co-operation will become more widely extended at all events in certain classes of business, yet at present the establishments in which they have been adopted bear a very small proportion to the bulk of manufacturing industry. In the vast majority of cases, workmen are paid by way of fixed wage-rates, varied from time to time in well organised trades, in the result of negotiations between the bodies of employers and workmen. In unorganised trades, variations are due more immediately and directly to the condition of the labour market and the supply of and demand for labour. The strong trade organisations, composed chiefly of males, skilled workers, accustomed to act together in masses, have made the old method of settling individual wages by the "higgling of the market" impossible, and have, for the most part already caused the substitution for it of wages boards or other more or less formal institutions, by which they secure a consultative voice in the division of receipts between capital and labour. A standard wage is thus established, which may be varied by agreement from time to time with the variations in the prosperity of an industry. The system of a sliding scale is a more delicate, flexible, and precise mode of adjusting these variations, but is only applicable to industries of a special character. In cases where there is neither profit-sharing nor a sliding-scale, nor a permanent joint wages board, nor frequent conferences as to wage-rates between the committees of organised bodies of employers and workmen, the wage-rate is settled, partly by custom, partly by the comparative amount of the demand for and supply of labour, partly by occasional temporary combinations on the part of workmen to make a particular demand.

Effect of joint benevolent funds on the relations between employers and employed.

126. Evidence was given as to the good effect in improving the relations between employers and employed of various benevolent funds against accident, sickness and old age, jointly subscribed to by both. In the case of some dangerous occupations the employers have subscribed largely to such funds against accidents in a fixed proportion to the subscriptions of the men upon condition of the latter contracting out of the Employers' Liability Act. Such is the case with the South Wales and Lancashire Coal-Owners, the London and North Western Railway Company, the London and Brighton Company, Messrs. Armstrong's Works at Elswick, and other establishments. Notice has been lately called to a similar fund existing at Messrs. Tangye's, where the whole fund is contributed by the employers. Various instances were brought to the notice of the Commission of benevolent funds in particular works having a more or less extensive range of objects. Such funds seem to be especially useful in the case of the classes of labourers, chiefly of an unskilled kind, who either do not belong at all to trade unions, or to such trade unions only as, either from policy or want of sufficient means, do not combine benevolent with trade objects. When, as frequently is the case, the management of the benevolent fund is in the hands of a joint committee, composed partly of representatives of the workmen and partly of those of the employers, the evidence shows that the practice of friendly co-operation in such an object does much to improve the relations between them.

Advantages of such funds.

127. It also appears that in cases where such a benevolent fund exists it does much to give men an interest in permanently working in the same establishments. This

* Evidence, Whole Commission, 7682.

in case of unskilled labour.

is particularly desirable in the case of unskilled labour, seeing that the unsettled and roving habits of this class of workmen appear to be an evil, both to themselves and to society. It is clear from the history of industries that permanency and regularity of work is a condition precedent to anything like good organisation and the rise in prosperity and the standard of life of any labouring class. It is possible that, in the case of unskilled labour, the best road to this lies through the extension, within single industrial establishments, or groups of establishments, of the practice of profit-sharing and of benevolent funds.

4.—Summary of Present State of Relations.

Summary as to present relations between employers and employed.

128. The present relations of capital and labour may be summed up very broadly, as follows: So far as experience goes, it has not been shown that, in the existing commercial world, industrial establishments can survive in the competition of the open market without the business skill, energy, and concentration of power characterizing management by individual employers, or trained and highly paid managers in the service of companies. If there are exceptions it is in the case of industries of a very simple kind with some assured and special *clientèle*. There seems to be no reason, however, why the great associations of consumers, the distributive co-operative stores, having at their command business ability, and a secure and steady market, should not greatly extend manufacturing operations, and afford to workmen not only such benefits as may be derived from having sympathetic and personally disinterested employers, but also those benefits which are already conferred upon them in the productive establishments of the Scottish Wholesale Society. If, further, the consumers who support co-operative stores should be willing to forego the manufacturing profits, and to content themselves with the distributive profits, the whole of the nett manufacturing profits after payment of rent, interest on capital, cost of management, &c. might be divided among the producing workmen. With regard to industry at large, it seems clear that for a long time to come the bulk of it must be conducted on the present system of employers remunerated by profits and workmen receiving wages. But all the evidence shows that for the last fifty years the line of general progress has been in the direction of the acquisition of a kind of limited industrial partnership on the part of the workmen. The recognition of this may assume the shape of profit-sharing or sliding-scales, or joint wage-boards or conferences, according to the circumstances of various trades. For the most part at present this industrial partnership only extends to the acquisition by organisations of workmen of a consultative voice in the division of the proceeds of industry. Whether the movement will proceed further, and end in their acquiring a like voice in the general management of trades, the control of production, and the fixing of prices, and whether such a development would be in the interests of the community at large, are questions to which probably only experience can supply the final answer.

IV.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

1.—Existing Methods of settling Industrial Disputes.
(*a.*) Arbitration.
(*b.*) Joint Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration.
(*c.*) Boards of Mediation.

2.—Existing Methods of enforcing Arrangements, made between Employers and Employed, by way of Agreement or Arbitration.

3.—Possible Improved Methods of preventing or settling Industrial Conflicts and Disputes.

1.—Existing Methods of settling Industrial Disputes.

Definitions.

129. Trade disputes take place either (1) between a particular employer and his workmen, supported or not supported by outside workmen, or (2) between associated employers and associated workmen, or (3) between different bodies of associated workmen. Questions are settled before or after strikes and lock-outs take place, either by way of conciliation or by way of arbitration.

Arbitration is the settlement by one or more presumably impartial persons of an issue on which the parties have failed to agree.

Conciliation is the coming together of the parties for the discussion of questions with a view to amicable settlement. This word is often used where we should properly speak of Mediation.

Mediation means the exercise of good offices by some outside agency, with a view to avert an impending rupture between the parties, or, if the rupture has taken place, to bring them together again as soon as possible, without itself acting as arbitrator, or making an award, though it might sometimes make and even publish recommendations as to the course which should be followed. In the latter case its action facilitates what may be called arbitration by public opinion.

Distinction between classes of industrial disputes.

130. Broadly speaking, there are two classes of industrial disputes:—

(1.) Those which arise out of the existing terms of engagement or contract of service between employers and employed, and are for the most part limited to particular establishments, of little general importance, and often purely personal;

(2.) Those which arise out of proposals for the terms of engagement or contract of service to subsist for a future period. These disputes are frequently of wide interest, affect large bodies of men, and are the most general cause of strikes and lock-outs on a large scale.

The first class, of minor and local questions, being for the most part connected with the application of rules already recognised, can usually be dealt with and settled, upon the ascertainment of facts, without much difficulty by simple methods or institutions of a judicial kind.

The second class may be compared to those questions which, as between States or individuals, have to be settled by treaties or agreement arrived at after negotiations between the contending parties. The method of judicial arbitration has, as experience shows, not yet been successfully applied to this class of questions, except under special circumstances and in a few industries, for reasons which are hereafter indicated.* It is important to bear these distinctions in mind, both in considering the various methods in practice of settling industrial issues by voluntary means and institutions, and in discussing any possible improved methods.

Classification of various trade methods of settling questions.

131. The various methods in practice of settling trade questions by means and institutions internal to trades, may be classified as follows, beginning from the bottom of the scale and working upwards to the most highly organised institutions:—

(1.) Negotiations between individual employers and deputations, or representatives of their own workmen.

(2.) Negotiations between individual employers and trade union officials from outside on behalf of their workmen.

(3.) Negotiations between officials of trade unions and officials of employers' associations.

(4.) Occasional meetings with reference to wage-rates and other general questions between committees of trade unions and committees of employers' associations, with, possibly, at the same time a standing joint committee to settle minor questions of the judicial order.

(5.) More or less regular and periodical meetings between such committees for the despatch of current business.

(6.) Formation of joint committees or wages boards, composed equally of employers and workmen, and meeting at more or less regular intervals for the settlement of general questions, with a regular constitution and rules of procedure, and usually with a standing sub-committee to deal with minor and local disputes in a judicial manner. The wages board or joint committee may either be for a whole trade, or for a district section of a trade, or for a single establishment.

(7.) Reference of special cases to an arbitrator, approved by both parties.

(8.) Embodiment in the constitution of joint committees, wages boards, or other courts of conciliation of the principle of referring to arbitration questions on which such bodies fail to agree. Such rule of reference may be either with regard to all questions or with regard to a certain class of questions only; and the arbitrator or arbitrators may either be standing referees or be selected upon each occasion *ad hoc*.

Adoption of methods.

132. It is difficult to ascertain any general principle upon which one or another of these methods is adopted by various classes of industries. It may be said, broadly speaking,

* *See* paragraphs 136 and 137 *post*.

by various classes of industries.

that industries which, for one reason or another, are little organised on either side, have rarely advanced beyond the stage at which employers treat with deputations of their own men without the interposition of outside trade union officials. One reason of this is that an employer is, not unnaturally, unwilling to discuss a question concerning his establishment with the officials or committee of an association which he believes to be but very partially representative of the men in the industry. It is also usually the case that, where workmen are but little organised, employers are not organised at all, so that there is no material on either side from which to build up the more elaborate and formal institutions by which, in some trades, general questions between bodies of employers and employed are settled. It has been pointed out in a previous part of this Report (*see* paragraph 77 *ante*), that the most frequent cause of want of organisation among workmen is the fact that an occupation requires little or no training, and is open to general competition. It is in these unskilled trades that the absence of any formal institutions for settling questions and disputes is most marked.

133. It does not, however, follow that industries, merely because they are highly organised, adopt the most elaborate of the methods in question. Upon the whole it is still at present an exceptional thing that a trade, or district section of a trade, should have an organised joint board of employers and employed of a standing character, with a definite constitution, meeting regularly for the settlement of wage-rates and other general questions, and providing a resort to arbitration. The plan more usually adopted is that of special conferences between representative committees on either side to settle general questions, while minor and local questions are settled either directly between each employer and those immediately employed by him, or between the officials of the different associations, or between the trade union officials and the employers in works where the difficulties arise. Many of the most strongly organized and successful unions appear to prefer these simpler methods to any attempt to form permanent joint boards with employers for the discussion and settlement of questions.

It may, however, be added that although institutions of conciliation and arbitration have not been brought to a very high pitch of development in a large proportion of trades, the evidence shows that in matters of standards of wages and hours, one organised body of employers and workmen taking counsel together affect a larger area than that of their own district or even their own trade. Instances were given of districts and works which, while not belonging to any organised institution for conciliation themselves, make it their rule to follow the decisions of such an institution in their trade with regard to general wage-rates and similar matters. This indirect influence seems to be especially strong in the case of trades which regulate their wage-rate by means of a sliding scale supervised by a representative joint board.

Joint committees for settling minor questions.

134. Joint committees of employers and employed for settling questions of the minor or local kind sometimes exist in the form of standing committees of the organised boards for settling the larger or general questions, and sometimes also exist independently where there are no such boards. In the Durham and Northumberland coal mining districts, for instance, where general questions are treated not by a joint board, but by occasional conferences of the executive committees on both sides, the machinery for settling the minor questions by means of joint committees is of the most elaborate character. These committees meet with regularity, have a complete system of procedure, and settle a great number of cases with considerable success. The meetings of each of these joint committees are presided over by an independent and salaried chairman who has a casting vote. Thus the practice of arbitration, which appears in these districts to have been tried but now discarded in the case of general questions, has been successfully embodied in the institutions which deal with the minor and local class of questions. There are many other instances of joint committees of a more or less highly organised character for settling minor disputes. Descriptions of such committees will be found in the Summaries of Evidence in connection with particular industries. A general reference may also here be made to the "Memo-" randum on the rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation," which is prefixed to the volume published by the Commission upon the "Rules of Associations of " Employers and of Employed," which furnishes a condensed description of the history, objects, constitution, and procedure of these boards.

135. In a previous part of this Report (*see* paragraphs 112 to 115 *ante*), occasion was taken to examine the system of wages boards, considered as a means of improving relations

between employers and employed and preventing, by amicable methods of settling wage-rates, industrial conflicts from arising. The question of modes by which such conflicts may be terminated when they have broken out, or may be obviated when they are on the verge of arising, is of a different character. It is in connection with this last-mentioned question that importance attaches to the results of actual experience of arbitration, whether conducted by special arbitrators for particular trade disputes or whether systematically provided for in trade institutions.

Arbitration.

136. Questions in many trades and concerning various issues have been from time to time referred to arbitration. In large questions, such as general wage-rates, demarcation disputes between trades, hours of labour, or the restriction of apprentices, resort has frequently been made to the decision of eminent persons in the legal, political, or industrial spheres. Where trades are large and strongly organised, the plan of referring such general questions to single individuals has proved, in some cases, to be attended by considerable difficulties. In the first place there is a difficulty in finding suitable arbitrators. Either the arbitrator is quite unconnected with industrial work, and then the process of informing his mind upon the matter is too long and costly, or, he is in some way connected with the industrial world, and then one party or the other is apt to suspect him of bias and partiality. A still more fundamental difficulty is this: in general questions, such as those which affect wages or hours, in which interests of considerable magnitude and far-reaching consequences are involved, either the employers or the employed, or both, are frequently indisposed to entrust the decision to any single person. Instances have been brought to our notice in which such awards, when given, have caused the greatest dissatisfaction, although they have for a period been accepted and largely observed. In a few instances the awards of single arbitrators have even been repudiated.

Feeling with regard to arbitration.

137. It may, perhaps, be fairly collected from the evidence that, in cases where very strong organisation enables the workmen fully to hold their own, and even gives them advantages in bargaining, they are the more apt to be averse to arbitration by individuals regarding these general questions, while employers are more disposed to resort to it. Certainly the desire for arbitration on general questions, and especially, for some form of State arbitration, seems usually to be stronger among workmen of poorly organised trades. But, on the whole, it seems to be a common feeling that these general questions are too important to be referred to what is sometimes known as "one-man arbitration." It seems at present that the objection felt by strong trades to submitting large questions concerning wage-rates or hours to arbitration resembles that which would prevent Parliament from referring to the decision of an eminent judge some question upon which the two Houses failed to agree. Such questions are in fact not suited for judicial decision. They are questions of practical politics, in which the relative strength of the opposite parties is an element that can hardly be left out of account. The result of these difficulties has been that, in some of the great strongly-organised trades at any rate, resort to "one-man arbitration" is not so frequent now as it once was. If in the case of various industries a desire for arbitration is expressed, it would more often seem to be in the direction of some kind of State tribunal, than in that of reference of questions to individual arbitrators.

Rules for arbitration in connection with joint boards.

138. Instances were brought to the notice of the Commission in which, in large and important trades, provision is made for the regular reference to arbitration of issues upon which the representatives of employers and employed fail to agree. In one of these cases, that of the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration of the North of England Iron and Steel Trade, the arbitrator is appointed especially for each occasion when the parties fail to agree, but he may be the standing "referee" who is the permanent arbitrator to the joint committee that deals with minor questions. In another case, that of the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, the "President" of the Board acts as permanent arbitrator where the Board fails to agree. Provision for reference to arbitration in the last resort is also made in the constitution of the recently founded Boards in the Boot and Shoe Trade. In none of these cases does actual reference to the arbitrator appear to be very frequent, but it is stated that the provision of an ultimate resort to arbitration much facilitates the settlement of questions by agreement.

Demarcation disputes.

139. The plan of "one-man arbitration" did not prove very successful in the recent "demarcation" disputes between the various trades engaged in shipbuilding. It has

been made one of the rules of the new federation of these trades, established in 1890, that disputes between any of the federated societies which cannot be amicably settled shall be referred to a court of arbitration. Each party is to appoint two arbitrators, who, again, are to appoint an umpire, whose decision shall be final and binding. Both arbitrators and umpire are themselves to be trade unionists.

Mediation.

140. Disputes are often settled, either before a strike actually commences, or more often, perhaps, when it has proceeded for some time and both combatants being exhausted desire an honourable compromise, by the action of mediators, who bring the parties together and suggest terms upon which they can agree. Conspicuous instances of successful interventions of this kind were those by which a committee of distinguished persons terminated the London dock strike of 1889, and that by which the Bishop of Durham brought to an end the miners' strike in that county in 1892. It has not been unusual for mayors of towns or other local authorities to offer this kind of intervention. In the recent coal conflict the principal mayors in the districts chiefly affected offered their intervention without success, but a little later Your Majesty's Government, through the Foreign Secretary, was successful in bringing about an agreement. Occasional mediation has suggested and led to the formation of regular boards for this purpose, one advantage of which is that they are in a better position than the occasional mediator to intervene before a conflict has actually began.

Boards of mediation.

141. These Boards, which have recently been considerably developed in the larger industrial centres, are formed of representatives of employers and workmen in a variety of local industries. Their formation is usually brought about by the co-operation of the local chamber of commerce with the local trades council. For the purpose of forming the London Conciliation Board, which is a leading example of this type of institution, it was arranged that the London trades should be classified in 12 groups, each of which should have a workmen's committee electing a representative on the Board. Twelve representatives were also elected by the London Chamber of Commerce, one by the County Council, and one other by the labour representatives on the Board. In case of a dispute arising in any London trade, it is the practice of this Board, in the first place, to invite both parties to the dispute to a friendly conference, at which one or two members of the board usually sit as assessors to smooth away difficulties. In the event of no adjustment being arrived at by this means, the Board invites both parties to agree to submit the case to its arbitration, or to arbitrators selected from its own body, or otherwise. The London Board, which was founded in the course of 1890, has hitherto met with success in its operations, and boards of a similar character have been established in several large labour centres. The system appears to be especially well adapted to places where a number of various industries are carried on. As trade boards of conciliation seem most suited to those staple industries which are carried on in special districts by large masses of men, so these district boards seem more useful in the case of trades which are less organised or more scattered.

2.—Existing Methods of enforcing Arrangements, made between Employers and Employed, by way of Agreement or Arbitration.

142. It is shown by the evidence that some trades have arrived at a fairly complete machinery for discussing and settling general and special questions, while other trades seem to be advancing more or less in the same direction. It remains to consider the existing means of enforcing agreements or awards made between bodies of employers and workmen.

Enforcement of collective agreement.

143. Special contracts between an employer and a workman can, of course, be enforced by civil process, like other contracts. But the sanction to the arrangements, which in many great trades are really the governing contracts made between bodies of employers and workmen, powerful though it very frequently is, is one of a merely moral kind. You cannot, as witnesses frequently explained, sue at once (say) 10,000 workmen for breach of contract. And, inasmuch as these agreements are made between bodies which have no legal personality for the purpose, they are unable to sue each other for damages. In some trades, however, in which the organisation of the workmen is very strong, and embraces most men in the trade or district, and in which a great deal of administrative power and the complete control of funds is lodged with the central executive, the force which the society can exert over its members to make

them carry out the agreements arrived at with the employers is so strong as almost to amount to the force of law. In the case of a trade society which has almost the complete monopoly of its trade, individual members who will not conform to the arrangements approved by the representatives of the men and agreed to by employers can practically be driven out of the trade, by being expelled from the society; for, in that case, their fellow workmen will not work with them, nor will employers employ them. Recalcitrant sections of workmen can be told, that unless they submit their grievances to the proper quarter before striking, or accept an agreement or award jointly arrived at by the central executive and the employers, (1) they will be discharged by their own employers, (2) no other employers in the trade will employ them, (3) their own society will not only refuse to support them when out of work and perhaps exclude them from membership, but will supply their employers with men to take their places. The officials of several societies said in evidence that they would be prepared to go as far as this, and some instances were given of steps of this kind having actually been taken. This reasoning proceeds on the assumption that the settlement is accepted by a majority of the workmen affected, incuding the officials, who may be expected to guide them, and would be inapplicable to a case where the settlement was repugnant to such a majority. Subject to this qualification, it may be said that where the great bulk of workmen and employers in a trade are enrolled in their respective associations, and act loyally, no individual workman, or section of workmen, can withstand such a combination to enforce the expressed will of the trade. A method of this kind for the united enforcement of decisions jointly arrived at is very clearly formulated in the rules of a joint board of conciliation which has lately been formed in the Colony of Victoria, by the action of the Melbourne Employers' Union and Trades Hall Council.

Difficulties of enforcement where organisations are imperfect.

144. The effectiveness of this moral sanction to agreements and awards diminishes as the organisation on each side becomes less perfect. If discontented workmen know that excommunication by the associated workmen and employers will not destroy their chance of employment, but that they can easily find work outside, they may be disposed to follow their own will rather than that of their society. The same remark is true of an employer who knows that he can obtain workmen whether or not he conforms to the agreements between the associations. The evidence shows that leaders of weak trade unions, knowing how slight their hold over the members is, dare not attempt boldly to prevent strikes by sections, and cannot enforce compliance with agreements or awards which do not satisfy the men. Most instances of this kind are to be found among the less skilled and worse organised industries. But the history of the Durham miners for some time previously to the great strike of 1892 shows that the same thing may occur where a trade union is highly organised, if the constitution does not secure sufficient administrative power to the central executive.

General conclusion.

145. The general conclusion seems to be that the moral sanction or force, which at present is alone available to secure respect to the arrangements between bodies of employers and workmen throughout the industry and to the awards of arbitration, can only, as far as present experience goes, be relied on with anything like certainty in those trades which are very well organised, so as to comprise practically all the workers in a trade, or important district of it, and which have a strong and efficient form of internal government. In trades of this class, at any rate, in spite of occasional serious disturbances, there seems to be every prospect of fewer outbreaks of industrial conflicts between employers and employed, due to the growing practice of consultations upon equal terms of representatives of either party in conferences or standing joint committees. By influences of this kind there are gradually established steady and permanent trade customs with regard to price lists, the regulation of wages according to the fluctuations of trade, and other conditions of labour. Under these circumstances custom may become so strong, even without assistance from law, as to afford in such trades an almost certain and practically sufficient guarantee for the carrying out of industrial agreements and awards.

3.—Possible Improved Methods of Preventing or Settling Industrial Conflicts and Disputes.

146. Both the oral evidence and the answers to questions show that there is a very wide-spread desire alike on the side of employers and of employed for improved and

more pacific modes of settling disputes, but very vague and conflicting ideas as to what such modes should be.

Summary of existing situation.

147. Attention has been called to the important distinction between trade disputes arising upon the interpretation of existing agreements and customs, and upon all minor and personal matters, and those relating to the making of new agreements, and the alteration of existing agreements and customs. It has been shown that in the industrial world, district or trade tribunals have, in many instances, though by no means in all cases, been formed for the interpretation of existing agreements and customs and the settlement of personal and minor disputes. These tribunals do effectively settle a great number of such questions, though they do not possess, like the Conseils de Prud-hommes in France, legal powers of procedure, enabling them to summon witnesses, and examine them on oath, to compel the production of documents, &c., and though their decisions are not legally binding. Their effectiveness depends upon the discipline and self-control of the employers and employed affected, and the interest which they have in keeping on good terms with their respective associations. General questions, it has further been shown, are settled either by more or less periodical meetings of representatives of employers and employed, or by what comes to much the same thing, formal collective agreements made between the representatives of great associations, binding morally upon the members of those associations, enforceable by public opinion and by such coercive action as the associations may be able to exercise over their members, and usually very effectively observed and loyally carried out. In some cases, however, such agreements have been repudiated by large sections, or minorities, of the persons concerned.

The difficulty of arriving at collective agreements, or of establishing industrial trade tribunals, increases in proportion as industries are unorganised, and industries are, as a rule, less organised in proportion as they are less skilled and specialised. The industries in which such agreements have been most successfully made and effectively enforced are those in which workmen, either on account of the skill and training required, or because, as in mining, they have a certain local monopoly of the business, hold a strong position, and consequently compel the employers also to cohere firmly together for purposes of resistance.

Agreements.

148. In ordinary law, agreements, if such as the law holds valid, are enforceable by way of compensation in damages. Specific performance is, with rare exceptions, applied in this country only to contracts for the sale and letting of land. It is not granted where damages are considered an adequate remedy, nor where the performance cannot effectually be controlled by the Court; and accordingly it is recognised at law that it is not applicable to general employment. A man cannot be compelled to work for an employer, or an employer to employ a man. It is true that in special circumstances a man can be restrained from working otherwise than as he has contracted to work, but this constraint is purely negative, and never extends to the enforcement of a contract. Also, if any section of men disagree with the collective agreement arrived at by their trade, nothing can legally prevent them from leaving their work. Or if an employer, or set of employers, refuse to accept such agreement they cannot legally be prevented from closing their works, or discharging and replacing their hands. It may be that an employer may be unable to carry through the agreement from want of capital or through certain resulting losses, and the suspension of his work, though inevitable, would undoubtedly inflict loss upon the workmen. Even where a stoppage of work or discharge from employment is in breach of contract or otherwise legally unjustifiable, so that an action for damages could be maintained, the remedy would be unequal, for although workmen might recover damages from individual employers, it would practically be impossible for employers to recover damages from a number of individual workmen.

Defective agreements.

149. Collective agreements are, as a matter of fact, frequently made between great bodies of organised workmen and employers, which bodies have no legal personality and cannot sue or be sued for damages occasioned by the breach of such agreements by sections of their members. There is collective action without legal collective responsibility. While this state of things lasts it does not appear that such collective agreements can be, as between such bodies, otherwise than morally binding upon them.

Suggested remedy.

150. In these circumstances, it has occurred to some people that the most effective remedy might be to give by legislation facilities to bodies of employers and employed to acquire legal personality so as to enable them to enter into industrial agreements of which the law could take cognizance and which could be enforced by actions for damages

directed against the collective funds of such societies. Bills embodying this suggestion have been brought before the legislative assemblies of the colonies of New Zealand and South Australia. The proposals are that any such body shall be able by registration to acquire legal personality and to enter into industrial agreements for specific terms, enforceable by money penalties of a limited amount upon the organisations parties to it, and upon other persons at any time during the term of the agreement members of such organisations.* The language of the Bills does not make it clear whether or not the organisation as such would continue to be liable for any breach of agreement by those who had ceased to be members. This is an important point; for though it would certainly seem a strong measure to make an association legally responsible for the conduct of persons who were no longer its members, on the other hand if this were not done the scheme hardly appears to dispose of the old difficulty of enforcing legal penalties against a mass of working men. Supposing that a collective agreement had been entered into by a union consisting of 50,000 miners, and that 20,000 of them, being dissatisfied with it, resolved first to withdraw from the Union, and subsequently to repudiate the agreement, then, although, according to these proposals, each of the 20,000 might be liable to fine or even imprisonment, it would be practically impossible to enforce such penalties, and the aggrieved party would have no other means of redress.

Further observations.

151. If the association were not legally responsible so long as an agreement lasted for its observance by persons who in the meantime ceased to be members, the practical value of a legal guarantee of this kind would in great measure depend upon the strength of the tie which bound members to their Union. It would probably not be very effective in the case of organisations like those of unskilled labour, which have but a weak hold over their members, or add in such cases very much strength to the moral forces which are at present the only sanction to industrial agreements and awards. But in the case of the strongly organised skilled trades, the benefits derived by members from the associations are often so considerable, that it would be improbable that they would abandon their associations for the sake of any temporary advantage which they might think themselves able to gain through breach of the collective agreements. It is, of course, precisely in these trades that agreements are, as matters stand now, best observed, even without any right to sue for compensation, while on the other hand a weak and poor union, even if endowed with legal personality, and made legally responsible for any breach of agreement by the persons who had ceased to be members of it, would constitute but a feeble guarantee to employers that the terms of the agreement would be loyally observed.

Advantage of agreements for specified terms.

152. It has been argued by witnesses in favour of facilitating collective legally binding agreements that thereby it might be possible to obtain some guarantee as to the permanence for determinate periods of arrangements made between employers and employed. Several witnesses, in giving evidence with regard to the system of the sliding scale laid great stress on the fact that, where this system is in force, employers are able to make calculations as to the future cost of production for some time beforehand, and can therefore enter into long contracts with purchasers.

An advantage of the same kind might, it was thought, be gained if it were enacted that any collective industrial agreement, to be legally enforceable, must be made for a specific term. On the one hand employers would be able better to forecast the cost of production, while on the other, it would be made more difficult during the fixed period for any employer who was bound by the agreement to reduce wages in order to take contracts at lower prices. There would also be the advantage that, the date of termination of a contract being fixed, there would be some guarantee of sufficient time being given by both parties for consideration and discussion of the terms upon which it should be renewed.

Mr. Trow's suggestion. Evidence, Group A., 15,342.

153. One or two suggestions made by important and experienced witnesses for the settlement of trade disputes seem worthy of particular notice. One such suggestion was that arbitration in all trade disputes should be made compulsory by law; that is, that strikes or lock-outs should be illegal and punishable in cases where arbitration had not

* If submission either of present or future differences to arbitration were made under a collective agreement of this kind, the award would have the guarantee given by the ordinary law to submission to arbitration contained in agreements made between any parties having the capacity to enter into contracts.

been resorted to. The witness who made this proposal (and who is himself a member of the Commission) started from this principle, viz., that no body of men or of employers "have a right to take advantage of an opportunity and cease work, discouraging "the whole trade of the district, and interfering with the dependent trades." In fact what this witness would desire would be to give legal effect to what is already a rule of that trade union with which he is connected, not to resort to strikes before trying to get the dispute settled by arbitration, and to make this binding not only upon associations which had the rule, but upon all employers and employed. Mr. Trow did not, however, propose to create anything like Government tribunals, but seemed to think that if his proposal became law, the employers and the employed in every trade would form organisations, if none already existed, and create industrial tribunals to meet the necessities of the case. He did not show how, in practice, a law prohibiting strikes or lock-outs could be enforced against large bodies of workmen or employers. The principle suggested by this witness was, however, embodied in a Bill brought before the Legislative Assembly of the Colony of South Australia in 1890, which proposed to make liable to fine any organisation of employers or employed, or any member thereof, who should take part in or assist any lock-out or strike on account of any dispute for the settlement of which any board of conciliation to be created under the Act should have jurisdiction. It was suggested by some other witnesses that without making resort to arbitration legally necessary, or making strikes and lock-outs before arbitration illegal, legal force should be given to awards made, upon the agreement of the parties, by industrial tribunals or individual arbitrators.

Existing statutory machinery for arbitration.

154. A Memorandum, prepared for the Commission by Sir Frederick Pollock, shows the existing position of the statutory law with reference to arbitration in trade disputes. This Memorandum is printed as Appendix III. to this Report. He points out that in the result of the various Acts which he mentions "employers and workmen "can practically, whenever they think fit, create or adopt by agreement a special "tribunal, whose decisions will be binding in all trade disputes, and enforceable by "the special powers of the Act of Geo. IV." All this machinery, however, in spite of the frequent desire expressed in favour of enforceable arbitration, seems seldom, if ever, to have been put in motion. In fact, it may be gathered that very few people are aware of the existence of these laws, perhaps for the reason that it has not come within the province of any public authority to call attention to them, or because they did not prove suitable to actual requirements, or because, hitherto, employers and employed have preferred to settle their disputes in their own way without calling in extraneous authority.

Chief points in this legislation.

155. The chief points to be observed with regard to this legislation are—(1) that the Act of 5 Geo. IV. c. 96, passed in the year 1824, and amended in details in the year 1837, includes provisions for the purpose of enforcing the awards of the industrial tribunals contemplated in that Act, by distress or imprisonment; (2) that these same powers are extended by the Act of 1867 to the awards of the "equitable councils of conciliation or arbitration" contemplated in that Act; (3) that the Acts of 1824 and 1867 expressly excluded the proposed tribunals from establishing "a rate of "wages or price of labour or workmanship at which the workmen shall in future be "paid, unless with the mutual consent of both master and workmen;" (4) that the Acts of 1824 and 1867, together with the "Arbitration (Masters and Workmen) Act, 1872," appear to have been complete failures.

Mr. Boulton's suggestion.

156. The typical joint trade council of employers and workmen contemplated by the Act of 1867, was evidently intended to correspond in form to the voluntary councils of conciliation, some of which were at that date beginning to come into existence. But it does not appear that a single application has been made under that Act to the Home Secretary for the licence which would confer upon such councils, if properly constituted, the power of enforcing their awards. Mr. Boulton, the president of the London Conciliation Board, expressed the opinion that the Act of 1867 had failed because it attempted to lay down restrictive regulations as to the constitution of the proposed industrial tribunals, and that the Act of 1872 had failed because it was too vague and did not contemplate existing concrete bodies. He suggested that future legislation might be more successful if it facilitated the acquisition of certain legal powers by boards of conciliation or arbitration already existing, or to be formed and fulfilling certain simple conditions.

Proposals for State Boards.

157. Some witnesses desired to see the establishment of boards of arbitration appointed wholly or partly by the State. The form of State Board usually suggested is that of assessors taken equally from the employers and workmen of a trade or district, together with an official with a deciding vote appointed by Government. Other witnesses desired to limit the function of the State to the appointment, upon the application of either party or upon its own initiative, of an official to hold local inquiries and make special investigation upon the occasion of any trade dispute, with a view to a report which should guide public opinion into the right direction, and bring it to bear against the side in fault.

Mr. Mundella's Bill

158. A Bill "to make provision for conciliation and arbitration in labour disputes" was brought into the House of Commons in the Session of 1893 by the President of the Board of Trade on behalf of the Government.* This Bill provides that "Where a difference exists, or is apprehended between an employer, or any class of employers, and workmen, or between different classes of workmen," the Board of Trade may, "on the application of any of the employers or workmen appoint a person or persons to act as conciliator or as a board of conciliation." The Bill further proposes to give the Board of Trade power, in cases where it may seem desirable, to take the initiative in aiding by advice and local inquiries the establishment of boards of conciliation in any district or trade. It also provides that any board of this kind established either before or after the passing of the Act, may apply to the Board of Trade for registration. It is not proposed in this Bill that any board should, through such registration, acquire any powers of summoning witnesses, examining documents or enforcing awards, but, upon registration, it would become the duty of every such board to furnish such returns and reports of its proceedings as the Board of Trade should require.

Sir John Lubbock's Bill.

159. Another Bill of a more elaborate kind was introduced in the same session by Sir John Lubbock, Mr. Charles Fenwick, Mr. Howell, Mr. Mather, Mr. Montagu, Sir Francis Powell, and Sir Albert Rollit, and is supported by the London Conciliation Board, which represents the views of a considerable number of employers and workmen in the Metropolis. This Bill provides that any board of conciliation and arbitration established either before or after the passing of the Act, and consisting of an equal number of representatives of employers and employed, may apply to the Board of Trade for registration. The effect of registration would be to confer upon any conciliation board, and arbitrator or umpire appointed under the Act, the power, in proceedings under the Act, to examine witnesses on oath. The Bill also contains means by which witnesses and documents may be legally brought before the proposed boards of conciliation; but no person is to be compelled to produce any document which he could not be compelled to produce on the trial of an action, nor to produce the books or accounts of any trade union, nor to answer any question as to profit or loss which he objects to answer. The following clauses of the Bill are important, and may be quoted textually, viz.:—

"Where the parties to any labour or trade dispute arising out of an existing "agreement, enforceable at law, have agreed in writing to submit the matters to "arbitration under this Act, the award on such submission shall be final, and may, by "leave of the High Court or a Judge be enforced in the same manner as a judgment "or order of the High Court to the same effect: provided always, that nothing in this "Act shall be taken to authorise a conciliation board, or any arbitrators or umpire, to "fix compulsorily a rate of future wages, or price of labour or workmanship, at which "the workmen shall in future be paid, save as herein-after provided." (Clause 12.)

"If both or all the parties to any labour or trade dispute have agreed, in writing, "to submit to arbitration under this Act any question dealing with the rate of future "wages, or price of labour or workmanship, and have each voluntarily deposited with "the conciliation board a sum of money or satisfactory security for a sum of money, to "be forfeited as a penalty by such party if he breaks the award when made, the board or "arbitrators or umpire may insert in the award a clause providing that such penalty shall, "in the event of breach of the award by either party, be paid over to the other party, "and such penalty, if incurred, may be recovered in a summary manner." (Clause 13.)

This proposal appears to be open to the criticism, among others, that if a small section of the workmen or employers, who through their representatives had submitted

* Copies of this Bill and of Mr. Mundella's Conciliation Bill of 1894 are printed as Appendix IV. to this Report.

to an arbitration, subsequently refused to submit to the award, it would be difficult to say whether this amounted to a breach of the award by the whole body party to the arrangement, entitling the other party to recover the sum deposited, or part of it.

The schedule to this Bill contains directions for procedure in cases where parties to a labour dispute have invoked or agreed to accept the intervention of a conciliation board. Endeavour is, in the first instance, to be made to bring the parties to agree by way of conciliation, and, if that fails, to induce them to agree in writing to submit the matters in dispute to arbitration. The schedule contains directions as to the mode in which arbitrators, equally representing employers and workmen, shall be appointed, and for the appointment of an umpire, if the arbitrators fail to agree.

Foreign and Colonial information Voluntary methods.

160. Information has been collected on behalf of the Commission with regard to the subject (among many others) of conciliation and arbitration in the colonies and foreign countries. This information, together with the text of various legislative measures and proposals, will be found fully set forth in the Colonial and Foreign Reports which have been published, but it has been thought convenient to print, at Appendix V. to this part of the Report, a special paper, drawn up by the Secretary, dealing concisely with methods of conciliation and arbitration as practised in other countries. The general result of this information would appear to be that purely voluntary institutions for these purposes, quite independent of State action, are in most countries, and perhaps in all, more rare than they are in this country. The reason of this appears to be in some countries the weakness, from one cause or another, of industrial organisations on either side; in other countries the depth of the social or political divisions by which classes are separated. On the whole it may probably be said with justice that, partial as the success of such methods has been in the United Kingdom, they have had there greater success than in any other country of industrial importance.

Legal methods.

161. It will be seen that in France, where the "Conseils de Prud'hommes" have had a long and successful history, and in other countries which have followed this example, boards composed of employers and workmen, and invested by the State with compulsory judicial powers in the case of small claims arising out of the interpretation of existing agreements, have acted usefully in settling questions of this kind. Recent legislation has been directed in France, Belgium, and Germany towards the establishment of methods and institutions for dealing with the collective disputes relating to the re-settling or alteration of wage-rates, or other matters of general importance, which are the most usual and serious causes of strikes. In several of the American States laws have been passed authorising the formation of boards of conciliation and arbitration, two of which at least, those of New York and Massachusetts, seem to have done work of a useful kind. It does not, however, appear that either on the European Continent or in the United States means have yet been devised for the compulsory substitution of resort to arbitration for strikes and lock-outs, or for the enforcement of awards in collective disputes against those who are unwilling to accept them, or for legal recognition of collective industrial agreements made between organised bodies of employers and workmen.* Various proposals of a wider range have been made in the Australasian colonies, in which trade organisations are strong, with a view to the prevention or settlement of trade disputes. The New South Wales Act of 1891, which was made after an inquiry held in 1890 by a Royal Commission on strikes, appears, however, to be the only instance of a large measure of actual legislation on the matter.

* The Secretary states in his Report on the Labour Question in France (*see* page 33) that it was decided by the Tribunal of Commerce for the Seine, on February 4th, 1892, that "all agreements entered into "between employers and their syndicated workers for determination of the conditions of labour constitute a "veritable contract, for the observance of which employers may be legally held responsible, and the execution "of which may, if necessary, be ordered under compulsion."

In France trade associations (*syndicats*) formed in accordance with the law of 1884 possess legal personality, and can sue and be sued.

V.

LIMITATION OF HOURS OF WORK BY LEGISLATION.

1. General Views.
2. A Universal Eight Hours Day.
3. Arguments of a General Character for and against the principle of Legal Restriction.
4. Trade Option, District Option, and Trade Exemption.
5. Arguments for and against Special Legislation dealing with the Hours of Work in Special Industries.

1.—General Views.

Definition.

162. The title of the "eight hours day" is that which is usually given to the movement for legislative reduction of hours of labour. Its advocates do not, however, necessarily mean that an eight hours day is a final ideal as to the length of the working day. Reduction of the normal standard of hours of labour has always been one of the leading objects of trade unions; the aim of the modern movement is the attainment of this end by legislation. The working classes are as yet by no means unanimous as to the superiority of legislative over voluntary action in this matter; but to judge by the history of trade union congresses and other indications, the party of legislative intervention has been steadily gaining ground during recent years. It is, however, true that, whilst the ratio of those voting against has decreased at trade union congresses, the experience of the last three congresses has shown a remarkable increase in the proportion of those not voting at all to those voting for and against this intervention.*

Distinction between universal and partial restriction.

163. A broad distinction is to be drawn, within the sphere of legislative action, between a limitation of hours of labour imposed on all trades alike, and one of which the operation is partial and selective, and admits of different trades being differently treated. In the case of voluntary action this distinction does not arise, because voluntary action by its very nature operates partially, and cannot affect all trades simultaneously and uniformly.

Forms of proposals.

164. The typical form of the proposal for universal legislative restriction is the absolute prohibition, extending to every trade, and admitting of no exception for overtime even at extra pay, of all labour beyond eight hours a day, or a total of 48 hours a week.

165. Proposals for partial legislative restriction are either (1) general in scope though permissive in application, empowering each trade to decide the question of hours for itself, such decision to be legally binding on all engaged in the trade; or, (2) special, dealing with individual industries by special enactment.

166. Under the former head may properly be included not only "trade option," which would leave the initiative in reducing hours to be taken by each trade (or, as some suggest, trade-district) for itself, but also what is known as "trade exemption," where a general standard of hours is established by law, with permission to any trade to claim exemption from it. In both cases the essential point is that the number of hours which it is lawful to work in any trade is ultimately left to be decided according to the wishes of a majority in the trade itself.

* Congress, where held.	Year.	For Legislative Intervention.	Against Legislative Intervention.	Neutral.
Liverpool	1890	193	155	109
Newcastle	1891	285	183	84
Glasgow	1892	205	155	135
Belfast	1893	97	18	265

2.—A Universal Eight Hours Day.

167. It may, perhaps, be collected from the evidence that legislation enacting an universal legal day of labour for all occupations is not considered by many persons to be within the range of practical politics. Most of the witnesses who expressed themselves, in a general way, as in favour of legal limitation of hours, admitted that it was not possible, at present, to go further than the method of trade option, or, at furthest, of trade exemption.

168. This is what might naturally be expected, in view of the fact that the working classes themselves are far from unanimous in demanding an eight hours day, and that in many employments it would be obviously impracticable, or at least excessively inconvenient, *e.g.*, agriculture, seafaring, and domestic employment. Assuming that an eight hours day could be enforced universally, and with advantage to the community, the proposal to enforce it by direct enactment would no doubt have the merits of simplicity and of thoroughness. On the other hand a uniform limitation of hours, extending over the whole range of industry, is open to formidable objections, from which the methods of partial restriction are by comparison free. There must always exist a presumption against imposing artificial unifromity of conditions on industries in their nature utterly dissimilar.

169. Trades differ endlessly in their circumstances. Some are healthy; others more or less unhealthy. In some, the labour is severe; in others, light. In some, work is continuous; in others, intermittent. In some, the chief strain is on the attention; in others, on the physical powers. In some, the hours must be practically the same for all the men employed; in others, there is room for variety. Some trades depend on seasons or on fashions, or on the weather; others are more regular. In some, it may be practicable to work on the shift system; in others, not. In some, reduction of hours may lead to more men being employed; in others, to fewer. In some, it may involve diminution of output, and therewith increased cost of production; in others, counteracting influences may prevent such results from following. In some industries the increased cost may be in large part shifted on to the consumer; in others, it will be a tax, at all events at first, on profits, or on wages, or on both; in others, it will check demand and injure consumer, employer, and workman alike. In some, wages may be the chief item in the cost of production; in others, expenditure on plant or on raw material. Some have foreign competition to reckon with; others not so. Some trades necessitate processes which cannot be brought to an end at the stroke of the clock; in others there is no such difficulty.

170. These considerations (which might be easily multiplied) are sufficient to show how serious are the objections which any legal enactment establishing a uniform limit of hours for all employments would necessarily have to encounter.

171. Many of the arguments put forward by witnesses in support of legal limitation of hours (even by those who did not hesitate to favour uniformity enforced by direct enactment) apply in the first instance to limitation of hours in particular trades or classes of trades. There is, however, one economical argument of a general character, of which mention may be made here, not only because of the influence which it appeared to have with more than one important leader of working-class opinion, but also because, if it be valid in its most general form, it would really go far to justify legal restriction of hours in all trades to a maximum of eight or even less.

172. The interests of the working classes, it was argued, will not suffer from a reduction of the hours of labour. The result of such a reduction will be, either to diminish or not to diminish output (or service rendered) per man. In the latter case no one will lose, while the workman will gain in additional leisure. In the former case the cost of production will be increased, but the loss will not fall on the workman. It will fall either on the consumer, who will have to pay a higher price for the commodity, or on the employer, who will be obliged to employ more hands, and who will be unable to recoup himself by reducing wages, because the absorption of the unemployed will relieve the competition of the labour market.

173. The soundness of this reasoning was contested by other witnesses, who urged that the working classes are consumers as well as producers, that work alone can

create a demand for work, that any serious encroachment on profits and interest would tend to drive capital away from the country, and that, even if it be granted, for the sake of argument, that an eight hours day would at the outset have the effect of absorbing the unemployed, the evil of want of employment would before long recur, whereas the remedy of successive reductions of hours is one that would rapidly be exhausted.

This and some additional arguments are set out more at length in the statement which follows.

3.—Arguments of a General Character for and against the Principle of Legal Restriction.

174. If the proposal to establish a universal eight hours day may be dismissed as impracticable, the general considerations that remain in favour of or against the principle of legal restriction can be most conveniently set forth in immediate connection with the proposal that the Legislature should sanction the hours of work fixed in each trade by a binding decision of the trade itself. These general considerations can, of course, also be given a special application, and in that form may be used as arguments for or against the limitation of hours in this or that particular industry by special enactment.

175. In favour of intervention by the Legislature the chief arguments put forward were as follows:— General arguments in support of the principle of legal restriction.

(1.) The proposal to enforce a legal limit on the hours of adult male labour is not without precedent in our legislation. Such limitation was not indeed directly, but practically the result of the Factory Acts in the case of men employed in factories. There are also many precedents in the case of much older legislation. Generally, it is urged that it is not necessary to look for precedents, inasmuch as the collective activity of the nation has advanced, is advancing, and ought to advance. Precedents.

(2.) In many industries the hours are still so long as to be injurious to health. Even if this does not affect the health of the present generation of workers, it may injure that of the next. In some industries long hours are a source of danger to the men employed and to the public. In any case the working classes should have additional opportunities for recreation, for self-improvement, and for the fuller realisation of family life. Hours now worked excessive.

(3.) The economic dangers which some apprehend would result from fixing a legal limit to the hours of labour over the heads of the employers have been greatly exaggerated by the supporters of the existing system. Economic considerations.

(*a.*) To diminish the hours of work in any trade is not necessarily to diminish production. Experience shows that in many industries reduction of hours is consistent with maintenance, and even increase of output, and consequently that in those trades the same number of men working shorter hours can earn at least as much as when they worked longer hours. This result may be due either to the men working harder during the shorter hours and wasting less time, or to the employer under stress of competition introducing improvements in machinery, or in the organisation of work.

(*b.*) In the case of other industries, such as railways and tramways, and perhaps certain producing trades, it is admitted that, if wages are to remain the same, diminished hours would increase the cost. But here the general economic argument, to which reference has already been made in connection with the proposal for a universal eight hours day, may be applied to the case of each particular industry. In some trades the increased cost can be shifted on to the public, especially where the commodity is one necessarily in demand, and where anything in the nature of a monopoly exists. When the public cannot be made to pay more, it does not follow that the industry will suffer. The loss will probably fall upon profits, which in most trades are able to bear this additional burden without any risk of diminishing employment, checking enterprise, or driving capital away. Demand remaining the same, more hands will have to be employed. This will absorb the unemployed, ease the competition of the labour market, and have the effect of maintaining, if not of raising, wages all round. Men who are now a mere burden on the rates or on the funds of their trade union will

thus be enabled to "create value," and being in receipt of regular wages will add to the regular and steady demand for goods in the country.

(*c.*) Experience shows that increased wages and diminished hours do not injure our foreign trade in the international competition, for that trade has increased *pari passu* with improvement in the condition of the working classes in both these respects.

Uniformity within limits of a trade desirable.

(4.) The acknowledged drawback to a legal eight hours day for all trades is its want of adaptability to different and varying circumstances. The method of trade vote meets this difficulty by leaving to each trade liberty of decision for itself.* There may be differences of opinion as to the precise degree of liberty to be accorded; but it might be made to extend so far as to allow a trade to fix its own hours at any daily number or average daily number it thought fit, and if the experiment proved a failure, to repair its mistake by the simple process of rescinding the vote.

No doubt within the trade (or within the particular trade-district, if local voting were adopted) the operation of a trade-vote restricting the hours of work must be rigid and uniform. But in this case uniformity brings with it more advantages than disadvantages.

(*a.*) Long hours proceed from the competition of employer with employer in the same trade. Employers ought to be prevented from competing in this way at the expense of their workmen. If this were done, work would become more steady, continuous, and regular. The total demand for the produce would remain the same, while production would necessarily be spread out over longer periods. Alternations of rapid production and slack production would be avoided, and consequently those periods of overwork and underwork that are so pernicious to the working classes.

(*b.*) Again, it is desirable to divide work and wages more equally among workmen. At present the physically stronger and more energetic man gets an unfairly large share at the expense of his weaker brethren, by working unduly long hours. A uniform limit in each trade would prevent this.

(*c.*) Some witnesses were of opinion that it is desirable, in the interests of "fair competition," to insist on uniformity even as between one trade-district and another, and were, therefore, hostile to any proposal for giving each district the power of independent decision.

Superior efficacy of legislative intervention.

(5.) The question of hours should be settled by legislative intervention rather than by negotiations between employers and employed:

(*a.*) Because it would be quicker done.

(*b.*) Because negotiations with employers commonly imply a struggle. Strikes are a bad and costly method. A strike is "equivalent to private war, a "mere relic of barbarism, costly and even dangerous to the nation in its "operation."

(*c.*) Because experience shows that in the matter of hours trade unions are too weak to cope with employers, and that the men lose in hard times the advantages they gain in good times.

(*d.*) Because only a small proportion of the working classes belong to trade unions, and because it is precisely those workers who are most injured by long hours who have the greatest natural difficulties in combining to obtain a reduction.

Arguments in opposition to the principle of legal restriction.

176. In opposition to these arguments, and in favour of adhering to the present system of fixing the hours of labour by voluntary arrangement between employers and employed, the following considerations were urged:—

(1.) The Legislature ought not to interfere with the liberty of adult workmen, nor, without special cause shown, to intervene between adult workmen and their employers. Previous factory legislation with regard to the hours of women and children, or boys working underground, is no precedent, and the example of more ancient precedents is one rather to be avoided than to be followed.

Precedents.

Health in connection with hours of labour.

(2.) The present hours in the great majority of trades are not so long as to injure health. Health might be more injured by the strain of working at increased speed and pressure in reduced hours, and by the possible reduction of meal

* The word "trade" is examined (*post* paragraph 181), but it may be considered generally, for the purpose of argument, to mean the workmen in the trade.

times where the hours reckoned are not those of actual work, but the total number of hours from the time at which work begins to the time at which it ends.

Increased leisure would be a boon to the working classes, the value of which will not be disputed; but in the majority of trades this boon might be too dearly purchased. No doubt if it can be shown that, owing to the peculiar conditions of any industry, the long hours worked in it are a source of danger to the public, or prejudicial to the health or the safety of the employed, a case may be made out for special enactment dealing with such industry. But that is a very different matter from giving legal sanction to the vote of any trade, a majority in which may desire to work shorter hours. Any such cases ought to be considered on their special merits, and dealt with, if at all, on grounds of public and general expediency, after full discussion in Parliament.

Economic considerations.

(3.) Limitation of hours imposed by trade-vote would threaten serious injury to the industries of the country, and through them to every class in the community. To adopt such a system would be to take a matter of vital moment to the successful conduct of a business out of the hands of those who alone are in a position to understand the conditions on which its successful conduct depends. The economic arguments used on the other side are in some cases fallacious, in others incomplete.

(*a.*) In some trades, chiefly those in which little machinery is used, it might be that reduction of hours would not diminish the output, and in those trades in which much machinery and other plant is used the output might be actually increased and its proportionate cost diminished by a shortening of hours, without a lowering of wages, where two shifts could be worked instead of one. In most trades during the last 50 years hours have, as a matter of fact, been reduced gradually, while at the same time the output per man has been maintained, and, in some cases, even greatly increased. During the same period wages have advanced. But it is a mistake, speaking generally, to infer any *causal* relation between diminished hours and increased output, or between diminished hours and increased wages. All these things are in the main effects of the same causes, viz., the improvements of machinery and other perfecting of modes of production, the diminution in the rate of profits which has been the natural result of the great increase in capital and business ability competing for the assistance of labour in production, and the expansion of markets for produce. In consequence of this, workmen have been able to produce and consequently earn more with less work than formerly. Employers have gradually, now in one trade and now in another, been able to concede higher wages and diminished hours, as the improving circumstances of each trade allowed them to do so. It does not follow that because such increase of wages and diminution of hours have been found possible in a period of improving machinery, growing population, and expanding commerce, it would be equally possible during a period in which mechanical invention may for the time be exhausted, population at home cease to grow, the competition of foreigners increase, and our own foreign trade, so far from expanding, contract. The present system of negotiations, and even contests, between employers and workpeople in each trade tests the possibility of concessions. Where an eight hours day is economically harmless it will come of itself; where it is economically injurious (and in judging this the employers must have some weight) it is probably undesirable.

(*b.*) When reduced hours mean diminished output, it is vain to suppose that the loss can be thrown on the public or on the employers without prejudicially affecting the working classes, both directly and indirectly. The working classes are consumers as well as producers; and if they have to pay a higher price for what they consume, this is tantamount to a reduction in the rate of real wages. In some favoured trades the worker might, at all events for a time, gain more as worker than he would lose as consumer. But if Parliament were to help the workers in any particular trade to this result, by giving the force of law to a vote of the majority in the trade, Parliament would be in effect assisting a section of the community to vote itself the proceeds of a tax laid on the community at large or on the allied

industries. When the public cannot be made to pay more the industry itself must eventually suffer. Increased cost of production may be thrown on the employers when there is a margin of profit that will bear it, and the existence of a large fixed capital will often induce employers to carry on operations for a time even at a loss. But an attempt to encroach on profits and interest throughout a trade must end in slackening the supply, if not in causing the withdrawal of the capital which it barely pays to utilise for the purpose of employing labour at the present rates of interest, in checking enterprise, and in augmenting the number of the unemployed. It is work which creates demand for work, and diminished production cannot cause any general absorption of the unemployed without either trenching on the wages of those employed already or diminishing the rate of profits and interest to an extent that will recoil on the working classes themselves.

(*c.*) Foreign competition is likely to grow more formidable rather than less so, because it is not in the nature of things that we should be able to maintain that lead among the nations of the world which various circumstances united to give us at the beginning of the great manufacturing era. No safe inference can be drawn as to the future from the fact that in the past our foreign trade has continued to increase along with increased wages and diminished hours. Such an argument takes no account of all the manifold causes which have combined to determine our prosperity, both absolutely and relatively to that of our competitors abroad; nor does it take account of the fact that a great part of the increase of our foreign trade indicates a growing dependence on other countries for food and raw material, including such things as wool, wood, and iron ore, of which we once had abundant supplies of our own.

Effects of uniform restriction within the limits of a trade.

(4.) The extreme inelasticity of a universal eight hours day is avoided by the trade-vote system, so far as regards the differences between different industries. Nevertheless, within the confines of a trade (or trade-district, as the case may be), it would still have the effect of establishing a rigid uniformity that would in many cases work both injury to the trade and injustice to individuals.

As regards different trade-districts, the danger has been realised, and a division of opinion created, even among ardent advocates of legislative intervention. Hence the proposal of district option in place of trade option. The conditions under which certain industries are carried on, whether in respect of natural advantages or of methods of working, differ so widely in different parts of the country, that enforced uniformity of hours might in one district prove the destruction of the industry to the advantage of those very competing districts by whose votes the reduction of hours had been carried.

Similar inequalities may also exist between different establishments, even in the same district. It may easily happen for instance, that one coal mine can be profitably worked with an eight hours day from bank to bank, whereas another in the same neighbourhood would, under like conditions, have to be closed. A hard-and-fast limit of hours might be fatal to young and rising businesses trying to make their way against the competition of old-established and powerful businesses.

(*a.*) As regards the supposed effect on the fluctuations of trade, it is, in the first place, rash to assume that a trade could be successfully carried on in which supply was prevented from accommodating itself to the natural fluctuations of demand. But apart from this, in a manufacturing country like Great Britain, the dominant causes of fluctuation of industry, and consequently of employment, are the alternations of credit and want of confidence in the world of commerce. In a time of commercial confidence, when trade is lively, there are not many workmen out of employment. In times of commercial depression it is impossible to find employment for the same number of workmen. Even, therefore, if hours were reduced, the result would not be to find continuous employment in all times for all men.

(*b.*) A more equal division of work and wages among their own members is a well-known object of trade unions. Whether it would be a gain to the community to promote this object by empowering a majority in the trade to fix a rigid limit of hours beyond which no man may work without subjecting

himself and his employer to legal penalties, is, to say the least of it, doubtful. Such a system would severely handicap the slower workman, who would be prevented from making up in time for what he loses in speed; it would deprive the strong and energetic workman of the advantages with which nature has gifted him; it would operate with great harshness in the many cases where a temporary increase of earnings may be of urgent importance to a working man, and overtime his only means of obtaining it.

Examination of the superior efficacy claimed for legislative intervention.

(5.) (*a.*) Reduction of hours by a legally-binding vote of the trade, or by legislative intervention in any other form, may be speedier, and yet less satisfactory in the end, than if brought about by negotiation between employers and employed. A reduction forced on employers at a time when it is economically inexpedient by men who are probably not in possession of the essential facts of the case, can hardly be otherwise than injurious to the workmen themselves. But the harm may have been done before they find this out.

(*b.*) Conflicts turning virtually on the question of hours would not necessarily be obviated by removing it from among the matters at present left to mutual arrangement between the parties. It is possible that, if hours were reduced by a trade-vote, the employers would reply by giving notice of a reduction of wages; and a conflict might ensue, fought, avowedly, on the question of wages, but practically involving the question of hours.

(*c.*) No good reason has been adduced for legislative interference with the hours of work in the generality of trades which would not equally apply to the case of wages. It is true that the workers are liable to lose in bad times what they have gained in good times. But this is not more true of reduction of hours than of increase of wages. As regards the skilled trades, it is less true. Reduction of hours is, in fact, a form of increased pay. The working-day is decidedly shorter in most industries than it was 50 years ago; and if the working classes are beginning to attach a greater relative importance to short hours than to high wages, there is every reason to suppose that the reduction of hours will proceed more quickly in the future than it has in the past, unless our commercial prosperity suffers a check.

(*d.*) The argument for legislative intervention drawn from the large proportion and comparative helplessness of the unorganised workers cannot be urged in support of a decision by trade-vote without raising the question of the machinery by which such decision is to be ascertained. It would probably be found that the difficulty of arriving at the decision of a real majority of those engaged in a trade, as well as the difficulty of enforcing it when arrived at, would render the system almost unworkable in the case of an industry where there existed little or no organisation among the workers. Indeed, the practical difficulties which, as will presently appear, beset every variety of the trade-vote system, were considered by some witnesses to be so serious as of themselves to present an insuperable obstacle to its adoption.

4.—Trade Option, District Option, and Trade Exemption.

Comparison of trade option with trade exemption.

177. The difference between trade option and trade exemption has already been indicated. Under a system of trade option the presumption would be in favour of leaving the working-day to be determined, as at present, by agreement; under a system of trade exemption it would be in favour of a standard of hours laid down by law (generally assumed to be an eight hours day), and any trade objecting to that standard would be required to protest by a formal vote, in order to be exempted from the operation of the Act.

178. The principle of exemption has been adopted by decisive majorities at successive meetings of the Trade Union Congress in preference to that of option. The former is more drastic than the latter, not only because of the presumption in favour of the legal standard which it carries with it, but also because, where little or no organisation existed, a trade would probably find a difficulty in making its voice heard, and silence would be interpreted as consent to shorter hours, contrary, perhaps, to the real desire of a majority of those engaged in the trade. Indeed, the form of exemption approved by the Trade Union Congress confines the right of protest to the organised workers in each case. Where, therefore, there was no organisation there could be no protest, and no exemption from the standard established by law.

Ditto.

179. Trade exemption is also more rigid than trade option. Its supporters take it for granted that the legal standard would be fixed at a maximum of eight hours a day, or 48 hours a week; and their idea seems to be that a trade should either acquiesce in this standard or else elect for exemption, and thereby lose all claim to have its hours of work fixed otherwise than by voluntary arrangement between employers and employed. This is not a logical necessity of the system, but it is probably the most natural form for it to take—"either an eight hours day, or else no help from the law." Trade option, on the other hand, would naturally tend to a greater degree of latitude; though, again, not of logical necessity. For instance, Mr. Mann's scheme, presently to be mentioned, is one of trade option, and even district option, yet it is as rigid as trade exemption in allowing no legally-binding day beyond eight hours, and even more rigid in that it deliberately withholds permission from any trade which has voted itself an eight hours day, to go back upon its decision. Still these restrictions seem alien to the spirit of trade option, which, as compared with trade exemption, may be regarded as lending itself to somewhat greater variety, elasticity, and freedom. It is probably on this account that the modification of trade option referred to in this Report as district option, which gives yet greater latitude by allowing particular districts of a trade to dissociate themselves from the action of the trade generally, has found a considerable number of supporters, while its possible counterpart, district exemption, has had few, if any, advocates.

180. In regard to all these proposals, trade option, district option, and trade exemption, two questions immediately arise: First, how is a trade to be defined; and secondly, how, when defined, is its collective decision to be ascertained?

How is a trade to be defined?

181. The practical difficulty in the way of defining a trade was very strongly put by Mr. Giffen, who spoke from experience gained in the preparation of official wages statistics. Is a "trade" to consist for legal purposes of a group of trades allied together in one large industry, or is each of these trades to be treated as an independent unit? Take, for instance, the cotton manufacture; that is really "not one trade but "50, and as to the woollen manufacture, it is not one trade, but perhaps a hundred "or more." Similar divisions exist within the shipbuilding industry, the engineering industry, the mining industry, the printing and publishing industry, and many others. In some cases these great industrial groups overlap each other, so that the same workman may belong to more than one. The same group will generally include bodies of unskilled workmen as well as bodies of skilled workmen. An Act of Parliament giving legal effect to a trade-vote would, of course, have to lay down an accurate definition of the limits of each trade. If the unit is to be a group of trades, perhaps with widely divergent conditions, interests, desires, and necessities, a trade vote that imposed uniformity in the hours of work on all alike would be open to much the same objections as those which are urged against a universal eight hours day. Another consequence would be that the vote of the skilled branches of the industry might be entirely swamped by the numerical superiority of the unskilled.

182. If, on the other hand, each branch was constituted an independent unit, great complication would result, and perhaps when various branches were working together within the same establishment, most serious embarrassment. Moreover, the various trades that go to make up a single great industrial group are mutually interdependent as regards division of the proceeds; and if one branch contrives to secure more than its share, the others must be content with less. Under the present system the different claims are adjusted by the play of free forces, not always with a result ideally satisfactory, but still in accordance with a kind of rough natural justice. A new element is brought in if the power of the State can be invoked to give the force of law to a trade-vote fixing the hours of work for one member of a group. Such a vote would in most cases have some economic effect upon the other members of the group, and if this were fully understood it might easily come to be resented as unfair.

183. If the system of district option were adopted, the law would not only have to define the extent of a trade, but also to provide for the delimitation of boundaries, either directly, or indirectly by vote of the workers concerned. In some cases this would not be difficult; in other cases the divisions would inevitably be more or less arbitrary.

How is the decision of a trade to be ascertained?

184. With regard to the manner in which the decision of a trade is to be ascertained, most of the witnesses on the side of the employed seemed to assume that any vote taken on the question of hours should be the vote of the workmen only, exclusive of the employers; or at least that the employer should only be included on the footing

of "one man one vote," which comes to much the same thing. An alternative suggestion was made that the consent of a majority of employers in the trade or district should be necessary as well as that of a majority of the employed; that is to say, that if a majority of employers and a majority of employed in a trade or district come to an agreement about the limitation of hours, such agreement should be made legally binding upon any minority of either. This proposal may certainly be described as a form of trade option, and it would meet some of the objections urged against trade option as commonly understood. But it does not appear to be viewed with any favour by the advocates of the movement, or to be, indeed, for a moment contemplated by most of them. There would seem to prevail among them a general opinion that employers will not, as a rule, consent to reduce the hours of work unless they are constrained to do so, and that consequently, to give them any voice in deciding upon a reduction of hours in any trade would render the legislation ineffectual and futile.

By the vote of whom?

185. Much greater difference of opinion was shown on the question whether the decision of a trade should be given by a vote of a majority of the organised workers engaged in it, or by a vote of the majority of all the adult workers of both sexes, whether belonging to a trade union or not.

Necessary machinery.

186. It would be no simple matter to set up the machinery required for carrying out the latter of these proposals. In the first place an accurate register would have to be made of every worker engaged in a trade. This register would need to be kept up to date with the same care that is bestowed on a parliamentary or municipal register. How difficult this would be in the case of unskilled labour, especially where there was much fluctuation of employment, will be readily acknowledged. Regulations would be required for the proper conduct of the voting, and provision might have to be made against bribery, undue influence, and intimidation.

187. If the voting was confined to the organised workers of each trade, these difficulties would be less serious, though still considerable. Such a proviso would, no doubt, also act as a stimulus to organisation, and an inducement to non-unionists to join the union. Accordingly the resolutions submitted at meetings of the Trade Union Congress, in favour of option and exemption respectively, alike embodied the principle of confining the right of voting to the organised members of each trade. But upon this the question arises, Is such an arrangement fair? A trade organisation often represents only a minority, and sometimes even a small minority, of the adult workers in the trade.

188. Again, if only the members of a trade organisation are to vote upon the question of reducing the hours of work, and their decision is to be valid for the whole trade, it will be necessary to have a legal definition of "organisation," such as to prevent any bogus or mushroom society that chose to register itself as a trade union from setting up as arbiter of the hours of labour in an otherwise unorganised industry.

189. The various points raised in the preceding paragraphs did not, as a rule, appear to have been fully considered by the witnesses who gave evidence in favour of restriction of hours by the method of trade-vote. They were willing to admit that difficulties existed, but fell back on the general principle, contending that the difficulties were not of a kind which the wisdom of Parliament was unequal to solving; and that, in any case, no imperfections in the solution could for a moment weigh against the pressing evils of the existing system.

Suggestions by Mr. Tom Mann.

190. Perhaps the most definite and detailed suggestions for legislation were those offered in the evidence given by Mr. Tom Mann, a member of the Commission (Evidence, Whole Commission, 2738):—

"(*a.*) That an Act be passed fixing the maximum working hours at eight hours a "day, or eight and a half for five days, and five and a half for the sixth "(or made up in such other method as may be agreed upon), but not to "exceed 48 hours a week, overtime to be a punishable offence, both for "employer and worker, except in cases of special emergency, such as 'break-"downs, &c.,' or in the case of agricultural labourers, when special provision "would be made for harvest time."

"(*b.*) That the administration of this Act shall be left with the county council, "town council, local board, or such other local authority as shall be clearly "specified by the Act."

"(*c.*) That it shall be left with the adult workers of either sex, engaged in any "trade or calling, to obtain the clearly expressed opinion of those engaged "in the trade as to whether or not they wish for the Act to be applied to "them, and that in the event of three-fifths being in favour of the same, "their request be sent to the local authority responsible for the administration "of the Act, which, being satisfied that the request is genuine, shall imme- "diately notify the employers in the district that the provisions of the Act "will be put in force at a date of three months from the time the application "was made to them by the workers."

Mr. Mann further stated in the course of his evidence that he was prepared to extend his scheme so as to combine district option with trade option, and also that he would not object to giving legal sanction to a variation in the seasonal distribution of working hours (say, for instance, 49 per week in summer and 47 in winter), provided the average throughout the year did not exceed 48 per week.

Observations on this plan.

191. It will be observed with regard to this plan—(1.) That the employers have no voice in the matter; (2.) That an eight hours day or forty-eight hours week is the maximum which could be made legal under the proposed Act, although there would be nothing to prevent the voting of a smaller number of hours; (3.) That Mr. Mann's proposal, as he subsequently explained to the Commission, does not contemplate provision for increasing hours, or returning to the old hours of work, in case the experiment of reducing hours should prove a failure; (4.) That though the local authority is entrusted with the administration of the Act, this apparently does not include the preparation of a register or the conduct of the voting, these matters being left to the adult workers, male and female, in each trade; (5.) That the decision arrived at by trade-vote requires confirmation by the local authority before it becomes legally binding, but so long as the genuine character of the vote is not in doubt the confirmation is merely formal. In connection with this last point, it is evident that if confirmation by some public authority, local or central, is required, and the confirmation is not to be merely formal, but may be given or withheld upon consideration of all the circumstances of the case, such an arrangement is nothing less than a power of veto on the decision of a trade. Some witnesses were prepared to see this power given into the hands of a suitable public authority; and a proposal put forward by Mr. Sidney Webb, to dispense altogether with the necessity for an elaborate trade-vote, and substitute for it an administrative order pure and simple, does but carry the same idea one step further.

Fixing of hours by administrative order.

192. Mr. Webb proposed that, with regard to strictly local services, such as tramways and shops, the local authorities should be enabled to fix such maximum of hours as they please. With regard to the more general trades, his plan was that the department charged with the administration of the Factory Acts should have power to fix the maximum hours of labour in any trade by order made after the result of full inquiry had convinced such department that such a limitation was in substantial accordance with the wishes of the trade, and was feasible in all the circumstances of the trade.

It is urged in favour of this scheme that a delegation of powers under the Factory Acts to municipal authorities in some cases, and a central Government department in others, would be as efficacious as decision by trade vote or trade exemption in saving the time of Parliament by relieving it from the applications now made to it for special Acts dealing with the hours of particular trades, while it would be in comparison less open to economic objections and less encumbered with practical difficulties.

It may perhaps be gathered from the evidence that, although this proposal might be welcomed by some workmen belonging to the less well-organised trades, it would probably meet with opposition from men belonging to some of the strong and well-organised industries, upon the ground that it gave too much power to an outside authority, and was therefore contrary to the principles upon which trade unions are founded and might in practice even injuriously affect their membership.

5.—Arguments for and against Special Legislation dealing with the Hours of Work in Special Industries.

Mines, railways, shops.

193. It remains to consider the proposals that have been put forward for dealing by special enactment with the hours of labour in particular industries. The most important of these proposals have relation to the hours worked in mines, on railways, and in shops.

The very different methods of treatment recommended by the advocates of legislative intervention in the case of these three industries respectively afford a remarkable illustration of the extreme difficulty of applying a uniform and inflexible system to all trades alike.

In the case of mines the proposal is for direct statutory limitation of hours to a maximum of eight a day from bank to bank. In that of railways, the obstacles opposed by the very conditions of the work to any absolute prohibition of overtime are seen to be so serious that it has been felt unwise to go beyond regulative control by a public department, to be exercised when it can be shown that the hours of work are unreasonably extended. In the case of shops, it seems to be acknowledged that mere limitation of hours, whether statutory or permissive, would be an imperfect method of dealing with the problem, and the proposal that finds most favour with the advocates of legal restriction is for the compulsory closing of all shops at a fixed hour, subject to local option exercised by a certain majority in each class of shops.

Hours in shops.

194. It is not intended in this Report to do more than refer cursorily to the question of limiting by law the hours worked in shops and on railways. With regard to the former, the evidence submitted to us was hardly sufficient to justify any definite conclusion. The subject is in some respects a peculiar one, raising issues not confined to the relations between employers and employed. Such information as was collected, by the Commission will be found in the Summary, Group C., Part II., paragraphs 453 to 457, and in the Report, drawn up by the Secretary, on the Conditions of Labour in the Colonies, pages 42–4. The experiment of early closing has been tried in Victoria, but with some difference of opinion as to results.

Hours of railway servants.

195. With respect to the hours of railway servants, in view of the fact that a special inquiry was being held by a Select Committee of the House of Commons on this subject, it did not appear to us to be necessary or desirable that we spend much time upon it. In pursuance of the recommendations of the Select Committee, the Railway Servants (Hours of Labour) Bill was passed through Parliament, and received the Royal Assent at the end of July 1893. This Act enables the Board of Trade to receive and inquire into complaints made by or on behalf of any servant, or any class of servants of a railway company, except those employed in clerical work or in railway workshops, to the effect that their hours of labour are excessive or do not provide sufficient intervals of uninterrupted rest between the periods of duty, or sufficient relief in respect to Sunday duty. The Board, if satisfied that there is reason in the complaint, is to order the railway company to submit, within a specified period, a schedule of time for the duty of the servants in question, so framed as to bring the hours within such reasonable limits as the Board shall approve, regard being had to all the circumstances of the traffic and the nature of the work performed. Should any railway company fail to submit the schedule when required, or to enforce the schedule when it is approved, the Board of Trade may refer the matter to the Railway and Canal Commissioners. These Commissioners will then hear the case and order the company to submit to them a schedule for their approval. If the company continue to make default, it may be fined at the rate of 100*l.* a day while the default continues.

Hours of labour in mines.

196. The question of restricting by law the hours of labour in mines calls for more detailed consideration here, not only on account of its intrinsic importance and the fact that a Bill dealing with it was read a second time in the House of Commons during the late session of Parliament (1893), but also because of the great mass of evidence bearing on the subject that was obtained by the Commission. This evidence would have been yet more complete had not the Miners' Federation (which embraces the great body of miners in Yorkshire, Lancashire, and the Midlands), alone among the great labour organisations of the country, declined to send representatives as witnesses before the Commission. That the Miners' Federation strongly supports a legal eight hours day for workers underground is well known, and we cannot but regret that we should have received no assistance from this important body in arriving at a conclusion on the questions submitted to us.

Miners (Hours of Work) Bill, 1893.

197. The Miners (Hours of Work) Bill, 1893, which passed a second reading in the House of Commons on the 3rd of May, proposes to enact that "a person shall not, in "any one day of twenty-four hours, be employed underground in any mine for a period "exceeding eight hours from the time of his leaving the surface of the ground to the "time of his ascent thereto, except in case of accident," and makes the employer or his agent, and not the workman, liable to penalty for contravention of this enactment.

In setting forth the arguments that have been urged for and against the principle of this Bill, it will not be necessary to repeat such as are generally applicable to legislative restriction of hours in the case of any other industry, except in so far as they assume some special aspect when applied to the case of mining.

The proposal to single out a particular trade for exceptional legislative treatment implies as its justification the existence of peculiar characteristics differentiating it from other employments. Thus the advocates of compulsory early closing rest their case upon the ground that the hours worked in shops are exceptionally long and injurious to health, and that the nature of the occupation makes it exceptionally difficult to secure shorter hours by voluntary effort. So again the movement in favour of State regulation of the hours worked by railway servants has always been defended on the ground that long hours in this service are a source of danger, both to the railway servants themselves and to the travelling public. Similarly the advocates of a legal eight hours day for miners rest their main argument on considerations of the health and safety of the men employed.

Arguments in favour of legal restriction of hours of miners.

198. Mining is confessedly an occupation exceptionally dangerous, disagreeable, and laborious; it is also alleged that the hours now worked make it exceptionally unhealthy. It was not contended by witnesses before the Commission that the hours of labour in mines are long as compared with those of other industries,* but only that they are unduly long, having regard to the character of the work; and that eight hours a day of labour underground, in an impure atmosphere, with the risk to which miners are exposed of catching chills in changing from the hot air of the mines to the cold and damp above, is as much as it is right to ask any man to work. Longer hours are (it is maintained) most injurious to health; they also increase the danger of a calling already dangerous enough. More accidents occur towards the end of a shift than at the beginning, simply in consequence of the hewers becoming over-tired.

In further justification of the demand for special treatment for workers underground, it is asserted that the miners have, by an unmistakeable majority, declared themselves in favour of an eight hours day by legal enactment, and in this respect stand or (if an exception is to be made with regard to the cotton operatives of Lancashire) stood, till lately, alone among the great industrial bodies of the Kingdom.

199. These are the main reasons of a positive kind advanced in favour of statutory restriction of the hours of labour in mines to a maximum of eight from bank to bank. The economical arguments put forward by most advocates of the measure are only ancillary to these, and are not so much reasons in favour of restrictive legislation as answers to economic objections urged on the other side.

Argument as to benefits from reduction of output.

200. It is, however, worthy of note that the representatives of the Lanarkshire and Ayrshire miners openly advocated an eight hours day on the express ground that it would have the effect of reducing output, and thereby give "better wages, a better price, and bigger profits," as well as provide work for the unemployed. This appeared to be with them a principal consideration, at least as important as any direct benefit to be derived from a shorter spell of work. There is some ground for suspecting that the views thus frankly expressed by the West of Scotland miners have, in reality, not been without influence on the miners' leaders in other districts also. For instance, it is often argued on behalf of the miners that only legislation can secure a uniform limit of hours throughout the country, and that uniformity is necessary in order to prevent the unfair competition of long-hour districts with short-hour districts. This argument assumes that districts continuing to work long hours would have an economic advantage over the districts which had adopted an eight hours' day; but it is hardly consistent with the official view put forward by the Miners' Federation at the Westminster Palace Hotel Conference (1891), that a reduction of hours would not diminish output, and therefore not increase the cost of production. Be that as it may, the evidence given before the Commission by witnesses representing the miners in districts other than the West of Scotland, and favourable to a legal eight hours day, certainly indicated that in their belief the output per man would be maintained in spite of reduced hours. The witness who appeared on behalf of the Merthyr and Aberdare district formed perhaps a solitary exception. In his opinion an eight hours

* Mr. Pickard, however, stated at the Conference at the Westminster Palace Hotel (1891) between coalowners and miners that the "hours which miners have to put in from the time they leave their homes to engage upon "their work in any shift are, on the average, longer than in any other trade or occupation in the country." (*See* Minutes of Evidence, Group A., Vol. I., Appendix XVI., page 485. For the actual average hours worked by the hewers in the different districts from bank to bank (in no case more than $9\frac{3}{4}$), or at the face, exclusive of meal times (in no case more than $8\frac{3}{4}$), see the table given in the Summaries of Evidence, Group A., Part I., paragraph 19 (*a*). It must be remembered that the hewers do not, as a rule, work the six days of the week.

day, from bank to bank, would ruin the industry in those valleys; he was therefore in favour of an eight hours *working* day instead.

Arguments as to maintenance of output.

201. In support of the view that the output per man would be maintained, it was represented—

(1.) That so much depends in this occupation upon actual physical energy, that a man could probably hew as much, by more concentrated work in a less time, as he now does in the longer hours.

(2.) That under a system of shorter hours a miner would work more regularly through the week, instead of, as is now usual, taking one day or two days off.

(3.) That legal reduction of hours, even if for the moment it resulted in diminished output, would probably lead to better organisation, to the introduction of improved machinery for extracting the coal, and to greater speed in winding it, so that the deficiency would speedily be made good.

Summary of arguments for legal restriction.

202. The case for limiting the hours of labour in mines by special enactment may be summed up thus:—Mining is an occupation exceptionally injurious to health, as well as dangerous to life and limb from accidents. Shorter hours would conduce to healthiness and diminish accidents. A legal eight hours day, from bank to bank, is asked for by an undoubted majority of those employed in the trade, and might be established without economic loss to anybody.

Arguments against legal restriction of hours of miners.

203. If it be true that a decided majority of the miners are in favour of statutory restriction of hours for underground labour, the employers, on the other hand, seem almost unanimously opposed to it. To the arguments used by the advocates of special legislation they reply, that the case in favour of exceptional treatment for miners breaks down on examination; that shorter hours are not required for health, and would not diminish, but rather tend to increase, the dangers of the occupation; that the majority of miners (if indeed they are a majority) who favour an eight hours day from bank to bank are mistaken as to its economic consequences; and that if they realised the true facts of the case, and the manner in which the proposed measure would affect them individually if strictly enforced, they would cease to demand legislation and prefer the safer, if slower, method of claiming through their union a reduction in the hours of work whenever the conditions of trade in any district was such as to allow of it. A similar line was also taken by one or two "independent" miners from the Midlands, and (speaking especially for their own district) by the representatives of the men of Northumberland and Durham.

Examination of arguments to health.

204. As regards the laborious and disagreeable character of a miner's work it was urged that this was common to other industries as well, for which no exceptional treatment was demanded. Considerations of health and safety might no doubt justify a legislative intervention; but mining was not an unhealthy occupation, and shorter hours would not increase safety.

The weight of evidence certainly seems to be against the idea that coal-mining is an unhealthy occupation, even when allowance is made for the probability that weakly men either avoid entering or soon abandon it. Dr. Ogle, who has given special attention to this subject, stated in his evidence that coal miners were among the healthiest set of men in all the trades he had examined, and that the same thing was found to hold good on the Continent also. In England and Wales, according to the witness, "the death rates of coal miners are surprisingly low. In spite of their "terrible liability to accident, and their constant exposure to an atmosphere vitiated "by coal dust, by foul air, and by an excessively high temperature, the comparative "mortality of these labourers is considerably below that of all trades; nor is this "only true of coal miners in the aggregate, but it is true, with one single exception, "of the miners in each great coal area, taken separately . . . the one exception "to the rule is furnished by South Wales and Monmouthshire . . . but even here, "if deaths from accidents be left out of account, the rule holds good; the "mortality of miners from all other causes together is below that of the general "male population." (Evidence, Whole Commission, 1683.)

As to accidents.

205. The contention that the larger proportion of accidents in mines occur during the later hours of the shift, and that therefore the increase must be due to the physical and mental exhaustion of the miner, also seems to fail when brought to the test of figures. The statistics of accidents, whether arising from explosions or from falls of roof and sides, cannot fairly be interpreted to indicate a preponderance of accidents

during the later portion of the shift. A good many witnesses indeed went so far as to say that the dangers of mining would be augmented rather than diminished by an eight hours day, because the hewers would be in such a hurry to get the full tale of coal in order to make up their usual wages, that they would be tempted to neglect the necessary repairs, and because the speed of winding was already at the limit of safety, and any increase might itself lead to accidents.

View of employers as to economic effects.

206. As for the economic effects of an eight hours day from bank to bank, a very general opinion was expressed on the part of the employers that the total output would, in most districts, be greatly reduced, chiefly as a result of the diminished hours for drawing and winding coal. The cost of production would be doubly increased, because, along with a reduced output there would have to be an increase in the permanent repairing staff. The result would probably be that some of the collieries which now work under least advantageous circumstances would have to be closed. Even if prices rose in the first instance, they would eventually fall again, partly in consequence of the natural re-action of high prices on the demand for fuel for our home industries, partly because high prices caused by an artificial increase in the cost of production confined to this country would give an advantage to foreign coalowners, who compete with us in foreign markets. A large measure of the loss must ultimately fall on the men's earnings, but it was difficult to make them believe this.

Evidence of "independent" witnesses.

207. A point especially insisted on by some witnesses from Derbyshire who were working miners, and two of them members of the union, though they appeared before the Commission in an independent capacity, was the ignorance of the miners as to the bearing of the proposed measure on their individual comfort and convenience. These witnesses declared that when the ballot was taken in that district on the question of a legal eight hours day, the men were confused as to the real issue, and did not understand that if the Bill became law they would be prevented from working a minute beyond the fixed hour or from working longer for their own sakes in busy times in order to make up for slack times. Men work in different ways and at different rates of speed according to their respective capacities and temperaments, and it would be unfair on the slower workman to prevent him by law from working longer hours in order to make up for lack of speed. Moreover, the conditions of coal-mining do not allow of stopping work at a given moment, *e.g.*, a hewer at the end of his day may see some necessary repair which he could do in 20 minutes, but which, if left to the next day, will take much longer.

Question of area of proposed restriction.

208. Another point remains to be considered. In support of a statutory eight hours day for miners, the following argument is often used:—Even the opponents of the movement (it is said) admit that eight hours of labour underground is as much as is desirable in every 24, and that an eight hour day secured by trade union effort would be a good thing. If it is a good thing when obtained by trade union effort how can it be a bad thing when secured by legislation?

This argument raises the important question, Is the proposed measure to be uniform in its operation and binding on all districts alike throughout the country, or is room to be allowed for local exemption? An eight hours day (it is urged) may be an excellent thing in the abstract, and yet but a doubtful boon if, in practice, it takes the shape of loss of employment for some and reduced earnings for others. It is a good thing when secured by combination, partly because it could not be so secured and maintained unless the state of the trade in the particular district admitted of it. A legal eight hours day is objectionable just because it allows no latitude and no exceptions. Coal-mining presents a range and variety of conditions such as can be found in few other industries. One stall differs in facility of working from another stall, one seam from another seam, one colliery from another colliery. To apply one same hard-and-fast rule to the very different conditions which obtain, even within the same district, would give rise to anomalies and hardships; but if it is proposed to force a fixed limit of working hours on all districts alike, the difficulties become still more serious. At present there is a natural adjustment of hours to different circumstances in different districts. If the Legislature interferes with the natural adjustment, it will benefit some districts at the expense of others.

Special objection in Durham and Northumberland. Division of opinion.

209. It is in Durham and Northumberland that this objection finds its strongest expression. These districts carry on the work of coal-mining on a system peculiar to themselves. The hours of the hewers from bank to bank are decidedly less than eight, and shorter than in most other districts, but the hours of the boys and lads amount to ten on a full working-day, though their work is, as a rule, comparatively light. The hewers work on a double shift system, which adjusts itself to a single

long shift of winders and drawers; and the representatives of the miners' unions emphatically assert that, if the hours of the latter are reduced to eight, it will upset the system with which they are contented, and that no other system is practicable consistently with maintaining the prosperity of the industry. This was denied by one independent witness from Northumberland, who placed a scheme of his own before the Commission.* The coalowners, however, confirm the view held by the great majority of the men, with the result that in these two counties employers and employed alike are opposed to a legislative reduction of hours. The men say they would gladly see the hours of the boys further diminished; but they maintain that, inasmuch as a lad working long hours at drawing, subsequently becomes a hewer and works on short shifts, the general effect of the system, looking at his whole career, is more advantageous to him than would be shorter hours for a few years with the risk of longer hours for the rest of his life, and that, as regards the workmen generally, an eight hours day by law would produce greater evils than it would remove.

210. Thus, at the present time, the great body of miners in the country is divided into two camps on the question of a legal eight hours day; nor does there seem any immediate prospect of a reconciliation, even on the basis of district option, seeing that the spokesman of the Miners' Federation has declared, on behalf of those whom he represents, that their object is "a uniform eight hours day for the underground toilers in the United Kingdom," and that anything less would be entirely unacceptable.†

VI.

IRREGULARITY OF EMPLOYMENT.

1. Causes of Irregularity of Employment.

2. Special Case of Riverside Labour in Port of London.

3. Proposals and Opinions with respect to Preventive Remedies of a General Character, including the Extension of Employment by Public Authorities.

1. Causes of Irregularity of Employment.

211. The subject with which this branch of our inquiry is concerned is irregularity of employment and the means suggested for preventing it so far as it is due (1) to industrial fluctuations affecting a trade, or trade district as a whole; (2) to chronic excess of the supply of labour over the demand for it in particular industries; (3) to the ordinary vicissitudes of work in a normal state of trade. It must not be forgotten in considering this question, that although the distress due to want of employment is often very visible and very deplorable, the great mass of the working classes have fairly regular employment. There are many who think that irregularity of employment is on the whole less in proportion to population now than in earlier times, although manifested on a more striking scale in particular localities, and rightly attracting a larger share of public notice.

Oscillations of commerce.

212. Our attention was specially called to the evils resulting from the great oscillations between activity and stagnation to which many of the trades of this country are subject. The demand for products of many kinds is sometimes so considerable as to put in motion all the productive forces and cause new capital to enter into production, and at other times so slack as to throw a large part of such productive forces into partial idleness, although the proportion of the increase or decrease to the normal demand may be found on examination to be comparatively small. The alternating periods of brisk and dull trade are felt alike by skilled and organised workmen and by the comparatively unskilled and less strongly organised classes who are

* Detailed accounts of this, as well as other schemes considered, but rejected by the majority of the men, will be found in the Summaries of Evidence, Group A., Part I., paragraph 31.

† *See* Minutes of Evidence, Group A., Vol. I., Appendix XVI., page 485.

employed under skilled artisans in manufacturing processes, and also in the transport of goods by land and water. In the case of skilled and well organised workmen slackness of trade makes itself felt in the form of increased pressure on the out-of-work benefit funds of their trade societies, of short work, and ultimately, it may be, of reduced wage rates. In the case of the unskilled and less organised men it takes the form of increased competition for employment and low wages. In both cases the total earnings of the men in the trade are smaller, and, except in so far as the situation is met by working short time, more of them are out of employment.

Causes of oscillations expansion and contraction of credit.

213. Fluctuations of trade in this country are due to a variety of causes, the chief among which may be briefly indicated here. The majority of these periodical changes are connected in some way with the state of commercial credit, and the willingness or unwillingness of business men to embark on new ventures. The state of credit in every country depends each year more and more on the general conditions of business throughout the world. Great Britain is specially sensitive to these international influences, because so much of her capital is invested abroad, and in ships trading to foreign countries, and because so many of her most important industries depend largely on foreign demand. When credit is good and loans are easily obtained, much of the capital invested abroad goes to pay for orders to manufacturers in this country. The result is that production is greatly stimulated, especially of those things which are needed for the extension of railway, shipping, building, and manufacturing businesses. On the other hand, contraction of credit causes an immediate falling off of foreign demand; and any considerable falling off of foreign demand, especially if it takes producers by surprise, tends in turn to weaken credit. A shrinkage in the demand for our manufactures from particular quarters may of course have its origin in events not connected with the state of international credit, such for instance as wars, revolutions, failure of crops, the setting up of hostile tariffs, and so forth; and these events may of themselves bring about fluctuations of trade in this country. But the most formidable industrial fluctuations are those which are caused by the action and re-action of the state of credit on foreign demand, and of foreign demand on the state of credit. The industries which are most immediately and markedly affected by those alternating movements of confidence and distrust are (1) those concerned with ship-building and the manufacture of machinery of all kinds; (2) iron and steel smelting and working; and (3) the coal-mining industry, which is intimately connected with those above mentioned. Less directly, but seriously, a diminution of profits and wages in these great branches of industry must, of course, affect most of the trades which produce for home consumption.

Seasons and weather.

214. Seasons and weather are in some industries a cause of continual fluctuation of employment. Wet or frosty weather, the amount of which is so variable in this climate, affects work which is carried on in the open, such as dock-work, building, brickmaking, shipbuilding, house and ship painting, and agricultural operations. Some kinds of work in England are also affected by the closing of the Baltic and Canadian ports in winter. Gas-making is an instance of work which gives much more employment in winter than in summer. Many industries connected with clothing and small luxuries are much more fully occupied at some seasons than others, by reason of change of temperature, or national customs, such as holidays and festivals.

Fashion.

215. In some industries, chiefly those connected with clothing, the sudden changes due to the caprices of fashion are responsible for serious fluctuations of work. More than one experienced witness stated before the Commission that the desire for novelties both at home and in all parts of the world was an increasing difficulty, and that manufacturers are no longer able to "make to stock" as they used to do. Changes in fashion are so rapid that orders are withheld to the last possible moment and then come with a rush. This is a fruitful cause of alternate slackness of work and over-work, and one from which some of the weakest and most unprotected classes of workers suffer severely.

Trade conflicts.

216. Another source of fluctuations of work, which seems at present to be growing rather than diminishing in importance, is the extent and duration of modern trade conflicts. When these conflicts occur in industries that supply raw material, such as coal, the dependent industries are reduced to a partial idleness for which they are in no way responsible. Strikes or lock-outs in a particular branch of industry may have a similar effect upon the remaining branches of the same industry.

Foreign competition, &c.

217. Some industries are affected by the competition of foreign products in the home market; others by the competition of other countries in foreign markets, or by that of other districts in this country possessing greater natural advantages; or again by the introduction of new and more efficient processes. Changes due to these causes, although resulting in the displacement of labour, are often of too permanent a character to come under the head of fluctuations proper. Agriculture is in this country the most conspicuous instance of an industry in a condition of long-continued depression.

Distinction between trade fluctuations and permanent depressions.

218. The distinction between irregularity of employment due to trade fluctuations, and that which arises from chronic excess of the supply of labour over the demand for it in particular industries, corresponds to a distinction between temporary and permanent excess, and to this extent is a question of degree. Depressions of trade produce a relative superfluity of labour for a longer or shorter time, which, however is re-absorbed again when trade becomes good; and in the meantime a powerful trade organisation can do much in the way of tiding its members over the slack period by means of funds accumulated during the previous busy period. Where an industry is declining without any apparent hope of recovery, the temporary condition passes into the permanent. In such an industry the supply of labour may be permanently in excess of the demand, unless it drifts away in equal measure elsewhere. The latter qualification is an important one and is closely connected with a distinction which may be drawn, as respects superfluity of labour, between unskilled, and more or less skilled, occupations.

Case of "sweated industries."

219. Certain of the so-called "sweated" industries cannot be classed as unskilled, and yet suffer from a permanent over-supply of labour, not so much by reason of competitors for work pressing in from outside, as because in the case of these industries old methods have to a great extent been superseded by others, and the workers are competing by an obsolete system of work against new and improved processes. Work at reasonable rates of remuneration is no longer to be had in them, and the workers as a body are too shiftless and too feeble to abandon the occupation to which they are accustomed and seek employment elsewhere. Such occupations are generally local, carried on at home or in domestic workshops sometimes under insanitary conditions, and are often more or less hereditary in a family. In some cases the state of workers in these trades is aggravated by the competition of a very poor class of alien immigrants, content with a still lower standard of living; but apart from this, the inflow of competitors from other occupations does not appear to be the main source of the over-supply of labour in them.

Case where depression of an industry does not lead to superfluity of labour in it.

220. On the other hand an industry may be in a state of permanent depression, and yet not suffer from any superfluity of labour, simply because the workers in it drift away to other occupations as rapidly as the area of employment contracts. In such a case the pressure will be felt not in the declining industry itself, but in other occupations into which the workers dislodged by this or other causes overflow, competing with those already engaged in them and perhaps compelling them to compete in their turn with workers on a yet lower level. Agriculture affords a striking illustration of this. The demand for agricultural labourers continues to diminish, yet there has been a concurrent diminution of the supply in most rural districts. Instead of staying in the country they come to the towns, where, by their superior physical or moral capacities, they often displace the town-born labourers, and drive them down to lower and more precarious modes of existence.

Comparative effect on skilled and unskilled workmen.

221. While unskilled workmen have not the resource afforded to many classes of skilled workmen by the accumulated funds of powerful trade organisations, it is on the other hand in some respects easier for the ordinary unskilled labourer than for the skilled artisan as such, to find other employment when work fails him in one district or branch of industry. In fact for some purposes unskilled labourers may be classed together as belonging to a single industry. This circumstance, however, cuts both ways, for while it makes it easy for a vigorous and efficient labourer to find a job, it also makes it easy for the less vigorous and less efficient labourer to be displaced and forced to compete for employment on a lower level. The result is that all unskilled labourers being as it were in possible competition with each other, the most incapable in body or feeble in character (and these include many who have once belonged to a skilled trade but from helplessness or incompetence or misfortune have been unable to maintain themselves in it) get sifted down, and crowd into certain ill-paid occupations at the bottom of the scale, in which their mere superfluity of numbers renders employment irregular and precarious. Lower still beneath this class of the casually employed and largely recruited from it, comes that of the unemployable.

Failure of employers and workmen to find each other.

222. The third cause of irregularity of employment, namely, the ordinary vicissitudes of work in the normal state of a trade, has this characteristic mark, that it implies no superfluity of labour at all, whether temporary or permanent, in relation to the demand of the trade as a whole, but only a failure to bring together the employer seeking workmen and the workmen seeking employment. Even in skilled and highly organised industries, and in good times, there will always be a margin of unemployed workmen looking out for a job, and at the same time work waiting to be done if they only knew where to find it. Many trade unions act as effective agencies, so far as their own members are concerned, in helping them to obtain employment, not only by supporting them while temporarily out of work, but by assisting them in their search for work.

2. Special Case of Riverside Labour in Port of London.

Case of riverside work in London.

223. We received much evidence, to which it is desirable to make special reference, with regard to one most striking case of employment made irregular by a combination of all the three causes already enumerated. This employment, at once fluctuating, insufficient, and industrially ill-organised, is that of the labourers employed in riverside work in London, more especially those employed by the Board of Directors, usually known as the "Joint Committee," which controls some of the principal docks, including those in which there is the largest proportion of entirely unskilled labour. It is fluctuating partly on account of the weather, and also to a considerable extent owing to the fact that the import of some raw products, such as wool, food stuffs, or timber, is much larger at one season than another. It was, and in a less degree is still, uncertain and insufficient, by reason of the great excess of applicants for work in relation to the work to be done. And lastly, its irregularity is yet further increased by the difficulty of directing labour to the places where it may be required, consequent upon the great space covered by the docks and wharves, and the number of different managements.

The old system.

224. Recent reforms at the London docks have done something to mitigate the evils complained of so far as these result from the excessive competition for employment. Under the old system prior to the strike of 1889 there were in the various docks a certain number of men permanently employed, or with a preference as to employment, but the greater part of the daily labourers were engaged at the dock gates to meet the daily fluctuations of trade. This was done by the contractors or the foremen of the companies, and still is done by the foremen to the diminished extent to which such casual labour is required. These casual labourers were employed and paid by the day, or rather by the hour; for, before the strike of 1889, there was no guarantee that a man would be taken on for even so short a space as four consecutive hours. No attempt was made to organise the work by drafting labourers systematically after finishing work in one dock, to begin new work elsewhere. The plan was to allow them to look for "jobs" on their own account. It was to the convenience of contractors, foremen, and superintendents to have, as a rule, at the gates of the docks a much larger number of men than could certainly be employed on any day, so as to leave a safe margin for contingencies. Even after some improvements for the better had been made, one witness of experience (Colonel Birt) estimated that on the morning of the day on which he gave evidence (3rd November 1891) there might have been some 5,000 or 6,000 persons who had tried and failed to get employment at the gates of the various docks. We believe, however, that since that date there has been considerable further improvement in the regularisation of labour at the docks. The evils of this casual system, which have been compared to those of gambling or indiscriminate poor relief, were vividly depicted by many witnesses. It was contended by some that much of this class of work was done by men incapable of steady and consecutive labour; that at the same time the irregularity of the work itself bred irregularity of habits, and that a vicious circle was thus formed. It was represented on behalf of the employers that the evils of the system were partly due to customs or prejudices among those employed; to the rule, for instance, that stevedores should work at loading but not at discharging ships, and to other divisions of labour enforced by the trade organisations or the custom of the port of London. It is, however, alleged, on the other hand, that the task of loading certain classes of cargo requires much more skill and judgment than that of unloading, and that the division is not altogether an arbitrary one. It was also stated that the difficulty of moving men from dock to dock to meet the exigencies of employment was due, in part, to the reluctance of the men themselves to fall in with such arrangements. In a like

manner an experienced witness attributed much of the evil of the London riverside system to the custom of paying wages by the day instead of by the week, and thus attracting to the work persons of casual temperament; but added at the same time that the custom was so strong that it could not be departed from, even if employers desired it, without the greatest difficulty, although in Liverpool payment to dock labourers of exactly the same class is made by the week.

Reforms since the strike of 1889, and proposed further remedies.

225. The great strike in 1889, and the public attention excited by it, had the effect of calling the attention of the Joint Committee to the evils of the existing system. Subsequently the directors have taken steps to extend considerably an organisation of workers into (1) permanent labourers, (2) labourers having a preferential claim to employment. There is some conflict of opinion as to the extent to which it may be possible to carry this system, but there seems to be no doubt that the reform, so far as it has gone, has tended to diminish the former evils and to convert London dock work into something more of a regular occupation. In some London docks, and in some other ports, dock labourers are hired and paid, not by dock companies, but by the shipowners. In such cases, looking at the matter in connection with regularity of employment and apart from the questions which have arisen between unionists and non-unionists, a useful part may be played by such institutions as the "free labour office" created by the Shipping Federation in the Albert and Victoria Docks for the registration of the names of labourers who desire employment. A witness, who superintended the labour at these docks, suggested (1) that wages should no longer be paid by the day; (2) that shipowners should in each place ascertain the number of dock labourers required, and keep a bureau or registry whereby men could be obtained by any shipowner desiring them for a day's work, and that the shipowners collectively should guarantee the men weekly pay when in work and half-pay when out of work. The witness said that a system of permanent engagement of this kind would "pay the shipowner better, and be more satisfactory for the men," and, if thoroughly carried out, would "free the docks from casual labour, and that is where all the difficulty and trouble is."

Mr. Booth's opinion.

226. Mr. Charles Booth, whose elaborate inquiries have made him the chief authority upon this and other subjects connected with labour in East London, expressed in evidence the opinion that no legislative intervention was required in the matter, but that it would be possible for a committee of practical men to devise a scheme by which a system of transference of labour from one department of the docks to another according to the vicissitudes of work might be established, with the result of more completely, if not entirely, substituting permanent for casual labour. A scheme of a larger kind proposed by Mr. Mann for the creation of centralised docks for the port of London under public management is printed as Appendix VI. to this Report.

3. Proposals and Opinions with respect to Preventive Remedies of a General Character, including the Extension of Employment by Public Authorities.

227. We have now to consider the various remedies of a general character which were advocated in the course of the evidence submitted to us as likely to remove or modify the causes of irregularity of employment. Some of these remedies are of comparatively limited scope, and in dealing with these it will be convenient to follow as far as may be the classification of causes already adopted. There will still remain to be noticed the more ambitious and comprehensive views of those who hold that the true remedy, not only for irregular employment, but for other evils supposed to be inherent in the present system, is the extension of State and Municipal Employment in the sphere of productive industry; and the substitution, more or less gradual, of public authorities in the place of private employers competing with one another for profit.

Spread of information.

228. Granting that it is out of our power to control the foreign demand for our manufactures, or to regulate seasonal variations, and the caprices of taste and fashion, it is not denied that failure to forecast changes of demand may and does aggravate the industrial fluctuations which they produce. Accordingly there is one remedy which, so far as practicable, is strongly advocated by men of all shades of opinion, viz., that Government Departments or other public authorities should do more than is at present achieved in collecting and spreading information, enabling both manufacturers and workmen to forecast, better than is now possible, the course of trade and coming

demands in this and other countries. Proposals for the improvement of the present machinery for the collecting and publishing of statistics will be considered in a subsequent part of this Report. It has also been suggested that public authorities, imperial and local, might, without prejudice to the public interest, so regulate their purchases as to give employment to clothing and other trades during the dull seasons.

Avoidance of trade conflicts.

229. Again, so far as industrial fluctuations are the results of strikes and lock-outs, it is clear that anything that will tend to obviate trade conflicts, especially trade conflicts on a large scale in industries that supply raw material, will *pro tanto* help to remove a cause of irregularity of employment.

Question as to effects of trade competition in enhancing the evils of fluctuations.

230. Another class of remedies gives rise to wide differences of opinion. Some contend that much of the evil of industrial fluctuations is due to excessive competition between private employers, who in their haste to make money are inclined to be over-speculative when trade is brisk, to work overtime, take on new hands, enlarge their works, or open new ones, and, generally speaking, to produce with feverish rapidity beyond the extent of the actual demand. Thus, the work which might have been spread over a long period is condensed into a short one; the markets are flooded with goods, and this, of itself, tends to bring on a collapse of credit and stagnation of trade; works have to be closed, and men discharged, and the chief effect of the period of lively trade, so far as workmen are concerned, may have been to call into the industry more hands than it will, on the average, support. It is on this view that the action of trade unions in restricting overtime, piece-work, and the admission of apprentices to trades, is often defended. Such action, it is maintained, tends to make work more constant and regular, to cause the demand to some extent to adjust itself to production, and to prevent too many additional hands being drawn into industries in prosperous times. Reasons of a similar kind are also urged in favour of the limitation of hours of labour by law.

Opposite view.

231. Others, however, contend, in opposition to these views, that the activity of the legitimate speculator, whose interest it is to make excess in one place compensate scarcity in another, tends on the whole to diminish trade fluctuations; that to prevent production by artificial hindrances from adjusting itself with as much elasticity as possible to the variations of demand would injure British industry, and in the long run be contrary to the interests of the workmen themselves; and that the stringency of Trade Union rules in connection with piece-work and overtime tends to increase irregularity of employment for reasons already indicated. (*See ante*, paragraph 21.)

Question of the effect of trade-union rules on "absorption of the unemployed."

232. Abolition or restriction of overtime and piece-work, rules as to apprenticeship, and legal limitation of hours of labour are, it has already been pointed out, advocated not only as tending to diminish the violence of trade fluctuations, but also as distributing the work to be done at any given time more equally among the workmen engaged in any particular trade, and so diminishing the number of men out of work in that trade. This view, which is very commonly held by trade-unionists, is, no doubt, open to considerable criticism upon the lines indicated in the previous parts of this Report already referred to. Those who oppose the view, contend that it is by no means clear that such a policy will ultimately benefit even the workmen in the industries where it is adopted; and that though it may bring an immediate advantage to existing workmen in particular trades, it may also, by limiting output, diminish the demand for the work of other industries, and so lessen both real wages and the amount of employment in the country taken as a whole.

Occupations where there is a chronic excess of supply of labour over demand for it.

233. We are brought in connection with this matter to the consideration of the case of those occupations in which there is, independently of trade fluctuations, a large habitual excess of supply of labour over the demand for it. This has already been indicated as being the second chief cause of irregularity of employment, the first chief cause being that of trade fluctuations. It has already been pointed out that the occupations which suffer from chronic superfluity of labour fall into two classes; the first consisting of certain "sweated" trades, not indeed requiring a high degree of skill, but yet not wholly unskilled; the second comprising unskilled occupations, requiring no special strength, ability, or steadiness, of which ordinary dock labour may be taken as the typical case. Of the sweated trades there are some which perhaps could not afford to pay the workers sufficient wages for a reasonable maintenance, even if they were less crowded, because to increase the cost of production would be to destroy a demand which lives only on

excessive cheapness. Even where over-supply of labour is itself a chief element of mischief, it is in these trades due in a comparatively small degree to influx of workers from outside, except in particular employments which suffer from the competition of alien immigrants.

Treatment of destitute aliens.

234. It has often been suggested of late years that the immigration of destitute aliens should be prohibited altogether. Mr. Charles Booth, however, expressed the opinion that such a measure would not do very much towards relieving the pressure of competition in the "sweated" trades generally, and that the best hope of dealing, by any definite action, with the problem that these trades present lay in applying increased pressure of administrative sanitary requirements to the owners and occupiers of the places where they are carried on, in such a way as either gradually to transform their character, or else slowly to squeeze them out of existence with as little hardship as possible to those who are engaged in them.

Casual workers in purely unskilled industries.

235. The problem of over-supply of labour in the lowest grades of quite unskilled employment is of a different character. These occupations are constantly recruited from those who have failed to maintain a position higher up in the scale. The workers in them are to a great extent the siftings down of the whole industrial population. Misfortune is sometimes the cause of their failure; and especially hard is the case of the honest and industrious workman whom want of employment deprives of proper nourishment, and want of proper nourishment renders incapable of efficient work, and who is thus dragged down lower and lower within the vicious circle of an ever-increasing physical and moral degradation. But large numbers of the casually employed are where they are, because they do not possess the qualities or the training required to keep them in a better position.

Possible partial remedies.

236. The spread of education has already done something, and may be expected to do still more, to reduce the numbers of this class and of the "unemployable" class below them; and of course everything which increases the demand for workers in the higher grades of industry will also benefit those in the lower. Emigration may be a remedy in certain cases, but one serious objection to it from the present point of view, is that the shiftless and incapable are not fit to emigrate, and if the emigrants are to be drawn from a better class, this is in effect to remove the more capable in order to lighten the pressure of competition on the less capable. Another suggestion is to attack the evil by legislation tending to keep rural labourers on the land. The position of the agricultural labourer will be considered in a subsequent part of this Report.*

Elimination of the least capable.

237. The last-mentioned proposal aims at removing the pressure of competition which comes from above. Another plan is to try to remove it from below, in other words, to limit the number employed in any over-crowded occupation by eliminating the least capable among the over-numerous competitors for employment. This is the essence of the reform already mentioned as having been adopted at the London Docks. The effect of such a reform is to give more regular work to a limited number of men, but at the expense of throwing others upon the general labour market. For this reason not all the witnesses on behalf of the dock labourers were fully agreed as to the value of these changes to the class taken as a whole; and some of them were led by this line of thought to advocate compulsory limitation of hours of labour, so that work, and consequently wages, may be shared more equally, and to demand such institutions as municipal workshops, in order to give work to those thrown out of employment. In the special case of the London Docks the balance of gain certainly seems to lie on the side of a smaller number of men being employed in a regular manner, instead of a larger number in a casual manner. But the general issue (which, in its broader aspects, concerns skilled trades as well as unskilled) is one of no small difficulty, and raises (among others) the important questions (1) how is the limitation to be effected; (2) how far can it be applied without doing more harm than good; (3) what is to be done with those who are eliminated and deprived of their former means, precarious though they might be, of earning a livelihood?

How is the limitation to be effected.

238. As to the first of these points it must be observed that in the particular instance of the London Docks, the limitation of numbers was effected by the action of the employers. The history of the struggle at the London Docks, and of the events which followed it, is instructive in many ways. Among others it affords an interesting illustration of the difficulties which have been indicated in a previous part of this Report, as besetting all organisations of workers in occupations where the supply of labour is habitually in excess of the demand, and is, moreover, being constantly

* *See* paragraphs 354 to 362 and pages 195 to 253 *post*.

recruited from outside. It is natural that any union that may be formed in such an occupation should seek to secure regular employment and steady earnings for its members by restricting the number of the men employed. But it is powerless to effect this unless it can both limit its own members, and at the same time exclude non-unionists from employment altogether. The very large number of those who would have to be excluded in these circumstances would seem to make the policy hopeless of success. An attempt of the kind appears actually to have been made at one time by the Dockers' Union; but it failed, and was speedily abandoned and disavowed. The Union did indeed secure, as one of the terms of settlement at the end of the strike of 1889, an undertaking that no man should be engaged for less than four consecutive hours. But the yet more important reform of organising the labourers into classes of permanent men, and men with a preferential claim to employment, was the work of the Dock Companies themselves, acting, no doubt, more or less under the pressure of public opinion. Had the attempt of the Union been successful, the right of labour at the docks would have become the monopoly of a close corporation. The system actually adopted, though it creates privileged classes of workmen, leaves their privileged position dependent on continued efficiency and good conduct, and does not relieve them entirely from outside competition, though it considerably diminishes the amount of casual employment.

239. The number of workers engaged in an occupation might be restricted by indirect as well as by direct means. Thus it is contended that the proposal to establish a minimum legal wage, advocated by one or two witnesses, would, if it could be enforced, and if the minimum were fixed high enough, have the practical effect of limiting the number of those employed in low grade occupations at the cost of depriving of employment such as were incapable of earning the minimum. And similarly, in the skilled trades, a powerful union which included a large majority of the workmen in an industry, and was strong enough to exclude non-unionists from employment, to abolish piecework, and to insist in every case upon payment of a minimum standard wage, might probably control the numbers in a trade even without placing any restriction on the admission of apprentices.

How far can the limitation be applied without doing more harm than good.

240. This brings us to the consideration of the second question: how far the limitation of numbers in individual trades can be applied as a means of obtaining better employment for those in it without causing even greater harm to those excluded from it, and to the community generally? If the most skilled trades limit their numbers, and push down large numbers into the grades below, and these again push down others into a still lower grade, and so on, then there must be left an ever-increasing number of persons struggling for employment in the lowest grades, and the average wages of the whole body of the working classes must be lowered. If the process of "squeezing out" is applied to the lowest grades also, the number of unemployed will be largely increased.

What then are the principles that should guide public opinion and public policy in reference to particular cases in which this question arises? Without committing ourselves to a definite expression of opinion on this point, we think the following view worthy of mention. Any limitation, it is argued, of the numbers in a trade, which causes the same amount of work to be done by fewer men, is a public gain, provided it does not overtax their energies. For the men who are not wanted can produce other goods, or meet other wants of the public; and the working classes will receive their share of the increased national income. But if the limitation of numbers in the trade does not lead to increased efficiency on the part of those who remain, and simply raises the price of work in that trade by making it scarce, the result can hardly fail to be a public loss. More generally, if the limitation of numbers in a trade is effected by requiring a high standard of efficiency in it, the public will get more and better work in return for increased wages, and there will be a general gain. But if it is effected by preventing people from doing work which they are able to do, or would easily learn to do, the public will lose more than the trade will gain.

In the case of the docks, the smaller number of men working more regularly, and probably better fed, seem to have done the work quite as well as the larger number who had more irregular employment before the great strike, many of whom were no doubt men of weak physique or character, unfitted to do good work in any trade. But if the reverse had been the case, and the real cost of labour had been increased, this would have meant injury to the public interest, and (inasmuch as the amount of employment available at a given time is not a fixed quantity, but bears a relation to

the real cost of labour) the exclusion from employment of men for whom work might have been found.

What is to be done with surplus labour?

241. The third question, viz.: What is to be done with those persons who are eliminated from overcrowded industries, practically forms a branch of the general question of the "Unemployed"? Whatever may be the advantages to the working classes or to the public generally of the reorganisation of any industry with a view to the reduction of the number of persons employed in it, whether such reorganisation be the effect of the action of employers or of trade unions or other agencies, the immediate result of the operation will be to add to the number of persons who have little or no employment a certain number of persons who have hitherto earned a precarious livelihood by more or less casual employment. As we have already stated (*see* page 8), we do not consider that, strictly speaking, the scope of our inquiry extends to the problem of the best methods of dealing with the effects of want of employment, closely allied though the problem is with the subjects with which we have had to deal.

242. One of the methods most frequently advocated is that of the employment of the class of labour in question by municipalities or other local authorities, in productive industry in municipal workshops or on agricultural farms. It is urged that even if such institutions could not be made self-supporting, work of this kind would, at any rate, be better than poor law relief or objectless labour in workhouses, and would afford a possible means of training and regenerating the class in question. In order to prevent confusion with regard to the way in which we have treated the matter, it must be observed that the extension of direct employment by public authorities has been advocated by different witnesses upon different grounds. It has been advocated by some witnesses chiefly with a view to the organisation and relief of surplus unemployed labour. It has been advocated by other witnesses upon the ground that, for the more general reasons hereafter indicated (paragraph 248), it would be better that, so far as possible, even that labour which can usually find employment, subject to temporary irregularities, in the ordinary course of industry, should be employed by public authorities rather than by private individuals or companies. It is necessary for the purposes of our inquiry to distinguish these two aspects of the question. The employment by public authorities of ordinary labour in necessary work does, in our opinion, fall within the scope of our inquiry, in view of the fact that it is advocated as a remedy for evils existing in the relations between employers and employed. We shall therefore proceed in the sequel to examine the arguments adduced for and against such a policy.

But the employment by public authorities of surplus labour, for the produce or services of which there is no existing demand, is so closely connected with the subject of the Poor Law and its administration that it seems to be excluded from the scope of the inquiry with which we have been intrusted. We think that, if an investigation of the practicability of municipal workshops or agricultural home colonies with this end in view should be considered desirable, it should be undertaken separately in general connection with the subject of the reform of the Poor Law. We may point out that much valuable information upon this subject is to be found in the "Report on Agencies and Methods for dealing with the Unemployed" recently issued by the Labour Department of the Board of Trade (1893).

Labour registries as a remedy for ordinary vicissitudes of employment.

243. The part played by many trade societies in meeting the irregularity of employment due to the ordinary vicissitudes of work in a normal state of trade, by helping their members to find vacant places, has already been mentioned. In the opinion of some witnesses, irregularity of employment might be greatly reduced if public authorities were to undertake a similar function by organising and supporting local registries and offices in connection with a central office, for the purpose of directing labour of all kinds to the points where it is most required. We received evidence with regard to some of the labour registries promoted by local and philanthropic effort, which appear to have worked with success in obtaining employment, especially for such workmen as possess any special aptitude or skill. One such registry has been opened by private enterprise at Ipswich, another at Egham, a third in London by the Chelsea vestry; and others have recently been established by various municipalities. The evidence tended to show that up to a certain point such institutions may do good service; but that great results are not to be expected from them. They seem least useful where the urgency is greatest, that is to say, in times of depression, and in the case of the less competent workmen. The suggestion was made that their value might be materially increased, if a

network of such offices could be established all over the country in organic connection with each other, and perhaps with a central institution in London, and placed under public control. One reason given for thinking that such registries should be under public control, and that their cost should be defrayed out of the rates, was that workmen will not put confidence in institutions governed by capitalists or employers, and employers will not put confidence in institutions governed by trade unions. This difficulty might be met, in some cases, by registries formed and controlled by joint committees from chambers of commerce and trade councils, but most witnesses seemed to think that the better plan would be that of municipal registries. Some of the most serious and violent of recent industrial conflicts have been those arising between seamen and dock labourers and shipowners from the alleged attempt of trade unions to monopolise the supply of labour, and the counter movement on the part of the shipowners associated in the Shipping Federation, to establish registry offices of their own through which to obtain a supply of men independently of the unions. The recent strike at Hull turned upon this point. It is open to consideration whether local offices under the control of public authorities, not connected with any special industry but forming part of a general system, and carefully guarded from any undue influence on either side, might not be of some avail to obviate quarrels arising from this cause, while securing the advantages of registration for employment. In this connection it should be observed that the Labour Exchange (Bourse du Travail) in Paris, which was established in the year 1887, with a view to bringing together employers in search of workmen, and workmen in search of employment, appears to have fallen into the exclusive possession of a labour party of advanced views, by whom it was used for political purposes, with the result that the Government of France felt it necessary in the summer of 1893 to suppress it, at any rate for the time being.

Proposals of collective organisation of industry.

244. We have lastly to notice the proposals put forward by those for whom the only thorough-going remedy, both for irregularity of employment and for dissensions between employers and employed, lies in making an end of the present competitive organisation of industry, and substituting for it a "collective" organisation based on public ownership of the means and instruments of production, and the control and management of industrial operations by public authorities. It is necessary to draw a distinction between the ultimate aim of those who hold these opinions and the actual measures advocated by the more cautious among them for present adoption. The realisation of the entire collectivist programme would involve a reconstruction of the whole fabric of political, social, and private life in this country, and we do not feel that any practical purpose would be served by an attempt to consider it here. But so far as the immediate programme is confined to a tentative extension of State and municipal activity in fields of industry now wholly or partially occupied by private enterprise, it may be desirable to indicate in a general manner the arguments that have been urged for or against such an extension, especially in respect of their bearing on the subject now before us.

More limited views of this kind.

245. Socialists will naturally be inclined to regard with favour any step which appears to constitute an advance in the direction of their ideal; but it is possible that others, who by no means believe in the Socialist ideal, may nevertheless hold that State and municipal employment of labour and control of industry may be usefully carried further than as at present. They may hold this not merely on the ground that certain kinds of work would be better done under public than under private management (which is universally recognised as a valid argument so far as the contention is admitted), but also for the reasons urged by Socialists, that greater regularity of employment, and improved conditions of labour will thereby be secured for the workers. It may be added that many, even of those who do not look with approval on the further extension of municipal undertakings in the sphere of productive enterprise, would yet think it right that as much responsibility as possible should be thrown on local bodies, and that they should not be needlessly prohibited from making such experiments as they desire.

Undertakings at present carried on by public authorities.

246. The policy of extending the field of public employment, not in order that the public may be better served, but for the sake of the workmen employed, and of the working classes generally, though by no means new in unofficial discussions of the subject, is for the first time becoming an important factor in practical politics. Such industrial undertakings as are now carried on by central departments or local authorities have hitherto been entered upon because it appeared on general grounds to be more desirable that they should be carried on directly by such public autho-

rities, than indirectly through contractors, or by private enterprise. The matter has usually been considered from the point of view of the national interest, in the case of dockyards and arsenals, or the interest of the local community as in the case of gasworks and waterworks. The central government at present carries on no manufacturing industries except those in connection with government dockyards and arsenals. The manufacture of gas and the supply of water are now undertaken by a good many municipalities, but apart from this they have not hitherto employed much labour of the ordinary industrial kind as distinguished from the labour involved in the maintenance of markets, parks, and public institutions, or that employed on roads, pavements, and sewers. Huddersfield is an instance of a municipal authority working a tramway. It is understood that the municipal authorities of Plymouth and Blackpool also now work the tramways. Bristol is the only instance of such an authority owning and managing docks. The administration of docks by public trusts is dealt with *post*, paragraph 250. Both the Huddersfield Tramways and the Bristol Docks have for some years shown an annual loss on working. But in the case of the Bristol Docks it was alleged that their acquisition by the Corporation was necessary, in order to save the commerce of the city from decay; while in the case of the Huddersfield Tramways no company could be formed to lease and work the lines which the Town Council had constructed. On this account the Town Council obtained a private Act in 1882, empowering them to work their own tramways, subject to the condition that they should lease them to a company, if one could be found to take them over upon such terms as the Board of Trade should approve.

Conditions of labour in such cases.

247. The evidence submitted to us cannot be said to show that the workmen employed in the Government dockyards and arsenals, or by municipalities, in the manufacture of gas, the supply of water, tram work and dock work, are markedly, if at all, better off than those employed in similar work in well-managed private establishments. Permanence and continuity of work are, indeed, admitted to be greater in the Government dockyards and arsenals, especially in the case of skilled artisans, (though some contend there are special reasons to account for this); but complaint was also made that the workmen in these departments received lower rates of wages than they might have obtained for the same work from outside employers. As regards the employment of labour in the manufacture of gas, the supply of water, and on roads, pavements, sewers, and building operations, there seems little to choose between municipalities and private firms. In 1888 the Huddersfield Town Council reduced the hours and increased the number of men working on their tramways, making some, but not a proportionate, reduction in their pay. It was pointed out, however, that the wages were distinctly low, 26*s.* a week for engine-drivers who had to do their own stoking. The Corporation of Glasgow insisted, as a condition of renewing the lease of their tramway lines, upon certain stipulations as to hours of labour and other matters connected with the treatment of the men employed being inserted in the lease. It appeared, at the date when the evidence was given, that the Company had refused to take the new lease upon these terms, and that the Corporation proposed to obtain powers (which it is understood they have subsequently received) to work the tramways themselves, when the old lease came to an end. For the present the matter rests there. On the whole it may be confidently affirmed that extension of public employment for the benefit of the working classes seems to be advocated, not so much from experience of the way in which public authorities have acted as employers of labour in the past, as from anticipation of what they may be inclined, or compelled by the electors, to do in the future. In this connection the action of the London County Council, in paying their park-keepers and gardeners considerably more than the market rate of wages, is a new departure, commended by some, and equally condemned by others.

Arguments in favour of extending sphere of employment by public authorities.

248. On behalf of the general policy of extending the sphere of public employment, arguments to the following effect were laid before the Commission :—

(1.) Public authorities depending for their position on a popular vote will be largely responsible to the working classes. In this way these classes will indirectly have a share of desirable control over the conditions of employment. Moreover, such authorities being more open than private employers to the influence of public opinion, are likely to treat those whom they employ with greater consideration; and, not being biassed by desire for high profits, are able to take a more just and impartial view of the claims of labour. The result will be better treatment of the workmen employed by them, in respect of wages, reduction of hours, and increase of their number, with the effect of absorbing some unemployed labour.

(2.) There is reason to think that, if undertakings were brought under the control of public authorities it would be more possible to avoid trade conflicts. For many causes of dissension would be removed, especially the ill-feeling which arises as to the way in which the receipts are divided between different classes of citizens, viz., profit-receivers and workmen, and the latter would, like the civil service, have other means than strikes of representing their grievances and obtaining remedies.

(3.) The consolidation of rival establishments in the hands of a single authority will extinguish the mischievous competition which, by tempting to speculative over-production, aggravates the violence of industrial fluctuations; and will also put an end to the ruinous under-selling of each other by competing employers, which is often carried on at the expense of the employed.

Such consolidation would also make it more possible to organise and control the supply of labour, and to convert it in some cases from labour of a casual character into one of permanent and continuous nature. It would be possible to know more exactly than at present what the amount of work is, and where labour is required, and to draft labour from one point to another. This was one of the chief arguments urged by Mr. Mann in support of the scheme which he laid before the Commission (and which is annexed as Appendix VI.) for the creation of more compact and consolidated docks in the Port of London, to be under the control of public authority.

(4.) The enterprises (most of them in the nature of local monopolies) which would first be brought more generally than at present under public control, such as gas and water works, tramways and docks, employ a class of labour which is composed to a great extent of the less skilled and trained labourers. It is precisely this class which is weakest and least able to organise and protect itself, and which suffers most distress from fluctuations of employment, and sends most recruits into the ranks of pauperism. It would, therefore, be in many ways a public benefit, and even a public economy in the long run, if men of this class were, to a much greater extent than at present, directly employed by public authorities. The great necessity of the day seems to be to find continuous and permanent employment for this class, so far as practicable, and thereby to raise its social standard and self-respect.

(5.) The extension of employment by public authorities would be economically advantageous. The State or municipalities engaging in industrial enterprise, and borrowing on the security of taxes and rates, could raise capital more cheaply than would be possible for private employers; they would also need less to start with so far as private enterprise is hampered by expenses in connection with company promoting, and the obtaining of concessions and Parliamentary powers where these are required. A smaller portion of the profits of the undertaking having to go in interest, a larger part would remain to be applied to other purposes, including better treatment of the *employés*. Lastly, the transference of industrial enterprise from private to public management would save the loss of an immense amount of capital now annually wasted in hopeless undertakings, in struggles between rival establishments, and in litigation.

Arguments against extending sphere of employment by public authorities.

249. It must be observed, in connection with the statement of arguments on the other side, that the case of those who desire to extend the sphere of employment by public authorities was placed before us much more fully than the answer to it. We did not think it necessary to hear much evidence in support of those principles of public policy which have hitherto been usually accepted and are well known. It may be sufficient to call briefly to mind the considerations commonly urged in reply to the arguments just summarised:—

(1.) A large extension of direct employment by the State or by municipalities would tend to introduce into national and local politics a dangerous element of corruption. It is difficult for public authorities, whose position depends on the result of a popular vote, to combine with success the parts of direct employers of labour and custodians of the public purse. They are always exposed to the temptation, if they are the employers of a large, and, perhaps, the most politically active part of their constituents, to bid for their votes

by undertaking to over-pay them at the expense of the rest. It is not desirable that such matters as the wage-rates or hours of work of public *employés* should become decisive questions of politics.

The more just and impartial view of the claims of labour, expected to be taken by employers who are under no necessity of making a profit, might too often come to mean, in practice, the taxing of the community for the benefit of the particular classes of workmen who happened to be in the public service. What was given to them would be taken from others; and the result would be discontent on the part of the less fortunate men in private employment, an increased tendency on the part of labourers to flock to the great centres of population in the hope of sharing the good things that were going, and a demand for ever fresh additions to public works in order to satisfy ever-growing claims.

(2.) It may be conceded that strikes would not be likely to be very frequent in public establishments in which the conditions of employment were distinctly better than those prevailing in private establishments. No doubt, too, any disputes that did arise between employers and employed would take a different form under Government management. But this gain also would only be secured at the expense of incurring the dangers mentioned in the last section. The record of Dockyard constituencies is not of favourable augury for the proposal that coal mines and railways should be "nationalised" and worked under State management.

(3.) Monopoly, either public or private, extinguishes the evils of competition; but with them its benefits also. Single control too has some undoubted advantages in the facilities it gives for the organisation of labour, though even where desirable, it does not follow that the single control should be that of a public authority. But it may be doubted whether a further extension of the work now undertaken by public authorities would provide any real remedy for irregularity of employment. The greater continuity of employment at present enjoyed in Government works is caused partly by their giving only the overflow to private works, thus increasing the irregularity of employment in private trade. Public employment is not generally more regular than that of private firms which have similar work to do; for instance, it is about equally regular in the case of gasworks, waterworks, tramways, and railways. Any additional constancy of public employment obtained by securing a man against dismissal when he becomes idle or negligent is not in the public interest.

(4.) The argument that local authorities in taking over the management of gasworks, waterworks, tramways, and docks, would be enabled to provide more employment for just the class that stands most in need of help, seems to overlook the fact that the more capable among unskilled labourers have as a rule little difficulty in finding employment. The class of men who could be advantageously employed as gas stokers, and in connection with waterworks and tramways, are probably able to look after themselves fairly well. A large proportion of dock labourers stand no doubt in a different category. But a municipality would not be able, any more than private employers, to overcome the hard truths that where the supply of labour is greatly in excess of the demand, regular work is only to be secured for some at the cost of refusing even casual work to others, that a rise in the real cost of labour tends to narrow the field of profitable employment, and that to improve the conditions and increase the remuneration of labour in a poorly paid occupation beyond a certain point, is to expose the very class whom it is desired to help to the competition of better men whom the improved conditions attract from other occupations. It would appear that the extension of public employment for the sake of the employed has as its natural complement the right of every citizen to demand employment from the public at wages sufficient for a maintenance. But to concede this right would be to place the national welfare in jeopardy.

(5.) Lastly, the allegation, that employment by public authorities in fields now occupied by private enterprise would be economically advantageous, is strenuously denied, and the contrary maintained. Although capital may be borrowed upon public securities at a lower rate of interest, a definite charge must be provided for the redemption of capital, or such changes as the substitution of electricity for gas or a transfer in the current of trade might leave a community saddled with a

debt without a corresponding income-producing asset. Moreover it is contended that the credit of the State and of local communities is good only so long as their debts are small relatively to their resources, and that it would probably suffer material damage if such a policy were carried out; while even now the interest gained by investments in good English railways is very little higher than that obtained from Consols. And though it is doubtless true that private undertakings are much handicapped by the exceptionally heavy legal and parliamentary costs which are levied in England, yet this fact, it is argued, points not to the intrusion by the State into fields of work for which its fitness is doubtful, but rather to the concentration of its efforts on that work of simplifying law and administration, which it alone can perform, and now performs inadequately.

It is further contended that, whatever may be the loss through wasteful forms of competition, the wastefulness of competition is not to be compared to the wastefulness of the inertia of Government Departments, when grown a little old and escaped from the prying eye of public criticism.

If it be proposed that public authorities should undertake works involving the use of a large plant and expensive machinery, it is urged that, in this case, the system would have great disadvantages as compared with one of private enterprise. The motive of self-interest compels the ordinary manufacturer or contractor to use his machinery to the greatest effect, and to search continually for improvements by which it may be made to work more economically. A public body having rates and taxes to fall back upon, is under no such pressure, especially if in possession of a monopoly. Wherever competition is removed there is great danger of stagnation taking its place.

It is not denied that public authorities can utilise the progress made by others. New plant put up at the public expense is always up to date; but thenceforward neither officials nor electors are eager to replace it by better plant. Thus it is almost always easy to prove the efficiency of Government experiments that have been tried only a few years. But they soon fall behind, and by diminishing the area from which inventions can come, they retard progress in private industry.

Observations upon above arguments.

250. Some of these considerations apply with less force to the management by public authorities of a class of undertakings like gas and water works, tram ways, and, perhaps, docks, in which industrial procedure is simple and not much machinery is required, and which naturally lend themselves to local monopoly, than to the management by such authorities of skilled work involving the use of elaborate machinery, and exposed to the competition and vicissitudes of the open market at home and abroad. Others again only apply in any strong degree to public authorities directly elected by popular franchise, and would be less applicable to mixed bodies in the nature of public trustees, some of whom might be nominated by State officials, and others by town councils or county councils or other bodies. Thus it might seem that public trustees of this kind, being independent of votes, would not be consciously or unconsciously influenced by the desire of obtaining them, while at the same time they would be under a sense of public responsibility and not influenced by motives of private interest. On these grounds it has been represented that docks, for instance, are best managed neither by private enterprise, nor by municipal bodies, but upon the principle of dock trusts. At Liverpool, Glasgow, Dublin, Belfast, and Swansea, the docks are controlled by the Dock Trusts, representing various official, commercial, and local interests. The Liverpool Mersey Docks and Harbour Trust, which is a good example of these bodies, consists of 28 members, of whom 24 are elected by parties who pay annual dock dues to a certain amount, and the other four members are appointed by the official conservators of the Mersey. On the other hand there are some who contend that public trustees are in some respects even less fitted than public officials for managing a great business for long periods together with probity and energy. They consider that such bodies as the Liverpool Dock Board are under exceptional conditions. That Board is really in a position of trustees, not for the public, but for the shipping community, and there are special causes which make their work efficient. But the instance chiefly relied on by advocates of the principle was that of the Commissioners for the Victorian railways. The greatest expectations were formed of this Board at the time of its appointment; but in a very few years it was found necessary to abolish it.

Insertion of stipulations in public contracts.

251. We must not omit to notice, before concluding our remarks on this part of the subject, the increasing practice on the part of public authorities of inserting in contracts for the execution of works, stipulations as to the wages and hours of

the workmen employed, or other provisions for their protection. This practice was to some extent sanctioned by the resolution which was passed by the House of Commons in February 1891, "that, in the opinion of this House, it is the duty "of the Government, in all government contracts, to make provision against the "evils recently disclosed before the Sweating Committee, to insert such conditions "as may prevent the abuse arising from sub-letting, and to make every effort to "secure the payment of such wages as are generally accepted as current in each trade for "competent workmen." It was stated in evidence by a witness from the building trade (Evidence, Group C., 17,405), that this resolution had "brought about quite a revolution in the system of tendering for contracts for the Government," and had exercised a considerable indirect effect upon other contracts and work. In the contracts of the London County Council the principle, it is stated, has been carried still further, inasmuch as the contractor is required not only to pay the recognised rate of wages, but to observe the recognised custom as to hours of work. The Commission were urged by the witness in question to recommend that this last observance should also be required in Government contracts. Cases have occurred in which public authorities, insisting upon provisions of this kind, have been unable to obtain satisfactory tenders, but a judicious use of this method of control may possibly be a desirable *viâ media*, in many instances, between the plan of mere business contract, and that of direct execution of works by the public authority. There would appear to be a growing feeling, with which we sympathise, that central or municipal authorities, whether they employ labour directly or indirectly should recognise that low wages are not necessarily economic wages, and, without departing altogether from the test of the value of labour in the open market, should act in the spirit of the most generous employer under existing circumstances. It must not be forgotten, however, that the principle of insisting on liberal wages for all workers, irrespective of efficiency, is liable to abuse, and that, if carried too far, it will not only have the effect of taxing the community for the benefit of the more efficient members of the working classes, but will also increase irregularity of employment for the less efficient, and deprive them of work which might otherwise have been open to them.

VII.

A LABOUR DEPARTMENT AND LABOUR STATISTICS.

Functions now discharged by Government with regard to labour questions.

252. The functions already discharged by Government with regard to labour matters are already numerous, and may be classed under two heads, administrative and statistical.

Administrative functions.

253. Under the first head come the inspection of factories, chemical works, and mines, by the Home Office; the care for emigrants, seamen, and railway servants, by the Board of Trade; the protection of the accumulated capital of the working classes by the Friendly Societies Registry;* and the superintendence of the action of local authorities as regards education, sanitation and poor relief, by the Education Office and the Local Government Board. The Post Office, the War Office, the Admiralty, and several other departments, as well as many local authorities, are large employers of labour.

Statistical functions.

254. The statistical functions of Government with regard to labour are discharged to some extent incidentally in the course of their ordinary reports, by several departments of Government, especially in relation to the inspection of factories and mines, and the registration of friendly societies, &c., and the occupations of the people are recorded in the decennial census, taken by the General Register Office. But the chief public collection of statistics with regard to labour have been made by the Board of Trade. This Department has published periodical returns relating to trade unions, strikes

* The work done by this Registry is more extensive than its title implies and includes: 1. Friendly societies and their branches. 2. Benevolent societies. 3. Cattle insurance societies. 4. Working men's clubs. 5. Specially authorised societies under the Friendly Societies Acts. 6. Industrial and provident societies, commonly called co-operative societies. 7. Trades unions. 8. Benefit building societies under the Act of 1836. 9. Building societies incorporated under the Act of 1874. 10. Loan societies. 11. Trustee savings banks. 12. Railway savings banks. 13. Post Office savings banks. 14. Scientific and literary societies.

and lock-outs, and Reports on alien immigration, and it has made many reports on various topics affecting the well-being of labour, among which the chief place may be assigned to an elaborate series of statistics of wages in the principal trades of the country in 1886, which is now approaching completion. The weakness of staff for this purpose did not allow it to undertake more than a rather limited range of subjects, and in the case of these subjects, the delay in arranging and publishing the information collected has deprived it of much of its value. The branch of the Board of Trade which undertook this work was re-organised early in 1893 under the name of the Labour Department of the Board of Trade, and considerably strengthened, and steps have been taken for bringing out its information in a form more available for use by way of a monthly Labour Gazette, and there is no question that the quality of the work done by it is excellent.

Deficiencies in collection of statistics.

255. In a country in which trade organisation has been carried further, and in which the division between different skilled trades is more clearly marked than in any other, it is specially important that the total numbers of workers engaged in each important trade should be accurately known, but in fact they are not known at all, except in a few cases. Dr. Ogle, the Superintendent of Statistics in the General Register Office, explained that the machinery for taking the ordinary decennial census was necessarily inadequate for an exact enumeration of special trades. For, since the householders' schedules from which it is made up, have all to be filled in on one night, an army of 30,000 untrained collectors must be specially summoned for the occasion. They have neither the time nor the ability required for correcting the schedules, and it has therefore been found necessary to group together trades as distinct and as important as those of cotton spinners and cotton weavers, and again as those of compositors and pressmen, and again as iron-founders and puddlers, and so on, and the attempts made in earlier years to ascertain the proportions of large and small employers of labour in agriculture and other industries have been abandoned.* Another witness, Dr. Elgin Gould, an official of the Federal Labour Department of the United States, who has collected labour statistics for his Government in many countries, and has had exceptional opportunities of comparison, gave it as his opinion that Great Britain no longer occupied the leading position which she once held in this respect and could regain it only by following the example of other countries and establishing a strong bureau of skilled investigators.†

Questions to be decided.

256. But though it is clear that more statistical investigation needs to be done, and that the Labour Department should have a chief part in the work, the question appears to remain open how much of the new work should be undertaken by the Labour Department, and how much should be merely initiated by it; and again, how far it is expedient that administrative and statistical work should be combined in the same department and how far they should be kept separate.

Proposals with regard to Labour Department.

257. Various suggestions have been made to the Commission with regard to the extension, consolidation, and reorganisation of the Departments connected with labour matters. One proposal made was that the existing Board of Trade should be enlarged, its title being perhaps changed to that of Board of Industry, and that it should on one side include the existing functions of the Board of Trade other than those in direct relation to labour, and on the other side should consist of a Board of Labour having various departments, one for statistical purposes and others for administrative purposes, among which might be included a Department for Mediation or even Arbitration in trade disputes.

Other proposals.

258. Witnesses who were, generally speaking, in favour of large extensions of State action, desired the creation of a strong Labour Department, distinct from the Board of Trade. One witness‡ proposed, as a first step, that the existing Statistical Labour Department of the Board of Trade should be amalgamated with the Factory and Mining section of the Home Office, and that a separate Department should thus be created, which might, if desirable, be represented by a Cabinet Minister. He further proposed that this Department should be armed with considerable powers of obtaining information from employers and others, and that among its duties should be those of holding an inquiry into the causes of any serious trade conflict, and of endeavouring to forecast and predict coming changes in trade. Mr. Mann, one of the Members of

* Evidence before the Whole Commission, 1712–6, 1728–31, 1735.
† Evidence before the Whole Commission, 6548–51.
‡ Mr. Sidney Webb.

the Commission, also in his evidence made proposals with regard to this subject. He likewise was in favour of the establishment of a separate Labour Department with a strong statistical side, enabling it to forecast fluctuations in trade.* He thought that there should be, in connection with this Department, a Board of Mediation consisting of an equal number of representative workmen and employers, whose duty it should be in case of a trade dispute, upon invitation by either party, to bring the matter if possible to a just conclusion, and, in any case, to hold an enquiry and to make a report.

Labour registries.

259. Proposals, to which attention has already been called, were laid before the Commission for assigning to a central labour department the function of acting as a central labour exchange. It is suggested that it might be made the duty of local authorities, such as town and county councils, to open and support registries, at which all persons needing employment might register their names. If, in the result of this, employment were not found for such persons within the area of any such local bureau, the authority might place itself in communication with other bureaux, either directly or through the medium of the central department, which, being in touch with all the local bureaux, might act as a general labour clearing-house.

260. There appears to be in America, the Colonies, and European countries a tendency towards the development of institutions for the collection and examination by skilled officials of facts relating to industry and bearing on labour questions, and the presentation of them to the public. The result of Dr. Elgin Gould's evidence, together with the information collected from other sources with regard to institutions of this kind in America, Europe, and the Australasian Colonies, is contained in Appendix VII. to this Report. Dr. Gould was of opinion that a very great indirect effect was exercised by the work of his Department, although it is one of a purely statistical character, through the diffusion of trustworthy information as to the conditions of industry, in promoting the peaceful solution of difficulties, and averting conflicts which might have been caused by ignorance or misunderstanding. He thought that it was most important that a Department of Labour Statistics should be kept free from all political influence, and as separate as possible from any administrative functions, and that even to impose upon it duties connected with conciliation or arbitration might cause it to be suspected of bias. He considered that, inasmuch as facts, if correctly ascertained, indicate the right conclusions, the indirect effect upon legislation of the inquiries and reports of the Federal Labour Department had been considerable and beneficial. It would further appear that in the United States the existence of a regular, strong, and expert organisation for collecting information has dispensed with the necessity of many inquiries by special commissions or legislative committees, and the work, so far as relates to the collection of information, has often been done in a more satisfactory manner. It was suggested that in this country, a similar department might, in some cases, undertake special inquiries on behalf of commissions or select committees.

Higher councils of labour in France and Belgium.

261. It is desirable that attention should be specially called to the higher councils of labour which have recently been founded in France and Belgium, a full account of which is given in Appendix VII. These councils, although attached in each case to a Ministry of State, are not so much Government departments as permanent Labour Commissions. They are of a representative character, containing in each case a considerable number of members, some of whom are employers, others workmen, others officials or persons of special authority in economic and social questions. The object of these councils is to collect information, consider industrial questions, and advise as to legislation.

* With regard to the suggestion that the Labour Department should endeavour to forecast fluctuations of trade, Mr. Giffen urged that this work is not one in which a Public Department can with advantage take part directly. For people who could make such predictions so as to be generally right "would not be in the service of the "Government but would probably be on the Stock Exchange or on some other market, making fortunes for "themselves, and many of the facts on which one could go in making a forecast of that kind are very often not "facts which you would be permitted to state publicly at all, nor such that if you were to state them you would "ever ear of them." (Evidence, Whole Commission, 7058, 7064.)

VIII.

THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

1. Wages of Women.
2. Hours of Work.
3. Employment of Married Women in Factories and Workshops.
4. Sanitary Accommodation and Ventilation in Factories and Workshops.
5. Especially Dangerous and Unhealthy Processes in certain Employments.
6. Organisations of Women.

Method of the inquiry.

262. The information in the possession of the Commission with regard to the employment of women has been derived in part from the oral evidence received by the three Committees. This information relates chiefly to the larger textile industries. It was, however, thought to be desirable, instead of having any female witnesses, to appoint four Lady Assistant Commissioners to conduct local inquiries into the conditions of the employment of women in various occupations. Seventeen Reports were prepared by the Lady Assistant Commissioners, and from these, together with the evidence received by the Committees, the answers in writing to the Schedules of Questions, and various official and documentary sources of information, the Secretary of the Commission has prepared a summary dealing with all the material relating to this matter. We propose in this part of the Report to indicate the most general results of this branch of our inquiry.

1. Wages of Women.

Returns of wages.

263. The returns of wages at different periods between 1830 and 1886, published by the Board of Trade with their investigations as to rates of wages in 1886, and the information more recently collected and summarised on behalf of the Commission, show that wages of women, like those of men, have, on the whole, steadily increased with the growing wealth of the country, though not equally in all occupations.

Proportion of women's wages to that of men.

264. It will be seen upon reference to the seventh paragraph of this Report that, according to the estimates arrived at by Mr. Giffen, the average wages of women employed in manual labour, and excluding those in domestic service, are very little more than half those of adult men, while the average wages of boys and lads also exceed, though not very greatly, those of girls. These conclusions are strongly corroborated by the evidence collected and summarised on behalf of the Commission. To a great extent the difference in the average wages of men and women is explained by the fact that the average of men's wages is taken from a much larger number of industries, including the most difficult and highly skilled manual occupations, in which men are exclusively, or almost exclusively, employed; whereas of the smaller number of occupations from which the average wage of women is determined, a large proportion are unskilled and overcrowded, even in those industries in which men and women are both employed the harder and more difficult and, therefore, better paid work is generally done by men, while women are only engaged in the easier and less skilled departments.

265. These explanations, however, do not account for the fact that in the exceptional cases where men and women are employed in work of precisely the same kind, as for instance, in some branches of weaving and tailoring, it usually appears to be possible for employers to obtain the labour of women at a lower rate than that of men. Probably in such cases the economic value of men's labour is likely to be somewhat greater than that of women in respect of steadiness, continuity, quantity of output in a given time, and the ability to perform certain incidental processes in connection with the work, such as keeping machinery in order, for which women are unfitted. But there seems no doubt that women are both ready to accept lower wages than men, and that they could not successfully work their way into an industry in competition with men unless their labour was really cheaper than men's labour. When they do successfully compete with men, and have established a firm footing in a trade, the remuneration

of the two sexes appears to tend towards equality, either by the women's wages rising to the level of the men's, or by the men's falling to the level of the women's, or in both these ways. Thus, in the weaving industry of Lancashire, and of the Bradford district of Yorkshire, where the women weavers are in a great majority, the wage rates of the women for the same work are about equal to those of the men. On the other hand, at Huddersfield, where the proportion of women weavers to men is smaller, and where the women are paid on a lower scale than the men for the same work, the men are being gradually pushed out of employment, and men's wages are being forced down so as to approximate more and more to the rates accepted by the women.

266. In these circumstances it is not surprising that the men object to female competition, and that various Trade Unions should have rules directed towards preventing or restricting the employment of women. And it is equally natural that when this policy has proved ineffectual, and the competition of women has become too strong to resist, the men should change their attitude, and seek rather to ally themselves with the female workers, to help them to organise, and to claim for them and encourage them to claim for themselves an equal rate of wages for the same amount of work, in the hope that the women's rate of wages will thus be raised to the level of the men's instead of the men's being depressed to the level of the women's. On the other hand, an apprehension appears to prevail in some cases among the women that an agitation on the part of the men for the payment of equal rates to women workers would result in the exclusion of the latter from the trade, or at least in seriously diminishing their chance of employment.

"Sweated" trades.

267. Instances of extremely small pay in proportion to the amount of work done are found in connection with the make-up of cheap clothing, the work being of a kind which women can do at home or in the shops of small employers. Industries of this character belong to the class of "sweated" trades, to which some reference has been made in earlier portions of this Report.* The excessive competition which so injuriously affects all the conditions of work in these overcrowded industries is increased in the case of women by special circumstances. A great number of women who do home-work are not entirely dependent upon their earnings, and consider them as being merely supplementary to those of their husbands or fathers. Others, again, are compelled by the necessity of supporting children, or, perhaps, a disabled husband, to accept whatever wages they are able to get. Competition of both kinds lowers the rate of wages throughout, and renders the struggle for life very difficult for those women who do entirely depend on their labour for their own subsistence and, perhaps, that of children. In some cases the excessive cheapness of such labour probably enables isolated hand-work to continue to exist in competition with the better organised methods of factories and large workshops. Workers in factories complain that their wages are kept down by this competition of out-workers. The natural difficulty, in not highly skilled occupations, of organising persons who work at home, or are dispersed through numerous small workshops, even if it can be overcome in the case of men, would almost seem to be insuperable in that of women. In the absence of organisation, and in face of the unlimited competition for the cheaper and less skilled kind of sempstress and similar work, there seems to be little to prevent wages from sinking to the point at which, in the words of one witness, "it is easier to starve without the work." So long as there is abundance of cheap labour, without any minimum wage fixed by the action of trade organisations or otherwise, it seems to be beyond the power of small employers and contractors, wholly unorganised themselves and keenly competing with each other for the custom of wholesale houses and for small profits, to give women more for their work than the lowest pay at which it can be obtained.

2. Hours of Work.

Legal overtime in certain cases.

268. Hours of work are regulated for large classes of women by the Factory and Workshop Acts. There appears to be no dissatisfaction with the hours thus fixed, and in many cases the hours actually worked are less than the legal hours. By an exception made to the general law by section 53 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, overtime for not more than 48 days in the year is permitted in non-textile factories and workshops in certain occupations, being those chiefly in which the pressure

* *See* paragraphs 39, 233, 235, *ante*.

of work is much heavier at one season than at another. In these cases work may be begun at 8 a.m. and carried on till 10 p.m., inclusive of two hours for meals. In the case of dressmakers and milliners, this exception seems to be fully taken advantage of, and representations have been made that illegal overtime is frequently added to that which the law allows. The opinion has been strongly expressed by several of H.M. Inspectors of Factories that this legal concession of overtime should be abolished, or should at least be reduced to the lowest possible limits and, perhaps, restricted to the case of the manufacture of perishable articles of food. It is urged that this working of overtime is particularly injurious in the case of dressmakers and milliners whose work is sedentary and tiring, and frequently carried on in ill-ventilated and unhealthy rooms. One of H.M. Inspectors remarks: "If eight hours can be properly considered "the time for adult males to work, how can it be right to allow females and young "persons . . . . . to be employed for 14 hours?"* It has been suggested by an Inspector that, at least, no exceptional overtime should be allowed in the case of girls under eighteen.

Illegal overtime.

269. Apart from the question of overtime allowed by the Act of 1878, numerous complaints have been received of illegal overtime worked by women in factories and workshops. It was alleged in the evidence with regard to the cotton industry that the system of "cribbing" time, *i.e.*, beginning a few minutes before and ending a few minutes after the legal hours was extensively practised. In the case of some industries it was alleged that work was carried on through the meal hours; in others, that the intention of the Acts was evaded by giving women work to finish at home. The last-mentioned case seems to be especially common in dressmaking and other industries much affected by weather or fashion; and where, therefore, there is much pressure in some months and slackness in others. In these cases the women themselves often wish to take work home in order to make good wages while they can.

Women not protected by the Acts.

270. Certain classes of women are not protected as to hours of work by the Factory and Workshop Acts. Among these are shop assistants and barmaids and other waitresses (except "young persons," who are now limited to 74 hours a week, including undefined hours for meals), laundresses, and all women who work at home. Evidence was received showing the existence of numerous instances of extremely long hours of work in all these occupations.

Shop assistants and barmaids.

271. There is much medical and other evidence to show that the hours frequently worked by shop assistants and barmaids, often under very exhausting conditions, are in many instances extremely injurious to the health of those employed. In consequence, however, of the infinite differences which exists between locality and locality, and shop and shop, both as to the hours of work and the nature and continuity of the work done, it is difficult to arrive at any general conclusion upon this subject. Suggestions have been made that the Shop Hours Regulation Act, 1886, which at present applies only to children and young persons, should be extended to all women employed in shops and public houses; also, that the hours specified in that Act should be diminished; or that the hours during which shops might remain open should be regulated by central or local legislation. Some advocates of further protective legislation for women employed in shops consider that if the hours of women were limited by law, it would be necessary to extend that limitation to male shop assistants, in competition with whom women would otherwise be placed at a disadvantage.

Laundresses.

272. It is a contested point whether laundries should be brought within the range of the Factory and Workshop Acts with regard to the limitation of hours of women and young persons.† In favour of that proposal it is urged that the hours of laundresses are frequently excessively long, that the work is fatiguing and often performed under very unhealthy conditions. On the other hand it is represented that, in some instances, the work is of a kind which must be carried out at very short notice, that the women themselves often prefer to work irregular hours, and that, for economic reasons, to bring all laundries under the Factory and Workshop Acts would have the effect of crushing out the small laundries, concentrating the work in

* Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, p. 93.

† With regard to sanitary matters, laundries were for the first time brought under some regulation by the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, secs. 1 and 2.

big buildings, and transferring much of the employment from women to men and boys, or to machinery.

Hours of young persons.

273. It must be observed that in industries, such as laundries, which are not covered either by the Factory and Workshop Acts or by the Shop Hours Regulation Act, 1886, the hours not only of women but also of girls under 18 years, and over the school age, are entirely unregulated by law. A suggestion made by one of H.M. Inspectors that girls under 18, at any rate, should not be allowed to work overtime under the exception in the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, has already been noticed. The wider suggestion has also been made that no young person should be allowed to work under any circumstances more than a fixed number of hours in any industry whatsoever,* making the same general limit apply to all cases, whether the industries are otherwise within or without the Factory and Workshop Acts. It has further been suggested that the age up to which such young persons should be protected should, in the case of girls at any rate, be raised from 18 to 21, the age adopted in France. Supposing that the hours of young persons fixed by the Factory Acts were made thus generally applicable, the effect so far as relates to females would be (1) to protect girls under 18 (or perhaps 21) from the exception made under section 53 of the Act of 1878, (2) to reduce the hours of girls in shops and public houses from a maximum of 74, including indefinite meal-hours, to 56½ hours, excluding fixed meal-hours, (3) to protect girls in laundries who are now altogether unprotected. The question would arise to what extent it was necessary or desirable that such protection should be extended to youths as well as to girls, inasmuch as to extend it to girls alone might put them at a disadvantage in competing for employment.

Out-workers.

274. By the 16th section of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, provision is made for the limitation of the hours of young persons and children, though not of women, employed in "domestic workshops," that is to say, in private houses or rooms where the only persons employed are members of the same family dwelling there. Attention has been called (*see* paragraphs 45 to 49, *ante*) to some proposals which have been made with a view to bringing out-workers under more effective supervision, and to some steps which have recently been taken by the Home Secretary to utilise the power given by section 27 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.

Hours of work in specially unhealthy occupations.

275. It has been urged that where women are employed in specially unhealthy occupations it may be desirable to restrict the legal hours of employment within still narrower limits than those fixed by the Factories and Workshop Acts. This object might be accomplished by an extension to the matter of hours of the power given to the Home Secretary by section 8 of the Act of 1891, to certify any particular description of manual labour to be injurious to health, and to adopt special measures to meet the evil. As the law now stands it would not appear that such special measures can include limitation of hours.

3. Employment of Married Women in Factories and Workshops.

Objections raised to employment of married women in factories and workshops.

276. The objections raised to the employment of married women in factories and workshops fall under the following heads:—

(1.) They are alleged to compete unfairly with unmarried women. This seems to give rise in some cases to a strong feeling on the part of unmarried women in factories.

(2.) They are unable if they work away from home to discharge domestic duties. Homes are made comfortless, and children and husbands neglected. This view was represented strongly in evidence by various workmen, and the truth of it in some instances is confirmed by the personal inspection made by the Lady Assistant Commissioners.

(3.) Heavy labour in periods near to childbirth is stated to be injurious both to mothers and to their children. This was strongly alleged in the case of the chain and nail manufacture by a witness who gave evidence before the Commission (Evidence, Group A., 17,606), though this statement was not altogether confirmed by the Lady Assistant Commissioner who took evidence with regard to this industry. In the case

* It may be noted that the shortest hours that are legalised in the case of young persons are those in textile factories, *i.e.*, 56½ a week, and those at coal-pits, *i.e.*, 54 hours, "above ground," or in the case of boys "below ground" also, and about these no complaints are made.

of white lead works and potteries it has been alleged that the effect of the poison or dust absorbed by women before childbirth had certain injurious effects upon the children born, but the present evidence in support of this does not seem to be strong.

(4.) The employment of mothers in factories is stated to be in every way very bad for their infant children, and to lead in districts where it is much practised to infant mortality far above the average. This opinion was very strongly maintained in evidence by Dr. John Tatham, Medical Officer of Health for Manchester, and was corroborated by Dr. Ogle, and seems to be borne out by comparative statistics. It was urged by Dr. Tatham (Evidence, Group C., 8152–55) that the period of four weeks from childbirth during which it is, under section 17 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, illegal to employ married women, should be extended to not less than six months. Such a prohibition would, he said, have a very important influence upon the rate of mortality and the nurture of the children. Other medical men thought that the period should be extended to at least three months from childbirth.

Difficulty of excluding them for long periods after childbirth.

277. An obvious objection to such further legislation, however desirable it may otherwise be, is that in very numerous cases the existence of very young children makes the earning of wages of vital importance to a mother, even although she often has to pay a considerable part of them to caretakers, who look after babies in a very inadequate manner. Inasmuch as, in districts like Lancashire, the conditions of modern industry have transferred the best paid women's work to factories, it would be impossible for a woman to earn decent wages at home. It is, perhaps, possible that the injurious effects of this state of things might to some extent be diminished by the better organisation of a system of *crèches*, or other institutions where very small children could be looked after. It appears that in some cases married women whose husbands are well able to support them prefer to work in factories not only for the sake of additional money but because they miss otherwise the sociable factory life to which they were accustomed before marriage, and find home dull and purposeless.

4. Sanitary Accommodation and Ventilation in Factories and Workshops.

Bad conditions in these respects.

278. The Lady Assistant Commissioners who personally inspected many textile factories and workshops, and retail shops where women are employed, found that in very many cases both sanitary accommodation and ventilation were far from satisfactory, and, in too many instances, were disgracefully bad. Some parts of Scotland, certain districts near Birmingham, other districts in the Midlands, and some of the Yorkshire and Lancashire* mills are distinguished for the want of sufficient, cleanly, and separate sanitary accommodation for women. Ventilation is stated to be bad, with certain exceptions, in textile factories in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and is still worse in a great many workshops. Small workshops in great towns such as Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, and Glasgow, as well as in London, were found to be often at once ill-ventilated, ill-warmed, over-crowded, and dirty, especially in the case of dressmaking and tailoring shops. Frequently they are either basements devoid of light, where gas is kept burning all day, or sloping-roofed attics, cold in winter and hot in summer. Usually these shops are quite without such appliances as ventilators or air-propellers. In laundries, in particular, where a high temperature is unavoidable, it is stated that air-propellers would, if used, do much to diminish the injurious effects of it. In some cases, where electric light had been substituted for gas, the improvement in the air thus produced was found to have a very beneficial effect on the health of the workers.†

Causes of bad conditions.

279. The general result of the evidence seems to be that in many places where women are employed the requirement in the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, that factories and workshops shall be kept in a "cleanly state," not "over-crowded," and "well ventilated," has by no means been effectually carried out. The evils of defective sanitary accommodation, ventilation, and over-crowding are due in some cases to the bad construction of many buildings and rooms, frequently not originally intended for working purposes, which renders them almost incapable of appreciable improvement. In great measure these evils are due to inadequacy of inspection and difficulties in the way of enforcing improvements.

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* As to these matters in Lancashire, *see also* Chief Inspector's Report for 1892, pp. 98 and 99.

† "I have seen many a girl toiling away in a workroom, where the gas had been burning for five hours, upon whose face it did not want the eye of a doctor to discover the traces of the irremediable mischief that was going on." Report of H.M. Inspector for Southampton district, Chief Inspector's Report for 1892, p. 91.

280. It has been pointed out in paragraph 37 of this Report that in the case of workshops in which women or young persons are employed, a double protection is given by law in sanitary matters. It is the duty of the local authorities to inspect such workshops, and it also continues to be the duty of H.M. Inspectors to visit them with regard to the hours of labour, and, if the premises are in an insanitary condition, to call the attention of the local authority to the matter, and to take steps themselves if that authority does not act. In the case of women, therefore, the adequacy of the staff of central inspectors continues to be, notwithstanding the division of duties established by the Factory and Workshops Act, 1891, a matter of great importance in sanitary matters as well as with regard to hours of work. In the opinion of the Lady Assistant Commissioners, based on what they heard from women whom they examined, it is highly desirable that some female inspectors should be appointed, upon the ground, for one thing, that "girls cannot talk to men as they can to women." *

281. Attention has been called in an earlier part of this Report (*see* paragraphs 42 and 43) to various suggestions which have been made with a view to securing more effectively than at present that places in which work is carried on shall be kept in a sufficiently sanitary condition. It is enough to say here that the evidence which has been collected with regard to the employment of women is of special weight and value, as showing how important it is that some effectual steps should be taken in this direction.

5. Especially Dangerous and Unhealthy Processes in certain Employments.

Specially unhealthy trades.

282. The evidence heard by the Commission and that collected by the Lady Sub-Commissioners, shows that certain industries, or particular processes, have proved very injurious to the health of women and young persons employed in them. The heat, moisture, and dust in cotton mills may, it is to be hoped, be reduced by the enforcement of proper ventilation and temperature under the Cotton Cloth Factories Act, 1889. The like special regulations seem to be required in the case of the linen and flax mills in the North of Ireland. It would appear from the statistics drawn up for the Belfast Town Council by the medical officer of health that there is great loss of life among the female factory hands from causes which are probably avoidable.† In wool-combing also the want of proper appliances for ventilation often seems to be a cause of illness. Other sources of disease exist in rag picking and sorting, and fustian and velvet cutting. The Lady Assistant Commissioners gave particular attention to several industries very distinguished for their evil effect upon the health of women,‡ namely, the white lead industry, work in the potteries, majolica painting and iron enamelling, and lucifer match-making. Departmental Committees have recently held enquiries, and special rules (under the Act of 1891) have been made, or are in course of being established, by the Home Secretary, with regard to all these industries.§ A full account both of the evils in question and of the steps which have been taken is given in the Summary upon "The Employment of Women," pages 515 to 524.

Unhealthy circumstances in ordinary occupations.

283. In ordinary employments the Lady Assistant Commissioners called attention to various common causes of unhealthiness, such as the absence of places for drying outer clothes when wet, absence of dining-rooms and provision of hot water or means of cooking or obtaining proper food in or near works, and, in the case of shop assistants, barmaids, and others who "live in," the frequently close and crowded character of bedrooms. In the case of shop assistants and barmaids the want of sitting down or withdrawing rooms to rest in is stated to be a common cause of ill-health and exhaustion. There are, of course, many cases where the arrangements are excellent and none of these evils prevail, but the general impression left by the information collected by the Lady Assistant Commissioners is that much remains to be done by employers of women in the way of obviating the causes of ill-health.

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* *See* Part II. of this Report: Appendix III., Summary upon "The Employment of Women," paragraph 756 (*b*).

† Summary upon "The Employment of Women," paragraph 734 (*b*).

‡ It is worthy of remark that in the case of industries involving contact with poisonous substances such as white lead, not only cleanliness but also good food, with which some employers now supply the hands, seem to be a great preservative to health. Summary upon "The Employment of Women," paragraph 736 (*d*); Chief Inspector's Report, 1892, pp. 18, 29, 30.

§ *See* paragraphs 48 and 49 *ante*.

6. Organisations of Women.

Organisations: (*a*) mixed, (*b*) exclusively of women.

284. In the large textile trades, and especially among the cotton-spinners of Lancashire, a good proportion of female workers belong to the men's associations, but even when they are in a majority they rarely stand on terms of equality with the men. Generally speaking, they pay a lower rate of contributions, receive correspondingly low benefits, and take only a subordinate part, if any, in the government of the society. A large mixed association of this kind is that of the jute-workers in and near Dundee, numbering near 6,000 members, of whom only 12 per cent. are men. Its success seems to have been largely due to a clergyman who manages its affairs. Many attempts have been made in other trades, especially in recent years, to found exclusively female organisations. A few of the societies of this kind which have been started still exist, though not many of them seem to have succeeded in enrolling and keeping any considerable number of subscribing members. Upon the whole, the history of these attempts is at present a history of failures.

Causes which make it difficult for women to combine.

285. Various causes are alleged which make it very difficult for women to combine successfully. One cause, no doubt, is that which also affects a large class of men, viz., that many of the occupations in which they are employed are not protected from competition by the necessity for much skill or strength and are over-crowded.* But even in the case of those occupations which require a degree of skill and training, corresponding to that which would probably enable men to organise successfully, women appear to have the same difficulty in combining by themselves. This has been attributed to the fact that unmarried women frequently consider their employment as one which will be terminated by marriage and not as a life affair; to social divisions and distinctions existing among them; to hereditary incapacity for transacting business in common; to difficulties in the way of meeting; and to special dislike felt by employers to their organisation.

Connection of want of organisation with low wage-rates.

286. To whatever cause may be due the difficulty which women have in combining effectively, it appears to be a real injury to them in those trades in which they are underpaid. In cases in which they receive less than men for work, which taking everything into account is of equal value to the employer, it is clear that they would gain much even from a little organisation. It has, however, been already indicated that these cases are probably not so frequent as is sometimes supposed. And it must not be forgotten that those domestic and personal service industries in which the wages of women sometimes equal or exceed the wages of an artisan, owe nothing to trade organisations.

Trade conflicts where women are concerned.

287. To the difficulties which women have in combining, may also to some extent be attributed the fact that trade disputes have been of comparatively rare occurrence where women alone, or almost alone, are employed. They have taken part, indeed, in many strikes in the great textile and other industries where men also are employed, but these strikes appear to have been almost invariably due, even where women formed the majority in associations, to the action of the male operatives.†

* In the words of Lady Jeune, "Unskilled labour will always be the great difficulty to be met by any "combination to raise the wages of women workers, and the sick children, the unemployed husband, the cold "and fireless homes, will always be the greatest bar to any effort to persuade women to stand together for "better remuneration." (*See* Summary upon "The Employment of Women," paragraph 762 (*a*).)

† *See* Summary upon "The Employment of Women," paragraphs 770–3, for an account of various disputes in which women were concerned.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

PART I.

1. Prefatory Observations.
2. Whether it is desirable to establish Statutory Industrial Tribunals to deal with Questions arising out of existing Agreements.
3. Whether it is desirable to establish Statutory Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration.
4. Promotion of Voluntary Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration, and other Intervention by the Board of Trade.
5. Appointment of Official Arbitrators.
6. Labour Department.

1. Prefatory Observations.

288. In the preceding part of this Report our object has been to review concisely the facts, opinions, and arguments which have in various ways been brought to our notice. In doing this we have, to some extent, indicated the general impression left upon our minds by the information which has been collected.

289. In the present part of the Report we propose to state what recommendations it is, in our opinion, desirable to make with a view to legislation. In the first place we desire to state our views relative to the question whether anything can be done by way of legislation to promote the better settlement of disputes between employers and workmen.

290. The following main conclusions derived from the evidence have to be borne in mind:—

(*a.*) In some of the principal industries a steady extension has for many years past taken place in the scale and importance of trade unions and employers' associations. In industries of the kind referred to the settlement of terms between employers and workmen is mainly, and the conduct of the industry is to a large extent, controlled by the action of these organisations on either side.

(*b.*) In a large proportion of industries organisations exist for the protection of trade interests and friendly benefit purposes, but only comprise a part, and often only a small part, of the workmen and employers engaged in those industries. These organisations do not, for this reason, exercise so great a controlling power over trade relations as do those of the kind first mentioned.

(*c.*) In other classes of industry organisations are insignificant or do not exist at all.

(*d.*) Institutions for the purpose of adjusting relations and settling disputes between employers and workmen (whether such disputes arise out of the terms of existing agreements or turn upon the terms of future agreements) have grown up within the limits of some special trades. The most successful of these institutions are those which have been formed in the trades where organisations on either side are strongest and most complete.

(*e.*) Of re[illegible] years other institutions have been formed for the purpose of conci[illegible]tion or, more strictly speaking, of mediation, not confined to any particular trade, but intended to bring about a pacific adjustment of relations in any industry within certain local limits. These boards of conciliation, which now exist in London and in many other important industrial centres, have usually been formed by co-operation between local chambers of commerce and trade councils. They seem to have worked with considerable success, and to be especially serviceable, where there are numerous small industries rather than one large staple trade, and in settling disputes where neither employers nor workmen are organised. Boards of this kind are hereafter referred to as district boards of conciliation in order to distinguish them from the trade boards.

(*f.*) Both trade and district boards have in all cases been spontaneously formed by the co-operation of employers and workmen more or less directly interested in the pacific settlement of trade disputes. No resort has hitherto been made to certain Acts of Parliament (*see ante*, paragraph 155), which were intended to enable institutions of this kind to acquire a statutory basis and certain legal powers.

291. We find from the evidence that the effect of the existing trade and district boards is highly beneficial in averting conflicts, but they are far as yet from covering the whole field of industry. We have thus been led to consider whether it would be possible by any legislation either to increase the efficiency of these institutions, or their number, or to supplement them by the creation under Act of Parliament of boards of a similar character.

2. Whether it is desirable to establish Statutory Industrial Tribunals to deal with Questions arising out of existing Agreements.

292. In the first place we have discussed the question whether it would be expedient to establish, or to give to Town and County Councils power to establish, industrial tribunals throughout the country with legal powers to hear cases arising out of existing and implied agreements, or depending upon the interpretation of trade customs, and to make enforceable decisions.

293. In favour of this course it has been urged that working men are deterred by cost, the character of the tribunal, or other reasons, from bringing questions of this kind (or such of those questions as might so be brought) before county courts, or before the stipendiary magistrates and Justices of the Peace who may have jurisdiction under the "Employers and Workmen Act, 1875." Yet at present, no special tribunals having been established under the Conciliation Act, 1867, or other Acts, these courts and magistrates are the only authorities having legal powers before whom such questions can be brought. It is represented that, although in some well organised trades disputes of this kind can usually be settled fairly by joint committees or the action of trade union officials or other means, yet that in unorganised industries workmen often have, or think they have, to endure grievances because there are no institutions to which they can resort to obtain a cheap and easy hearing of their case.

294. Much of the evidence which was brought before us by witnesses from the less organised trades consisted of complaints of grievances of a highly technical character. Many witnesses appeared to have come before the Commission, not so much in order to give evidence bearing upon the larger and more general questions, as to complain of grievances relating to their own special industries, such as short payments for inferior work, fines and deductions, the quality of the raw material supplied, and a great variety of other matters of a still more technical and local nature. These witnesses often seemed to be under the impression that either the Commission itself or some court, the establishment of which it might recommend, would provide them with a practical and summary remedy. It was difficult to ascertain in all cases how far these witnesses were really representative, but the prevalence of allegations of this kind leads us to believe that there does exist among those employed in many industries much discontent and dissatisfaction with the means which they possess of obtaining redress for real or supposed injustice.

295. Even apart from objections upon other grounds which employers and workmen may feel to bringing their disputes before county courts or before stipendiary or other magistrates under the "Employers and Workmen Act, 1875," it would hardly seem that such courts or magistrates could take cognisance of, or, at any rate, satisfactorily determine such questions as, *e.g.*, the quality of raw material supplied to workmen. Upon this ground, therefore, there might be a plea for the establishment of special industrial tribunals, qualified by the greater technical knowledge of those who should compose them to deal with questions arising out of particular conditions and trade customs.

296. On the other hand we have had to weigh the arguments (1) that in large and well organised trades the workmen have already quite sufficient means of obtaining remedy for grievances connected with existing or implied agreements or trade customs; (2) that in unorganised occupations, especially in the case of unskilled labour, a dispute on questions of this kind is more likely to be terminated by cessation of the engagement between an employer and workmen than by a resort to any tribunal,

however constituted; (3) that in the most important unorganised occupation, that of agriculture, such courts would not be useful unless they were very numerous; (4) that several previous Acts passed with a view to establishing industrial tribunals, with legal powers of trying cases arising out of existing contracts, have proved complete failures (*see ante*, paragraph 155); (5) that, in this country, the only disputes which lead to serious actual conflict are those relating to the terms, not of existing, but of future agreements.

297. Upon the whole we do not find ourselves able to recommend the systematic and general establishment of special industrial tribunals (in addition to the existing legal methods) for deciding questions arising upon existing agreements.

We think, however, that though it would be unwise to institute any general system of industrial tribunals, there might be some advantage in an experiment of a tentative and permissive character in this direction. Local representative bodies have now been constituted in every part of the country, and it would be possible to give to Town and County Councils a power of taking the initiative in the creation of special tribunals for defined districts or trades, more or less after the pattern of the French *Conseils de Prud'hommes*. We do not contemplate the direct appointment of members of such courts by local authorities, and certain general statutory conditions would have to be laid down directed towards securing an equal representation in such courts of the various interests concerned, and providing for a cheap and summary method of procedure. When any scheme of this kind, submitted by a Town or County Council, had been approved by some public department and established by Order in Council or Provisional Order, the court or courts thereby created might be invested with powers of hearing and (when unable to bring about an amicable settlement in Court between the parties) deciding cases which might be brought before them, arising out of express or implied contract as between employers and employed within the area of their jurisdiction. These powers would be the same as those exercised in these cases by county courts or magistrates. The power to initiate the institution of new industrial tribunals might not at first be largely used by the local authorities, but it seems to us that in some parts of the country there does exist a want which might be met in this way.

It would be desirable that if there should be any legislation in this direction the ground should be cleared by the repeal of some existing statutes which, as it has been pointed out, have remained a dead letter.

298. A proposal has been made to confer upon the voluntary trade or district boards of conciliation powers similar to those possessed by ordinary courts of law in relation to disputes arising out of existing agreements. This course appears to us to be undesirable. Such success as these boards have achieved (and their success has been considerable) has, in our opinion, been mainly due to their purely voluntary character, and to the fact that they have possessed no legal coercive powers. Either, we think, such voluntary boards would not avail themselves of an Act of Parliament enabling them to acquire powers, and the Act would then remain a dead letter like the Conciliation Act, 1867; or, if the boards were to acquire such powers, resort to them for their various purposes would be made less freely than at present.

3. Whether it is desirable to Establish Statutory Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration.

299. The proposals hitherto considered relate to the establishment of special tribunals of a judicial kind for dealing with questions arising out of existing agreements or trade customs. In the case of the larger and more serious disputes arising with regard to the terms of future agreements, frequently between large bodies of workmen on one side and employers on the other, we have had to consider, in the first place, suggestions for the compulsory reference of such disputes to State, or other boards of arbitration, whose awards should be legally enforceable. No such proposal, however, appeared to us to be definite or practical enough to bear serious examination.

We have, in the next place, discussed a proposal to establish under Act of Parliament district boards of conciliation and arbitration, the chief object of which would be to bring about the settlement of questions relating to future agreements. These boards might, it was suggested, be established either by a Government Department or, as some think would be a better plan, by town and county councils, subject, perhaps, in that case, to confirmation by some central authority. They would have statutory powers of intervening in trade disputes, in the interest of the public, as well as that of the

parties, of holding inquiries, and using necessary means of procuring information, and, in cases where their intervention should fail to avert a conflict, would publish reports which should serve to guide public opinion as to the merits of the contest. It was represented that such boards need not displace existing or future voluntary boards of conciliation, but would fill up the void space not covered by those voluntary boards, and would be especially useful in the case of small trades or unorganised workmen.

300. On the other hand we have had to consider that such boards, by whatever public authority they were established, would have an official character, and might, for that reason, be less popular and less resorted to than the present voluntary institutions, yet, at the same time, their presence might have the bad effect of arresting the growth of these institutions. Even if they did not injuriously interfere with the further development of boards of conciliation in large and well organised trades, they would probably displace, or, at least, check the extension of the district boards which are not limited to particular industries.

301. We are of opinion that no central department has the local knowledge which would enable it to attempt with success the creation of such institutions and that the intervention of local public authorities cannot be usefully extended at present beyond the experimental action suggested above (paragraph 297) with regard to industrial tribunals to decide cases arising out of existing agreements.

302. We hope and believe that the present rapid extension of voluntary boards will continue, until they cover a much larger part of the whole field of industry than they do at present. This development seems to us to be at present the chief matter of importance, and it has the advantage over any systematic establishment of local boards, of greater freedom of experiment and adaptation to special and varying circumstances. If, at some future time, the success of these voluntary boards throughout the country shall have become well assured, and if any success should attend the experiment previously suggested of giving to local authorities the power of initiating the formation of industrial tribunals, it may be found expedient to confer larger powers either upon voluntary boards or upon such industrial tribunals. But, at the present stage of progress, we are of opinion that it would do more harm than good either to invest voluntary boards with legal powers, or to establish rivals to them in the shape of other boards founded on a statutory basis, and having a more or less public and official character.

4. Promotion of Voluntary Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration, and other Intervention by the Board of Trade.

303. Although we are unable to agree in supporting any proposal for establishing, at the present time, any system of State or public boards for intervening in trade disputes, we think that a central department, possessed of an adequate staff, and having means to procure, record, and circulate information, may do much by advice and assistance to promote the more rapid and universal establishment of trade and district boards adapted to circumstances of various kinds. It was proposed by a Bill brought into the House of Commons in the session of 1893 by Mr. Mundella on behalf of the Government (and printed as Appendix IV. (*a.*) to this Report) to authorise the Board of Trade to take the initiative in aiding by advice and local negotiations the establishment of voluntary boards of conciliation and arbitration in any district or trade, and, further, to nominate upon the application of employers and workmen interested a conciliator or board of conciliation to act when any trade conflict may actually exist or be apprehended.

304. The following clause was added to the Conciliation Bill as re-introduced in the session of 1894, viz.:—

"Where a difference exists or is apprehended between an employer, or any class of employers, and workmen, or between different classes of workmen, the Board of Trade may, if they think fit, exercise all or any of the following powers, namely,—

(*a*) inquire into the causes and circumstances of the difference, and make such report, if any, thereon as appears to the Board expedient; and

(*b*) invite the parties to the difference to meet together, by themselves or their representatives, under the presidency of a chairman mutually agreed upon or nominated by the Board of Trade or by some other person or body, with a view to the amicable settlement of the difference."

We think that discretionary powers of this kind may with advantage be exercised by the Board of Trade. There seems to be no legal reason why the Board should not, even without legislation, take steps of the kind indicated in the Bills of 1893 and 1894, but a statutory provision of this character will probably be of use as giving to the Board a better *locus standi* for friendly and experienced intervention in the case of disturbed trade relations, and would make it easier for it to employ a staff suitable and adequate for the purposes in question. The Board of Trade at present possesses advantages for this task, inasmuch as the duty of collecting labour statistics which is being discharged by its Labour Department brings it in many ways in touch with employers and workmen throughout the country, and the officials charged with this duty justly enjoy the confidence of both classes to a large extent. The statistical duties of the Labour Department will, however, in future probably tend to increase, and, in the collection and preparation of information, the importance of absolute and universally recognised impartiality and freedom from any end or purpose except that of exact ascertainment of facts is so great, that care will have to be taken that intervention, even of the most friendly character, in trade disputes, shall in no degree impair statistical accuracy or credit. If there should be found to be an extensive opening for such intervention as is contemplated by Mr. Mundella's Bill, it may probably become necessary to keep these two functions of the Board of Trade, or of its Labour Department, carefully distinct and separate from each other.

5. Appointment of Official Arbitrators.

305. Some of the trade boards of conciliation provide for recourse to arbitration as the last resort when the representatives of employers and workmen fail to agree as to the settlement of future wage rates or other general issues. The district boards of conciliation also, as a rule, make it one of their objects to induce employers and workmen who are at issue to refer to arbitration questions upon which they are unable to agree. Among trades which do not possess formal joint institutions it is not rarely a rule to offer reference to arbitration before proceeding to a strike or lock-out.

306. It has been pointed out (*ante*, paragraph 136) that, even where there is a disposition on both sides to refer to arbitration, there is often a difficulty in finding suitable arbitrators or umpires. "Either the arbitrator is quite unconnected with "industrial work, and then the process of informing his mind upon the matter is "too long and costly, or he is in some way connected with the industrial world, and "then one party or the other is apt to suspect him of bias and partiality."

307. We think that this difficulty might in many cases be met if power were given to a public department to appoint, upon the receipt of a sufficient application from the parties interested or from local boards of conciliation, a suitable person to act as arbitrator, either alone or in conjunction with local boards, or with assessors appointed by the employers and workmen concerned, according to the circumstances of each case. We think that arbitrators thus appointed would be fairly free from suspicion of bias, and that, if the same persons were habitually appointed to act, and their services were frequently required, they would acquire a certain special skill and weight in dealing with industrial questions. Their decisions, however, would not possess legally binding effect any more than those of unofficial arbitrators in industrial questions. Possibly, if the plan proved successful and the work sufficient, such arbitrators might hereafter be made permanent, instead of temporary and occasional judicial officers.

6. Labour Department.

308. We have considered whether we should be justified in recommending that the various statistical and administrative functions connected with industrial matters which are now divided among several departments (*see ante*, paragraphs 253 and 254) should be concentrated and brought together under a single department. We have come to the conclusion that the present arrangement, so far as it relates to the division of statistical functions, though not systematic, has advantages and works sufficiently well, and we do not think that any benefits to be gained by a re-arrangement would compensate for the disturbance of business which it would cause.

309. The Department of the Board of Trade which deals with labour statistics has recently been re-organised and strengthened. Several of the suggestions which we should have desired to make with regard to the work of this Department have been anticipated by the publication of the "Labour Gazette," which is doing very useful

work. It would, however, be desirable to keep in view the possible advisability of publishing at least a part of the information at more frequent intervals. We have not seen our way to recommend that the State should undertake the formation of labour registries for the purpose of bringing together employers in search of workmen and workmen in search of employment (*see ante*, paragraph 243). We think, however, that the Labour Department should be prepared to give advice to private associations or local authorities who may be thinking of forming them; and that the "Labour Gazette" could render them some service by extending the work it has already begun of acting as a means of communication between them.

310. Without criticising the work done by the Local Correspondents of the Labour Department, we think that their services would hardly be available for those systematic inquiries into the conditions of industry for which there is an urgent and a growing need in this country. Attention has already been called to the fact that we do not possess any information as to the number of persons employed even in our chief skilled trades; and that we have received evidence that there is no existing machinery by which it could be obtained.* This fact illustrates a deficiency which we think should not be allowed to remain without a serious attempt to remedy it. We are aware that the process must be gradual; because a staff of skilled investigators cannot be obtained quickly, and it is even more important to sustain the high quality of official statistics than to extend their scope. But we think that a beginning should be made at once; and that it should be given in charge to the Labour Department to form such a staff gradually, and to train them for the work of investigation on the spot.

We do not attempt to forecast in detail the inquiries which this staff should make; for as time goes on the Department will learn from its own experience what inquiries are most urgently needed, and will select from these such as the resources at its disposal will enable it to conduct to the best advantage. It will also be guided by instructions and requests proceeding from the Legislature, various Departments of Government, and Royal Commissions. A great part of the work which is now done by temporary Assistant Commissioners, could be done more efficiently and much more economically by persons with some special knowledge of the particular subject and of the methods most appropriate for dealing with it. But we may assume that among the first tasks to be undertaken will be the formation of a proper census of occupations (which would, of course, not be taken all over the country on the same day); with some inquiries as to the number of dependents on each class of workers; the number of large and small establishments in each trade, the rates of wages and other particulars. As full an inquiry as possible might also be made as to the unemployed, and as to the conditions of life in crowded tenements, and among the poorest classes generally.† Information on some or other of these subjects is needed in almost every endeavour, whether public or private, for the general good. Much of it is indispensable for arriving at a sound conclusion in any process of mediation or arbitration in trade disputes. It is to be hoped further, that, as time goes on, the Department may be able to turn this information to account in such a way as to diminish in some small degree the unsteadiness of employment.

311. We have been compelled to express doubts as to the efficacy of many of the remedies which have been commonly advocated for irregularity of employment, and even to suggest that some of them might act in the opposite direction to that which is desired. At the same time the evils of this irregularity are so serious that no real remedy should be neglected merely because its operation would be limited. One source of fluctuations of work, not perhaps very considerable, but still appreciable, is the accumulation into certain parts of the year of a demand which could, with a little knowledge and thought, have been more evenly spread without any great inconvenience to the consumers. But at present it is not the task of any one to collect and publish the facts which are necessary for the guidance in these matters of those private persons and those public authorities who are willing

* *See ante*, paragraph 255. Since that evidence was given, the General Report on the Census for 1891 for England and Wales has been issued [C—7222]; and on p. 35 we read:—"While then we sympathise with "those economists who cry out for fuller and more detailed information as to the industrial organisation of "the country, we are distinctly of opinion that such information cannot be obtained by the machinery of an "ordinary census."

† Information on some of these subjects has been attempted by public authorities; but in almost every case the warning has been added that the means for a proper investigation were not available, and that the results have very little statistical value. Most of the best work of the kind in England has been done at the expense and by the care of private persons.

to go out of their way a little in order to confer a benefit, both material and moral, on the working classes. We think it should be the duty of the Labour Department to attempt this task. The Evidence and the Answers to Questions given to us show that, in most of the trades connected with clothing and furniture and some others, the fluctuations of employment from month to month can be in a great measure predicted beforehand; the periods of chief activity as regards goods made to order being generally coincident with the periods of chief demand, but in the ready-made trades occurring generally some weeks earlier. We think that good might be done by collecting and publishing information on these points.

312. In periods of commercial depression there is always a demand that public authorities should undertake new works, whether remunerative or not. And though it is doubtless true that the community may well afford to suffer some material loss, rather than allow large numbers of the working classes to suffer the hardship and the deterioration caused by long periods of enforced idleness, yet the plan of starting new works in a hurry for the purpose must be regarded with some anxiety, on account of its wastefulness and other evils. But we think that, with a little forethought, public authorities might during more prosperous times prepare plans for works that are needed, but are not urgent; and hold them in readiness for times of depression. The information obtained by the Labour Department might prove of some value in assisting public authorities in this matter.

313. Lastly, we think that the Labour Department might do some good by obtaining and publishing from time to time accurate information as to the action of public authorities in this and in other countries in inviting in suitable cases separate contracts for the material needed, and for the work to be done on it, or for parts of that work, and especially in inviting associated bodies of working men to tender for the latter.

314. Although we do not recommend the concentration under a single Government Office of all functions connected with industrial matters, we desire to call attention to a Tabular Statement which has been drawn up by our Secretary with regard to certain Acts of Parliament, showing in each case by what public department administrative powers under the Acts are exercised. This Statement is printed as Appendix IX. to the Summaries of Evidence. It will be seen that there is now a considerable mass of legislation relating to the sanitary condition of factories and workshops, the restriction of hours of labour of women, young persons and children, the method of payment of wages and other matters, but that administrative powers under these Acts are divided between different public departments in a manner, which must, we think, tend to increased cost and diminished efficiency of administration.

The intermingling of various administrative authorities is, it will be seen, most clearly marked in the matter of enforcing statutory provisions with regard to sanitary matters in factories, workshops, and other workplaces, and it seems to us that, in this case, at least, a greater concentration of authority is clearly desirable. We recommend that a special inquiry should be instituted by the Government with a view to legislation directed towards remedying the confusion which we have indicated.

315. We have also discussed the advisability of recommending the creation of a "Higher Council of Labour," resembling those which have recently been established in France and Belgium (*see ante*, paragraph 261 and Appendix V.). Regard being had to the number, magnitude, and complexity of industries in this country, we think that it would be difficult by any system of nomination or election to compose a body of employers, workmen, and others which would give general satisfaction as a central council thoroughly representative of all the interests concerned. We think also, that in view of the general system in this country, and of the part taken by Parliamentary Committees, Royal Commissions, and Public Offices in collecting information and examining and advising upon proposals for legislation, it is doubtful whether a "Higher Council of Labour," on the French or Belgian model, would have a sufficiently definite sphere of action, or sufficient practical duties to perform.

PART II.

1. Wages and Hours of Labour.
2. Apprenticeship Questions.
3. Questions relating to Non-Unionist Labour.
4. Demarcation Disputes.
5. Sanitary Conditions.
6. Inspection of Factories and Workshops.

316. In Part I. of the present section of our Report we have dealt with the question whether any improvements can be effected by way of legislation in the machinery and institutions by which relations between employers and workmen are at present adjusted, and disputes settled, and whether resort to strikes and lock-outs can thus be rendered less frequent.

317. We now proceed to consider whether to any extent any of the main and usual causes of such conflicts can be removed by means of legislation relating to the subjects of contention.

1. Wages and Hours of Labour.

318. By far the greatest number of such disputes arise from claims on the part of workmen to obtain an increase of wages, or attempts on the part of employers to reduce them, strikes on the former ground usually predominating in times of trade prosperity, and lock-outs with the latter object usually taking place in times of trade depression. We do not think that it has been seriously maintained on either side that the remuneration of work or rate of profit, or maximum and minimum wage rates in the general field of labour, should be fixed by law. Many of the witnesses on the side of the workmen, who most strongly advocated legal limitation of hours of labour, were asked whether they would also approve of State intervention between employers and employed in the matter of wages, and, with very few exceptions, they returned a negative answer to this question. It is not, we think, one which it is necessary for us to discuss.

319. The conflicts which have taken place with regard to hours of work are, however, of necessity very closely connected with wage-rates, especially when work is paid by time and not by the piece. A great number of witnesses on the side of the workmen advocated various proposals for the legal limitation of hours of labour of adult workmen, while employers were, as a rule, opposed to it in any form. The arguments adduced for and against the legal limitation of hours, whether by a general restriction of the working day to eight hours, or by trade option, or by administrative order to be made after inquiry with regard to special trades, have been very fully set forth in the fifth part of this Report. The conclusions to which we have been brought after weighing the arguments on this subject are as follows:—

320. To establish by law a maximum working day of a fixed number of hours applicable to all trades and occupations alike does not appear to us to be a proposal which bears serious examination.

321. The proposal that any trade should be enabled to decide by vote its own maximum hours of labour, and to obtain legal sanction to that decision, appears to us to be more worthy of consideration. No schemes, however, have been produced which solve the practical difficulties (referred to *ante*, paragraph 181, *et seq.*) of defining in all cases a trade, and of ascertaining its collective decision, especially in the case of the less well-organised industries. Even if these difficulties could be overcome, we do not see how the proposal could be adopted without danger of injustice to employers and to minorities of workmen, or without risk of economic injury in some cases to the country at large, in others to districts which have less natural advantages in competing with rival districts.

322. A further proposal is that special Acts of Parliament shall be passed with regard to special trades, either directly fixing the maximum hours of labour in such trades, or giving power to special Boards or to Public Departments to regulate the hours in them. We have had to consider the first of these alternatives chiefly with reference to the coal-mining industry.

323. The Miners' Federation, which covers the larger part of the English coal-mining districts, having refused to send any representatives to give evidence, we have only heard one side of the question so far as relates to the districts so controlled. We have, however, received evidence from both coal owners and miners in Northumberland, Durham, Scotland, and Wales. Upon the evidence before us, we are not prepared to advise that a general rule fixing a maximum of eight hours "from bank to bank" of all persons employed underground in mines should be laid down by the Legislature for a number of districts varying so much in circumstances.

324. We are decidedly of opinion that no sufficient ground exists for legislative interference with the present arrangements as to hours of work in the districts of Durham and Northumberland where, as the evidence shows, these arrangements are approved of by the great majority of those employed.

325. With regard to mines in other districts we do not think that a special case has, so far as the evidence in our possession goes, been made out for exceptional legislation upon the ground that the length of the hours now worked leads to an increase of accidents or to injury to health. The miners are, moreover, in almost every district a very powerful and highly organised body of workmen, and we do not think that it has yet been proved that they are unable to obtain by voluntary agreement with employers the hours which are best suited to the circumstances and interest of the industry in each district.

326. Passing to the proposal that, in certain instances, power should be given to special boards or public departments to regulate hours by administrative orders adapted to the circumstances of each case, we may observe that there is now a precedent for this course, in the case of adult workmen, in the Railway Servants Act, 1893 (*see ante*, paragraph 195). The ground upon which this Act was passed appears to have been that long hours in the case of railway servants increase the risk of accidents both to themselves and to the travelling public, and that the special privileges which the State has given to railways affords a special reason for regulation of hours of railway servants.

327. It has been pointed out (*ante*, paragraph 35) that, under section 8 of the Factory and Workshops Act, 1891, the Secretary of State has power to establish special rules for the conduct of manufacturing processes which he may certify to be, in his opinion, dangerous or injurious to health. It seems to be the fact that physical exhaustion increases the risk of accident or the susceptibility to disease in some occupations, and we think that the powers of the Secretary of State under this section should be expressly extended so as to include the regulation of hours in the certified industries. When the administrative orders made in these cases deal with the employment of women and young persons they might be final, but when they directly relate to the hours of adult workmen, they should, we think, be laid for a certain period before both Houses of Parliament before becoming law.

328. The evidence which we have received brings us to the conclusion that some modification should be made in those provisions of section 53 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, which permit women and young persons to work overtime for 48 days in the year in various specified occupations, including dressmaking. The number of days in which such overtime is allowed might, in our opinion, be reduced with advantage, and we think that, in the case of young persons, no overtime at all should be permitted under this section.

329. We are of opinion that so far as relates to the hours of young persons, and to all sanitary matters, the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Acts should be made to extend to laundries.

2. Apprenticeship Questions.

330. A further subject with regard to which disputes sometimes arise, especially in some of the more skilled trades, is that of the restriction of the number of apprentices in industrial establishments, and regulation of the age at which youths may enter a trade and the period of apprenticeship which they may serve. All this was made in the reign of Queen Elizabeth the subject of elaborate legislative directions, but the attempt to regulate these matters by law has long been abandoned and we see no reason for recommending its renewal.

3. Questions relating to Non-Unionist Labour.

331. Many of the most serious conflicts which have taken place, especially of recent years, in the less skilled and organised trades, have turned upon the employment of non-unionist workmen. The causes of such difficulties appear to be beyond the reach of legislation. It would, in our opinion, be inadmissible, and, indeed, it has never been seriously suggested, that employers should be deprived of the right of employing whom they like, or workmen of the right of accepting employment whether or not they belong to trade organisations. We think, that non-unionist workmen should in all cases be protected so far as possible by the public authorities from anything approaching to violence or forcible obstruction.

332. Witnesses representing masters and workmen in various trades expressed themselves in favour of amendment or better definition of the law relating to intimidation by picketing. The statute law on this matter is contained in section 7 of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, which is set out in Appendix II., and also in paragraph 102 of this Report. The statute does not supersede or exclude the prosecution and punishment of any acts which may amount to offences at common law, such as assault and unlawful assembly, neither does it interfere with the power and discretion of magistrates to require security for keeping the peace.

333. On the part of the workmen, the Act of 1875, as interpreted by the decision of the Queen's Bench Division in *Gibson* v. *Lawson* and *Curran* v. *Treleaven*,* seemed to be accepted, but it was suggested that the language of the Act should be amended so as to be free from ambiguity. The words as they stand make anyone liable to the penalties of the Act who "uses violence to or intimidates" [any other person with a view to put compulsion on him]. Intimidation is not defined, but it would seem that Parliament did not intend to alter the effect of the earlier Act of 1871, the words of which were "threaten or intimidate any person in such manner as would justify" binding over the party complained of to keep the peace. In the cases above mentioned it was decided that the more general words of the Act of 1875 had not any wider meaning. Having regard to the importance of making penal provisions of this kind clear on the face of them, both for the instruction of the public and for the guidance of the persons, not always learned in the law, who have to administer those provisions, we think the suggestion made on the workmen's part a reasonable one. We do not think, however, that it would now be satisfactory merely to restore the language of the repealed Act. Intimidation which will justify binding a man over to keep the peace is understood, in the modern practice, to be such intimidation as implies a threat of personal violence.† We can see no reason why this should not be plainly expressed in the terms of the Act rather than by words of reference which become clear even to a lawyer only after consulting other books. Accordingly we recommend that the first sub-section of section 7 of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, should be amended so as to read thus:

"Uses *or threatens to use* violence to such other person or his wife or children or "injures his property," omitting the ambiguous word "intimidate."

334. On the other hand it was suggested on the part of the employers that picketing is apt to become collective intimidation, and such intimidation is not the less effective, though not directly addressed to any person in particular, and a desire was expressed that the law might in some way be strengthened in order to meet this evil. We are of opinion, however, that the existing law is sufficient if impartially and firmly administered, but there is reason to doubt whether it is in all cases completely understood. Where the practice of "picketing" exceeds the bounds of information and peaceable conversation, and takes the shape of besetting the entrance or approaches of a factory or works in a threatening manner, we are advised that, apart from any threats addressed to individuals, the offence of unlawful assembly is committed.‡

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* 1891 2 Q.B. 545. See Memorandum on the Law of Trade Combinations printed as Appendix II.

† Judgment in *Gibson v. Lawson*, &c., 1891, 2 Q.B., at p. 559. The old authorities add threats of burning a man's house or (possibly) other goods. Threats of any other kind of damage to property do not seem ever to have been held a sufficient ground for requiring security of the peace.

‡ Art. 70. That offence is defined as follows, and in accordance with the authorities, in the late Sir James Stephen's "Digest of the Criminal Law."

An unlawful assembly is an assembly of three or more persons:—

(*a.*) With intent to commit a crime by open force; or

(*b.*) With intent to carry out any common purpose, *lawful or unlawful*, in such a manner as to give firm and courageous persons in the neighbourhood of such assembly reasonable grounds to apprehend a breach of the peace in consequence of it.

Assaulting or forcibly obstructing workmen desirous of entering the "picketed" works is, of course, a breach of the peace; and if a picketing party shows a manifest intention to do such things, then every member of it will, we are advised, be guilty of the offence of unlawful assembly, even if no assault is actually committed. This appears to cover all cases which any law can well provide for, and we see no reason to believe that any practicable change in the law would make it more effective. In any case there must remain a great deal of moral compulsion or pressure which may in some cases be justifiable and in others not, but which positive law cannot usefully attempt to control. The law can and should protect the persons and property of those who dissent from the majority of their neighbours or fellow-workers; it cannot compel the majority to have a good opinion of them.

4. Demarcation Disputes.

335. Some conflicts have recently taken place in the North of England between organised bodies of workmen belonging to different trades and employed together in some complex industries like shipbuilding with regard to the demarcation of their respective provinces of work. This does not concern employers very directly, but has led in practice to strikes. It seems obvious that no legislation can be recommended which would succeed in removing a cause of conflict of this kind.

5. Sanitary Conditions.

336. In addition to the subjects already mentioned as the most frequent causes of industrial conflicts, there are others which, although not often directly giving rise to actual strikes or lock-outs, have a considerable indirect influence upon the relations between employers and employed.

337. The sanitary conditions under which industries are carried on are frequently the cause of great and just dissatisfaction. The chief points to be noticed in this connection are bad construction of workshops, overcrowding of machinery in factories, insufficient cubic space for the number of persons employed, want of ventilation, unhealthy temperature, insufficient or defective sanitary accommodation. We find that evils of this kind exist in some degree or other in most trades and districts, but to the greatest degree in overcrowded and dispersed industries which are carried on in a multitude of small workshops in great cities, more especially in those connected with the manufacture of cheap clothing and furniture.

338. We think that many of these evils would be obviated if it were possible to carry out thoroughly the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Acts, and of the Public Health Acts. The existing defects seem to be due not so much to want of legal powers to remedy them as to the difficulty of discovering all the places in which the conditions are unsatisfactory, and of enforcing the provisions of the law.

339. Besides the direct evils resulting to the persons concerned from defective sanitary conditions under which their labour is carried on, there is, we think, another strong, though less direct reason for attempting to enforce more strictly the provisions of the law in this respect. It is chiefly in small workshops or in dwellings which escape inspection that the illegitimate competition with properly conducted establishments is or can be carried on. It is with competition of this kind that the word "sweating" is usually connected.

340. Factories or large workshops, in which the conditions as to sanitation and hours of work required by the law are observed, are at a disadvantage in competition with small workplaces in which it is practically impossible, with the means at present available, to enforce these requirements. The better workshops in which the law is complied with are therefore exposed to the illegitimate competition of workplaces which by their number and small size escape supervision, and where work can for that reason be carried on more cheaply. In order to secure to the workman all the advantages intended to be conferred upon him by the Factory and Workshops Acts, it is necessary to ensure that the provisions of the law shall not be evaded by a lower class of employers and by a more helpless class of workmen. Otherwise he is placed at a disadvantage by the very laws intended for his protection and benefit. To insist upon conditions which are costly and onerous in factories and large workshops, and to tolerate the absence of all such conditions in workplaces which evade inspection, is to drive employment from the former into the latter class of establishments, and to

increase the difficulty which the larger employer has in giving fair terms to his work-people. While, therefore, the workman cannot, in our opinion, be protected against the competition of foreign immigrants or other workmen who are willing to accept lower rates of wages, he has, we think, a right to demand that the law shall not intensify that competition by tolerating insanitary or other conditions in the worse work-places which are prevented in the better ones.

341. Upon these grounds, as well as upon that of the direct evil to the persons compelled by their circumstances to labour in bad workplaces, we think that some strong measures should be taken with a view either to the improvement, or where that should prove impossible, the gradual extinction of the lowest class of workplaces in which the "sweated" industries are carried on.

342. We have carefully considered the proposals which have been made by the present Chief Inspector of Factories, and which are set forth in paragraph 43 together with the suggestions made by Mr. Charles Booth, referred to in paragraph 45 of this Report, and we are of opinion that legislation to the following effect is desirable, viz:—

(1.) That within the industries or districts affected by the proposed legislation or by administrative orders under it, all occupiers of workshops (excluding domestic workshops which we do not think can be dealt with at present) and perhaps also of factories, shall be required under penalties to obtain a certificate from a competent public authority to the effect that the premises used by them are in all respects in a sufficient sanitary condition, and contain sufficient cubic space for the number of persons employed therein, such certificate to be withdrawn at any time if it were found that the conditions were no longer complied with.

(2.) That occupiers should be primarily liable, but that immediate owners, who receive the rent of workshops, should also be liable, if penalties could not be recovered from occupiers, in case of such workshops being carried on without the certificate having been obtained or after it had been withdrawn.

(3.) That all contractors and shopkeepers in the industries or districts in question who should employ out-workers should keep lists of such out-workers, and should be bound to take all reasonable precautions that work so given out was, if done in workshops, only done in those which had a proper certificate.

343. If a general Act were passed to this effect it might, we think, be left to the discretion of the Home Secretary to apply its provisions from time to time to particular industries or scheduled areas, but regulations of this kind appear to be urgently required in the case of the manufacture of articles of clothing (including boots and shoes) and cheap furniture. We think that the proposed regulations should also extend to bake-houses and laundries.

344. We are aware that any reform of this kind would probably, even though brought gradually into effective operation, throw altogether out of employment a number of persons who are now making a bare livelihood under bad conditions, and would thus, until things had re-adjusted themselves, increase rather than diminish distress. It would be necessary, as the cost of the improvement, to contemplate the probability of increased pressure for a period upon poor law relief, but we think that, in the long run, the permanent gain to the community would much more than repay the temporary loss. We believe that to secure better sanitary conditions to all those engaged in the class of industries under consideration would prove to be the first step towards the eventual elevation of their whole standard of life, and the improvement of their conditions of labour in all other respects.

6. Inspection of Factories and Workshops.

345. We think that some legislation of the kind just indicated will be necessary in order to deal effectively with the small workplaces, which even a host of inspectors could hardly keep under supervision as the law now stands. The evidence shows that it is difficult for the present staff of inspectors to keep under sufficient supervision even all the factories and larger workshops. One object of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, was to make inspection more effective by transferring to the inspection and control of local sanitary authorities workshops, as distinguished from

factories, so far as sanitary matters are concerned. The success of this recent experiment seems as yet to be doubtful, and it remains to be seen how far the powers reserved in the Act to the Secretary of State can be effectually employed. We believe, however, that the satisfaction of the demands for increased inspection can be met only by developing the duties in this regard of the local authorities, though it may become necessary to strengthen the powers of the Central Department so as to secure the proper performance of those duties in all cases.

346. We see with satisfaction the steps which have recently been taken to increase the number of assistant inspectors, to provide inspectors in chief industrial centres with offices and clerical staff, and to appoint female inspectors, and that further developments in this direction are in progress.

347. We received in the course of evidence a great number of suggestions with regard to specific amendments of Acts of Parliament relating to special trades. It has been impossible for us consistently with carrying out within a reasonable time the main objects of our inquiry to enter upon an examination of all these suggestions. They have, however, been tabulated by our Secretary in a convenient form in a paper which is printed as Appendix I. to the Summaries of Evidence. In addition to specific amendments many suggestions made by witnesses with a view to the alteration of the Coal Mines Regulation Act, the Factory Acts, the Law of Employers' Liability, and the Merchant Shipping Acts have also been tabulated in other Appendices to these Summaries.

SEAMEN.

348. Without implying that many of these suggestions made with regard to other industries are not highly deserving of consideration, we desire to make a more special reference to the conditions of labour of seamen. We received much evidence with regard to the mode in which seamen enter upon engagements to serve on ships. In connection with this matter our attention was called to the practice known as "crimping," which still appears to flourish, in spite of the law. Crimping was defined by Sir Henry Calcraft in evidence (Group B. Vol. II., 14,826) as "a system by "which certain boarding-house keepers, if unchecked, take advantage of the weakness of "seamen, and the peculiar circumstances of their lives, to obtain complete control "of their liberty of action, and practically control the supply." The object of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, was to abolish this evil by making it necessary for shipowners to engage men directly through their own officers or servants. This it is difficult, or sometimes impossible, to do without the intervention, either of crimps or general agents, especially when ships have to make up their crews, or replace deserters at intermediate ports of call, where a ship stays only for a few hours. The law, as it stands, does not allow shipowners to have agents at ports to supply seamen, unless the Board of Trade will grant licences to such agents under section 148 of the Act of 1854. The Board have not considered it to be proper to grant such licences either to the Seamen's Union, or to the Shipowners' Federation. We think it desirable that the provisions of the Act should be amended so as to make it expressly legal for any *bonâ fide* organisation, whether of employers or employed, certified as such by the Board of Trade, to act as general agents in supplying seamen to ships. Such organisations so acting would prove, we think, the most effective means of making resort to "crimps" less frequent than it now, in spite of the penal law, appears to be.

349. Accommodation on board ship is at present regulated by section 9 of the Act of 1867, which provides that "every place in any ship occupied by seamen or appren-"tices and appropriated to their use shall have for every such seaman or apprentice a "space of not less than 72 cubic feet, measured on the deck or floor of such place." We are of opinion that the evidence shows this accommodation to be too small for sanitary purposes, and that, in view of the increased size of modern ships and the fewer hands they require in proportion to their tonnage, it might be increased in the case of new ships to 120 cubic feet.

350. Allotment of wages is dealt with in sections 149–169 of the Act of 1854 and in section 3 of the Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880. A seaman has power under these Acts to allot half his wages before he sails to his wife or certain other relatives, but the allotment notes are payable only once a month. We think that this often involves hardship, and that, whilst having regard to the frequent

desertions abroad, it would not seem desirable to increase the amount which can be allotted beyond one-half of the full wages, this proportion might be made payable fortnightly.

351. We think that medicines put on board ship should be certified by the chemist who supplies them. We also think that some qualification should be required from ships' cooks.

352. The insufficient manning of a certain class of ships has been a subject of complaint. We understand that the President of the Board of Trade has undertaken to appoint a departmental committee of inquiry, including some representatives of shipowners and seamen, to investigate the whole of this subject, and to consider the best steps to take.

353. With regard to the constitution of local marine boards it was urged by some witnesses that the interests of the seamen are insufficiently represented. There are important practical difficulties in the way of any choice of seamen's representatives by a process of election, but we are glad to understand that it is the practice of the Board of Trade, where suitable persons of the class of an A.B. or suitable representatives of seamen can be found, to appoint such persons to be members of local marine boards,* and we consider that as the shipowners are already represented by elected members, the nominees of the Board of Trade should be, as far as possible, persons not similarly interested in shipping property.

AGRICULTURAL LABOUR.

354. The inquiry through Assistant Commissioners into the conditions of agricultural labour throughout the United Kingdom was undertaken in consequence of the opinion which was held by several of the Commissioners (and was also expressed by some witnesses), that the condition of agriculture, the diminution of employment on the land, the migration of labourers from rural districts into large towns and industrial districts, and their competition with other classes of labour, had exercised an important influence on the labour question generally; and that measures, with a view to the improvement of the condition of the agricultural labourer, might indirectly, by inducing him to remain on the land, prove to be of considerable benefit to the whole industrial population. The Reports of the Assistant Commissioners, which have been summarised by Mr. Little, in the document appended to the Report, (*see* pages 195 to 253) are of considerable interest, and contain, in our belief, a fairly complete and accurate account of the present condition of the agricultural labourer.

355. We do not, however, find any ground for believing that the depressed condition of the agricultural industry has led to an abnormal over-supply of labour in the general labour market. There appears to be no doubt that of all the classes engaged in agriculture the labourers have, regarded as a whole, suffered the least from the recent depression of prices. It is, indeed, worthy of note that notwithstanding the almost complete absence of organisation amongst them, it seems that the general condition of agricultural labourers in most districts has improved, and that they have obtained some share, and frequently not an inconsiderable share of those advantages which have been largely attributed in the case of other industries to the action of trade unions.

356. The diminished amount of rural employment consequent upon the increased importation of foreign produce must, no doubt, have caused a considerable transfer both of capital and labour from agricultural to urban industry. When, however, we compare the conditions of one rural district with those of another, we do not find that the migration to towns is, as a rule, more marked in those districts where wage rates are relatively lower, or other conditions of labour inferior, than in those where the labourers have greater advantages in these respects. We have no doubt that many other causes besides actual deficiency of employment or lowness of wages have contributed to the migration of a part of the agricultural population into urban districts, a movement which is by no means confined to this country. Among these causes are, no doubt, the improved facilities of locomotion and the spread of education and information. While, therefore, any measures which may be devised for the improve-

* *See* evidence of Sir Henry Calcraft, Group B. Vol. II., 14,807.

ment of the condition of the agricultural labourer are eminently desirable in themselves, we do not think that they can be regarded as likely to influence largely the state of the general labour market.

357. The chief evil to which it appears possible that legislative or administrative remedies may be applied is the defective structure and sanitary condition of the houses of agricultural labourers in many districts in all parts of the country. At present the character of the dwellings in which the agricultural labourer has to live varies largely with the character or means of the owners of the houses. As a rule, the houses usually seem to be fairly good upon the estates of wealthy proprietors, but are frequently very bad when belonging to persons who have not sufficient means to repair or rebuild them, or who treat them simply as an investment.

358. Under the Public Health Acts and the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890, rural sanitary authorities can exercise very considerable powers with regard to the construction, accommodation, and arrangements of new buildings, can absolutely close insanitary dwellings, and can acquire powers to deal with drainage and the sanitary conveniences of existing houses. With the sanction of the county council, a rural sanitary authority can itself acquire sites and build cottages. It does not appear to us that greater powers are necessary, but we concur with a suggestion made by Mr. Wilson Fox, one of the Assistant Commissioners, and endorsed by Mr. Little, that the owners of all houses let at a rental of less than 10*l.* a year should be obliged to make an annual return to the sanitary authority, stating the number of persons in each cottage, their sex, and age; whether the house is provided with a proper water-supply and a closet, and whether the premises are in good repair. We think that the obligation to make this return would have the two-fold good effect of periodically calling the attention of the sanitary authorities, and of owners themselves, to the condition of cottages.

359. We also approve of the suggestion made by several of the Assistant Commissioners that the medical officer of health in each district should not be allowed to be in private practice; that he should give up his whole time to the duties of his office, and that he should not be removable without the consent of the Local Government Board. In order to secure a properly qualified man under these conditions, it would be necessary to offer such a salary as would be a heavy tax upon many small sanitary districts, while such districts would not afford sufficient work to occupy the whole time of the officer. In order to meet this difficulty we think that two or more sanitary districts should be combined. We are of opinion that, in order to increase the independence of the medical officer, he should be appointed by the county council, subject to the approval of the Local Government Board.

360. We further agree with the recommendation made by Mr. Little that under legislation applying both to England and Wales and to Scotland, loans should be advanced to landowners through the agency of a Government Department, for the purpose of building cottages at the lowest rate of interest which would secure the State from loss, such loans to be made repayable by fixed instalments of principal and interest within a certain number of years. The loans might be made subject to express conditions as to the character of the cottages, and the provision of gardens, and the maximum rent to be charged. Opportunity might be taken of re-considering the terms on which loans are made for these purposes to local authorities.

361. In Ireland a considerable number of cottages have been built by the rural sanitary authorities, under the provisions of the Labourers (Ireland) Acts. Up to July 1892 the Irish Local Government Board had sanctioned schemes for building 11,774 cottages, and repairing 97. In the Report of one of the Assistant Commissioners, Mr. O'Brien, some complaints are mentioned as to delays and difficulties of procedure under these Acts, and to the remissness of boards of guardians in some districts in exercising their powers under the Acts. Mr. O'Brien's Report contains various suggestions which he received from experienced witnesses with a view to the improvement of procedure under the Acts. One of these proposals is that power to initiate schemes for the building of cottages under the Acts should be transferred from the boards of guardians to the Local Government Board. We find from the evidence collected by the Assistant Commissioners that in spite of the progress accomplished under the Labourers Acts, a considerable number of agricultural labourers in Ireland still inhabit very wretched dwellings, and we think that many of the suggestions to which we have referred, for the more effective carrying out of the intention of these Acts, are highly deserving of consideration.

362. We desire, however, to repeat that, while reforms of this character appear to be called for on their own merits, and while it is possible that they, in conjunction with other measures, as, for instance, the increased provision of allotments or small holdings, may render agricultural employment in some degree more attractive, and may thus tend to diminish to some extent the migration from the rural districts, it does not appear to us that there is any direct evidence to prove that the existing defects in the conditions of rural life have exercised or are exercising any material effect upon the industrial change which, under the influence of far wider and greater causes, has for some time been in progress in this country.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS.

363. We desire to say in conclusion that, in our opinion, many of the evils to which our attention has been called are such as cannot be remedied by any legislation, but we may look with confidence to their gradual amendment by natural forces now in operation which tend to substitute a state of industrial peace for one of industrial division and conflict. The growth and development of large industrial establishments during the present century has necessarily resulted in the creation of considerable bodies of workmen more or less separated in their lives and pursuits from those under whom they work. In those manufactures, which in modern times have been carried on upon a great scale with costly machinery, there cannot exist the intimate relation between the employer and workman and between the workman and his work which is to be found in some small industries where the workman owns, or may hope some day to own, after serving as apprentice and journeyman, his tools, workshop, and material. The mutual ignorance arising from this separation is, we believe, a main reason why so many conflicts take place, turning upon the division of the receipts of the common undertaking between the owners of the machinery and material, and the workmen who supply the labour.

364. It is, however, precisely in these industries where the separation of classes and, therefore, the causes of conflicts are most marked, that we observe the fullest developments of that organisation of the respective parties which appears to us to be the most remarkable and important feature of the present industrial situation. Powerful trades unions on the one side and powerful associations of employers on the other have been the means of bringing together in conference the representatives of both classes enabling each to appreciate the position of the other, and to understand the conditions subject to which their joint undertaking must be conducted. The mutual education hence arising has been carried so far that, as we have seen, it has been found possible to devise articles of agreement regulating wages which have been loyally and peacefully maintained for long periods. We see reason to believe that in this way the course of events is tending towards a more settled and pacific period in which, in such industries, there will be, if not a greater identification of interest, at least a clearer perception of the principles which must regulate the division of the proceeds of each industry, consistently with its permanence and prosperity, between those who supply labour and those who supply managing ability and capital. We cannot deny the possibility of organisations of employers and of workmen combining together to control an industry injuriously to the public interest; but it may be hoped that such combinations would in the end either fail from within or be defeated by competition arising from unexpected quarters, or be destroyed by changes in methods of production.

365. As the terms of what is virtually a partnership come to be better understood, and the arrangements for adjusting them to the variations of trade are made more perfect in one branch of industry after another, a natural end will be found to the conflicts which have been the result, for the most part, of uncertain rights, and mutual misunderstandings and pursuance of separate interests, without sufficient regard to their common interest, by employers and workmen.

366. This end would not, we think, be attained through what are usually known as Socialist or Collectivist methods. The Socialist idea is that the ownership of all the means and larger instruments of production should by a more or less gradual process pass into the hands of State or Local Public Authorities. Apart from the practical and equitable difficulties of the transfer, upon which we do not dwell, and from the deadening effect on industrial enterprise of the removal of the stimulus of private gain, it is not evident how the ideal of social peace would be realised. The workman would still

have to struggle for what he would consider the due remuneration of his labour, although the struggle would be with a different opponent, and conducted by different methods. So far from social peace being attained by this road, it might probably only lead to new conflicts turning upon the mastership of the central or local administrative power, and arising between workmen and other members of the community, or between different classes of workmen.

367. We have seen that industrial peace is promoted by the knowledge acquired by workmen and capitalists meeting in conference together, and we look for strong influences tending towards harmony from the investment by workmen of their savings in different enterprises, and the experience which they thus gain as capitalists on a small scale. Such teaching is, however, most efficiently and powerfully secured in the working of strictly co-operative associations, where the relative remuneration of labour and capital, and the conditions of employment, have to be settled by workmen themselves, who are both employers and employed. The influence of such societies spreads far beyond those who are members of them by producing among the industrial classes a common knowledge of the principles governing the remuneration of work. Similar effects to those to which we have last referred are caused by the extension of the principle of profit-sharing among many establishments, of which we had gratifying and encouraging testimony.

368. The various agencies on which we have been dwelling are, in their various degrees, especially noteworthy in dispelling the jealousies and antipathies which formerly characterised industrial disputes, and in producing a frank and open treatment of the circumstances provoking a struggle. A more cordial understanding, and one based on a better knowledge of the relations between employers and employed, is growing up. This better knowledge is passing outside the ranks of the combatants themselves, and is tending to spread throughout the nation; and the public opinion thus developed re-acts upon special industrial disputes and operates to bring about a pacific solution of them.

We may, indeed, say that all the causes tending to industrial peace which we have reviewed unite in producing this common spirit running through all classes of the kingdom, which is the best promise and assurance of the realisation of peace in the future.

All which we humbly submit for Your Majesty's most gracious consideration.

(Signed)

DEVONSHIRE.
DAVID DALE.
M. E. HICKS-BEACH.
A. J. MUNDELLA.
LEONARD H. COURTNEY.
JESSE COLLINGS.
FREDERICK POLLOCK.
E. J. HARLAND.
* W. THOMAS LEWIS.
ALFRED MARSHALL.
G. W. BALFOUR.
THOS. BURT.
*J. C. BOLTON.
ALFRED HEWLETT.
THOS. H. ISMAY.
GEORGE LIVESEY.
SAMUEL PLIMSOLL.
EDWARD TROW.
WILLIAM TUNSTILL

JOHN BURNETT, GEOFFREY DRAGE, } Joint Secretaries.
F. V. HORNBY, Assistant Secretary.

May 24th, 1894.

* Subject to Observations appended on page 114 of this Report.

With the object of avoiding a separate Report we have attached our respective signatures to the above Report, although we are not in complete accord with some of the observations and suggestions therein contained.

(Signed) W. THOMAS LEWIS.
J. C. BOLTON.

I agree generally with the Report and have therefore signed it, although there are some observations and suggestions with which I am not in complete accord. I do not consider that the course pursued by the great majority of trades associations is calculated to produce industrial peace.

(Signed) GEORGE LIVESEY

Observations appended to the Report by the Chairman, Mr. David Dale, Sir Michael E. Hicks-Beach, Mr. Leonard H. Courtney, Sir Frederick Pollock, Mr. Thos. H. Ismay, Mr. George Livesey, and Mr. William Tunstill.

1. While agreeing with the Report, so far as it extends, which we have signed together with the majority of our colleagues, we desire to call attention to some proposals which were discussed by the Commission, but with regard to which there proved to be no such general agreement as would justify their inclusion in the body of the Report.

2. Reference has been made in the Report to the powerful associations of employers and workmen which are so remarkable a feature of the present industrial situation. The magnitude of the conflicts which have recently been fought between them may make it appear that strength and completeness of organisation is not the best means of bringing about increased harmony between the classes engaged in industry; but the existence of these disputes ought not to be permitted to obscure the fact that there is another side to the action of these bodies, and that in many important industries the relations of the two parties are regulated by them for long periods with little disturbance or conflict. It seems to be worthy of consideration whether something more may not still be done in the recognition and encouragement of this side of their operations.

3. It has been stated in paragraph 149 of the Report, that at present "Collective "agreements are, as a matter of fact, frequently made between great bodies of organised "workmen and employers, which bodies have no legal personality, and cannot sue or "be sued for damages occasioned by the breach of such agreements by sections of their "members. There is collective action without legal collective responsibility. While "this state of things lasts it does not appear that such collective agreements can be, "as between such bodies, otherwise than morally binding upon them." We think that the state of things thus described might be beneficially altered by some amendments of the existing law.

4. In the following observations it must be borne in mind that when Trade Unions or Trade Associations are spoken of, associations of employers as well as of workmen are included, and that if, in any particular instance, it appears to be suggested that special privileges should be conferred, or responsibilities imposed upon one class of such associations, it will probably be found that corresponding privileges or liabilities will attach to the other.

5. The present limitation of the law appears to be expressed in section 4 of the Trade Union Act of 1871, which provides that "Nothing in this Act shall enable any "court to entertain any legal proceeding instituted with the object of directly "enforcing or recovering damages for the breach of any of the following agreements, "namely:—

"(1.) Any agreement between members of a Trade Union as such, concerning the "conditions on which any members for the time being of such Trade "Union shall or shall not sell their goods, transact business, employ, or be "employed;

"(2.) Any agreement for the payment by any person of any subscription or penalty "to a Trade Union;

"(3.) Any agreement for the application of the funds of a trade union (*a*) to provide "benefits to members; or (*b*) to furnish contributions to any employer or "workmen, not a member of such Trade Union, in consideration of such "employer or workmen acting in conformity with the rules or resolutions "of such Trade Union; or (*c*) to discharge any fine imposed upon any "person by sentence of a court of justice; or,

"(4.) Any agreement made between one Trade Union and another; or,

"(5.) Any bond to secure the performance of any of the above-mentioned "agreements.

"But nothing in this section shall be deemed to constitute any of the above-mentioned "agreements unlawful."

6. The object of this Act appears to have been, while freeing Trade Unions from the last remains of their former character of criminal conspiracies, and giving full protection to their property, (1) to prevent them from having any legal rights against their members, or their members against them; and next (2) to prevent their entering into any legally enforceable contracts as bodies with each other or with outside individuals, except with regard to the management of their own funds and real estate.

7. In our opinion the experience of the period which has elapsed since the year 1871 justifies some relaxation of these statutory restrictions. We think that the extension of liberty to bodies of workmen or employers to acquire fuller legal personality than that which they at present possess is desirable in order to afford, when both parties wish it, the means of securing the observance, at least for fixed periods, of the collective agreements which are now, as a matter of fact, made between them in so many cases. The associations which might avail themselves of the liberty might in some cases be Trade Unions or Employers' Associations, and in other cases bodies of workmen employed in a few establishments, or even a body employed in a single establishment, according to the circumstances of each industry. We do not suggest that a scheme of legally enforceable agreements would be applicable to the circumstances of all, or even, at present, of the larger part of the industries of this country. We find, however, from the evidence that a considerable and very important part of British industry is conducted under collective agreements made in the most formal way between highly organised trade associations, and that the substitution of agreements between associations for agreements between individual employers and individual workmen is a growing practice, and one which is intimately connected with the mode and scale upon which modern industry is at present carried on. It seems to us to be clear from the evidence both of employers and employed that the advantages of this system greatly outweigh the disadvantages. This may not have been so evident at the date when the Trade Union Act of 1871 was passed, but it is attested by the growth of the system. Such agreements are, in fact, the recognition of that virtual "partnership" between those who supply labour and those who supply managing ability, referred to in paragraph 365 of the Report, and are, therefore, on the whole, in accordance with the public interest and with the circumstances of modern industry. If this is the case, then it seems to follow that further legislation is desirable in order to bring the law into harmony with the present state of facts and public opinion.

8. We think that such an extension of liberty, if conceded (and in so far as it might be acted upon), would not only result in the better observance for definite periods of agreements with regard to wage-rates, hours of labour, apprenticeship rules, demarcation of work, profit-sharing and joint-insurance schemes, the undertaking of special works, and other matters, but would also afford a better basis for arbitration in industrial disputes than any which has yet been suggested.

9. In order to enable Trade Associations to enter into collective legally binding agreements, with the consequence that in case of breach of contract they would be liable to be sued for damages payable out of their collective funds, it would not be sufficient to repeal sub-section 4 of section 4 of the Act of 1871. Even if that legislative incapacity were taken away, the Trade Associations would be prevented by their want of legal personality from entering into such agreements, or suing or being sued, except with regard to the management of their funds and real estate.

10. It would be necessary that they should acquire by some process of registration a corporate character sufficient for these purposes. We are anxious to make it clear that we propose nothing of a compulsory character, but that we merely desire that existing or future Trade Associations should have the liberty, if they desire it, of acquiring a larger legal personality and corporate character than that which they can at present possess. It must be added that even if Trade Associations were thus clothed with a legal personality, it would be open to them by express stipulation to provide that any special agreement between them should not be enforceable at law.

11. The further powers of incorporation would not be made a condition of the existing registration, but would be offered as powers to be obtained by registration under a new Act. The motive which would, it might be hoped, influence Trade Associations so to register would be the desire to acquire power to enter into agreements of a more solid

and binding kind than heretofore. This might be sufficient in the case of an increasing number of the Trade Associations.

12. With regard to the collective agreements, there should, perhaps, be some statutory conditions attaching to them, for instance :—

(1.) That such agreements should specify a period for which they were intended to hold good, and a period for notice of amendment or renewal.

(2.) That such agreements should be registered in some central local public office, and should be open to inspection by the parties concerned.

13. We think that the contracting association should be responsible for observance of the collective agreement by all its members, so long as they remained its members, and that every member of an association should during membership be held to be under a contract with the association for observance of the collective agreement. The effect of this would be (1) to give to those entering into contracts with an association the right to sue it for damages in case of breach of contract by it or any of its members, and (2) to give an association the right to recover damages from those of its members who infringed the collective agreement. For the more convenient enforcement of the latter right, some power of deciding disputes between a society and its members, similar to that conferred on Friendly Societies by section 22 of the Friendly Societies Act, 1875, might perhaps be extended to Trade Associations.

14. Assuming the reform which we suggest to have taken place, we are aware that some litigation might arise before it was settled what collective agreements were or were not *ultra vires*, or "in restraint of trade;" but we think that we are justified in anticipating that judicial discussion of these matters would lead to reasonable solutions of the problems which might arise in each case, and to the gradual evolution of the best general principles. As it is not intended to give to the bodies making these collective agreements any greater powers than are enjoyed by individuals, the agreements in question would be subject, like agreements between individuals, to the restrictions flowing from the common law doctrine in discountenancing restraint of trade.

15. The Commission have had carefully to consider the question whether the State should attempt to do more than, as proposed by Mr. Mundella's Bill, promote the formation of voluntary institutions of conciliation and arbitration. It appears from the evidence that there is in many quarters a desire, sometimes on the part of workmen, sometimes on that of employers, and in some cases felt by both, that the State should do something to replace strikes and lock-outs by a more peaceable and rational way of settling trade disputes. There does not seem to be any very clear idea as to the precise manner in which this end should be accomplished, but the general notion appears to be either that the State should establish tribunals of its own, with powers like those of ordinary law courts, or that it should invest with similar powers voluntarily-formed industrial tribunals.

16. In order to examine this question, it is desirable, in the first place, to point out what the State cannot do, according to the ordinary principles accepted in this country. It seems to be obvious (1) that the State cannot compel either individuals or bodies of men to enter into agreements; and (2) that the State cannot compel employers to give employment or workmen to do work upon terms which they do not respectively accept. Inasmuch as lock-outs and strikes are, in practice, the assertion of these essential liberties on the part of employers and workmen, it is clear that the State cannot prohibit acts of this kind and compel the parties to resort to tribunals of any sort instead.

17. It was suggested in the evidence that strikes and lock-outs should be illegal and punishable in cases where arbitration had not first been resorted to. But it seems, for the reasons just given, that it is impossible to make strikes or lock-outs illegal and punishable in any case, leaving out of consideration such exceptional cases as those of the army or navy, or certain cases especially provided for by legislation where a sudden strike in breach of contract may involve actual danger to the public. Generally speaking, it may be laid down that the State (1) cannot compel parties to submit to arbitration matters upon which they have a perfect right to take their own course; and (2) that it cannot compel either employers or workmen to carry out, by way of specific performance, an award as to wages or other terms of service.

18. For these reasons the Royal Commission on Trades Unions of 1867 appears to have decided rightly (while warmly advocating the extension of voluntary institutions)

that no "system of compulsory arbitration" is practicable. The question, however, arises whether it is possible to devise any means short of compulsory arbitration by which the object so widely desired, that arbitration should replace strikes and lock-outs, might be more fully attained than it is at present.

19. It seems that although the most formidable obstacles to resort to arbitration are probably those indicated in paragraphs 136 and 137 of the Report, a further obstacle may frequently be found in the uncertainty which exists as to the observance of an award when given. If an arbitrator can only pronounce a decision which may or may not be followed according to the goodwill of the parties the procedure is to some extent discredited. Although, as a rule, arbitration awards may be loyally accepted and the exceptions may be very few, yet the possibility of such an exception occurring may make employers or workmen less willing to resort to a troublesome and elaborate process like formal arbitration. It has been shown that it is impossible to compel the observance of any award in these matters. It remains to be considered whether any better guarantee or motive for such observance can be obtained to supplement and strengthen the moral force which already exists.

20. In order to have arbitration in the strict sense of the word, there must be two or more parties capable of entering into a legal contract to submit present or future questions to arbitration, and there must be such submission. Then, by the ordinary principles of law, damages can be recovered from any party who refuses to go to arbitration, or declines to act on the award when made.

21. As things stand now, large bodies of workmen or employers cannot, as such bodies, enter into legal contracts of submission to arbitration, for want of legal personality, and, for the same reason, damages cannot be recovered from them, as such bodies, for refusal to go to arbitration after agreement to do so, or for refusal to accept the result of awards.

22. If, however, the suggestions which we have made were adopted, and it were put within the power of such bodies to acquire legal personality sufficient to enable them to enter into collective agreements, with the legal sanction of collective liability in damages for breach of such agreements, this difficulty would so far be solved.

23. If, under such circumstances, a body had agreed to submit future disputes on one or more subjects to arbitration, and subsequently refused to do so and resorted to a strike or lock-out, it might be sued for damages, and the prospect of this, although it could not indeed prevent, would render less likely resort to such measures, If a strike or lock-out did take place, although it is true that any damages which could be recovered would probably not, except in the case of a small or partial conflict, be sufficient compensation, yet an action at law would render more visible the breach of contract, and serve to guide public opinion. The same observations will apply to the breach of an award made upon a submission under collective agreement. There would, in both cases, be the gain of a judgment publicly pronounced by a competent authority, and attended and emphasised by tangible results.

24. For instance, an employer might insist on a reduction of wages contrary to a collective agreement or to an arbitration award founded upon a collective agreement. Then, instead of striking, the workmen might continue to work at the reduced wages, and, through their Association, sue the employer or his Association for damages to the amount of their loss. Or, on the other hand, workmen might insist on a rise of wages, contrary to the collective agreement or the award. Then the employer, instead of locking out or discharging the men, might give the increase under protest, and sue their Association for damages. The damages being recoverable from the collective funds of the Association, it would not be necessary to proceed against any individual workmen.

25. Or again, supposing that a collective agreement were in existence between an association of employers and an association of workmen, providing that no change in rates of wages should take place without the sanction of a Board of Arbitration, then either side refusing to submit the question for arbitration or to abide by the result would be liable to be sued for damages. The judgment would be pronounced by a competent authority, would be made publicly, have tangible results, and thus greatly help to form public opinion.

26. It has already been pointed out that the absence of any positive guarantee for the observance of awards may deter in many cases both employers and men from

resorting in practice to arbitration, although they may in theory prefer it to strikes and lock-outs. It might be anticipated that if by the method of collective agreements a more concrete guarantee were given to arbitration, it would be more frequently resorted to by those who have a *bonâ fide* preference for it over more violent modes of settling differences.

27. It must further be observed that if trade associations were able, as bodies with legal personality, to refer present or future questions to arbitration, they could by such agreements, under the ordinary law embodied in the Arbitration Act, 1889, either constitute or indicate their own tribunals or arbitrators, and clothe them with all necessary powers of procedure, and enable them to make awards which could, if broken, be made grounds of action for damages. Thus, in these cases, the problem of how to give powers of procedure to voluntarily-formed boards of arbitration, and a legal sanction to their awards, would be solved by the operation of the ordinary law as to agreements made between parties capable of contracting. Inasmuch as such tribunals would, in each case, be constituted by the agreement of the parties interested, tney would, it might be expected, possess their confidence, while the fact that associations, and not individuals, were primarily responsible for the observance of the awards might remove some of the difficulties which have hitherto attended attempts to give a legal sanction to arbitration awards in industrial matters.

28. These observations apply both to agreements for referring general questions and to those for referring minor questions to arbitration. Supposing, for instance, a case in which two associations of employers and workmen, capable under the supposed law of entering into collective contracts, had agreed to have (1) a Wages Board with provision for arbitration to settle changes in the rate of wages and other general questions, and (2) a Joint Committee, with an independent chairman, to decide minor questions arising with regard to existing agreements or customs, and had further agreed that all questions should be referred by them and their members to these Boards respectively. Then in either case, the effect of the agreement would be to render liable to damages the Association which, or the members of which, did not respect the arrangement but resorted to strikes or lock-outs.

29. The evidence does not show that public opinion is as yet ripe for the changes in the legal status of Trade Associations which we have suggested; but we have thought it to be desirable to indicate what may, as it appears to us, ultimately prove to be the most natural and reasonable solution of some at least of the difficulties which have been brought to our notice.

(Signed) DEVONSHIRE.
DAVID DALE.
M. E. HICKS-BEACH.
LEONARD H. COURTNEY.
FREDERICK POLLOCK.
THOS. H. ISMAY.
GEORGE LIVESEY.
WILLIAM TUNSTILL.

Observations appended to the Report by Mr. Jesse Collings.

THE AGRICULTURAL LABOURER.

ENGLAND.

1. I have signed the Report as I agree generally with its views and recommendations, but I do not concur with many of the statements and conclusions contained in it with regard to the agricultural labourers.

It appears to me that sufficient prominence has not been given in the Report to the condition of the labouring class engaged in the largest and most important industry of all, and that the recommendations made are not enough to meet the requirements of the labourers as set forth in the evidence contained in the able Reports of the Assistant Commissioners.

Mr. Little's Summary.

2. I regret that I am unable to agree with the Summary drawn up by Mr. Little (and adopted by the Commissioners, par. 354, Report) in several important particulars.

Migration of Labourers.

3. The migration of labourers to towns and the causes and effects thereof seem to me to be one of the most important parts of the Inquiry in which the Commission are engaged.

Mr. Little's Summary. Par. 12.

It is shown that the "agricultural earning class" in England and Wales have decreased in number by 20 per cent. during the 20 years ending 1891, this decrease being concurrent with a large increase in the population of the country as a whole.

Par. 20.

It is true that so far as this Inquiry has gone it does not seem that this migration is governed by the actual wages and earnings in particular localities, but it is not difficult, from the evidence before the Commission, to directly connect it with the unsatisfactory condition of the rural labouring population.

Causes of depopulation. Housing of Working Classes Commission, 14,322 to 14,784. Chapman (par. 11) and other Assistant Commissioners.

4. Abundant evidence was given before the "Royal Commission on the Housing "of the Working Classes," 1884, to the effect that labourers did not leave the land from dislike of their occupation, but from a desire to get more wages; to better their condition; to escape from their miserable cottages and conditions of life and in the hope of securing some prospects for the future.

These views are confirmed to a large extent in the evidence and Reports submitted by the Assistant Commissioners. It is shown that a higher standard of comfort prevails among labourers, and that they have consequently an increased dissatisfaction with their lot. Complaints are expressed of "the low standard of wages," the "miserable condition of many of the cottages;" of long hours, of the monotony and the almost continuous character of their work, unrelieved by holidays or recreation, and specially of the "absence of definite prospects of improved position" and of "making provision for old age."

Improvement in the condition of labourers.

5. It is true that the statements so commonly made elsewhere are repeated in the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners to the effect that, of the three classes affected by agricultural depression—landowner, farmer, and labourer—the labourer has suffered least. A comparison of this kind, however, is quite illusory. With the first two classes agricultural depression means reduction of expenditure, personal privations, and in some cases failure, but with the labourer, whose income is already at the lowest point of the wage-earning classes of the country, further reduction means actual want and semi-starvation. Instances are also given of comparatively large earnings of a labourer and his family as a whole, but it is evident that the aggregate family income is outside the question in considering the earnings of the agricultural labourer.

Again, the more favourable "budgets" and "earnings" given in the Reports, though showing the possibilities under certain conditions of employment, do not represent the

position of the great mass of the agricultural labourers. Extra earnings also, as a rule, mean extra work, while the "current wage" is very often subject to deductions for loss of time through "wet weather," sickness, and irregularity of employment. No doubt there is a real improvement in the labourer's condition secured by the low prices of all the necessaries of life, but this is an advantage not resulting from his special occupation, but one that is common to all classes of the community. Admitting, however, all the improvements named, the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners show that the labourers, as a class, only earn a bare subsistence, and that the great majority of them are in a chronic state of poverty and anxiety.

Migration of rural population and its effect on the general labour question.

6. In considering the position of the agricultural labourers generally, as described in the Reports, it is not difficult to understand why such large numbers are leaving the land; the difficulty is in knowing why any of the younger and more intelligent of the class remain.

The effect of the exodus from the rural districts seems to me to lie at the root of the general labour question which the Commissioners are considering.

7. The Report of the Commissioners (par. 355) states "we do not, however, find any "ground for believing that the depressed condition of the agricultural industry has led "to an abnormal over-supply of labour in the general labour market."

Again (par. 356) "we do not think that they (measures for the improvement of the "condition of the labourers) can be regarded as likely to influence largely the state of "the general labour market."

Further (par. 362) "it does not appear to us that there is any direct evidence to prove "that the existing defects in the conditions of rural life have exercised, or are exer-"cising any material effect upon the industrial change which, under the influence of far "wider and greater causes, has for some time been in progress in this country."

From these opinions I entirely dissent.

8. The Reports of the Assistant Commissioners contain very little direct evidence on the point either way, and it is difficult, if not impossible, to trace in detail the effect of this migration on the general labour market.

Many years ago when our trade and manufactures were advancing by "leaps and bounds," it is possible that the influx of labour from the outside might have been absorbed in our industrial centres with advantage to all concerned. Of late years, however, with trade and manufactures in a stationary, if not a declining condition, it would seem beyond dispute that the large and continuous migration of rural labourers into towns and other centres of industry must lead to an abnormal over-supply of labour in the general labour market. The immigrants themselves—coming from districts where wages are low and the conditions of life hard—may better their position as individuals, but they compete with and displace others, and the result is that a large addition is made to the ranks of the "unemployed" or partially employed in populous districts.

Richards, Wilkinson, Chapman, Fox, Spencer, Bear.

Stratford Union.

9. On the other hand the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners show that even in the present depressed condition of agriculture and consequent reduction in the number of labourers employed, it is only in exceptional districts that a surplus of labour is found, and in many districts a deficiency is reported.

The evidence of the labourers themselves, who are competent judges of the labour required for proper cultivation of the soil, is all to the effect that not nearly enough men are employed to do justice to the land.

Wantage Union. Thingoe Union. Driffield Union. Pewsey Union.

The statements of the labourers are very positive on this head, "the demand for labour "is checked by poor cultivation," "land sorely needs labour," "weeds choking growing "crops," "land labour starved," "land full of couch, growing four quarters instead of "six as it ought," &c., &c.

This means that if there were no farms out of cultivation, and if the whole of the land were brought up to the highest state of productiveness, a vast amount of additional labour would be necessary.

10. It seems to me therefore that any practical suggestions for a re-adjustment of labour between town and country, between agriculture and other industries, bear directly on the Inquiry of the Commissioners, and that a revival of prosperity in rural districts is the most hopeful solution of the problem under consideration. It is on this

assumption that the views in this memorandum are based. By those who think that agriculture is the same as any other industry, and that persons engaged in it should receive no exceptional consideration, these views will probably be regarded with disfavour. But others who admit the direct bearing which agriculture has on the prosperity of all other trades; that every extra pound got out of the land is an extra pound spent with the trader and manufacturer, will regard the present position as one of national concern.

11. The condition of agriculture and general remedies for agricultural depression are outside the scope of the present inquiry. This memorandum therefore is confined to the consideration of the condition of the agricultural labourers in connection with the wholesale migration above referred to, and of what measures can be adopted to retain the labouring classes on the land.

Further diminution of the rural population.

12. In the Report (par. 356), and in Mr. Little's Summary (pars. 23, 83) it is taken for granted that the diminished amount of rural employment, low wages, and other drawbacks result from the low price of cereals and from the large importation of foreign produce, and that a still further decay of the rural population can only be prevented by a general increase of prices. I believe, however, that remedies can be found for the evils named, by a large increase in the number of small cultivators recruited from the ranks of the agricultural labourers, who would be able to produce those smaller articles of food of which, at the present time, such immense quantities are imported from abroad.

In addition to vast imports of fruit, poultry, margarine, vegetables, rabbits, honey, &c., we find that for six articles of food only, namely, butter, cheese, bacon, hams, eggs, and lard, we pay the enormous sum of above 30 millions sterling annually to the foreign producers. Lowness of price, as in the case of cereals, cannot here be urged as a sufficient reason why this great market lying close to our doors is not sufficiently supplied by the agricultural industry.

Peasant Proprietorship.

13. I believe that it is by the creation of a large class of cultivating owners that the evils contemplated in the Commissioners' Report, and in Mr. Little's Summary, can be prevented; a race of skilled workmen retained on the land; and that the most serious calamity that can befall a country—that of a decaying peasantry—can be averted.

Housing of Working Classes Commission, 1884, 15,824–85, 16,024, 16,060, 16,970.

14. Perhaps on no other point is evidence more clear and abundant. Before the "Royal Commission on the Housing of the Working Classes," 1884, Mr. Beck (agent for the Prince of Wales) spoke strongly in favour of small holdings, as affording hopes and prospects to the rural labourers, and as "tending to increase the industry of the "country and to make it more stable."

Mr. Squarey was equally strong in his advocacy of increasing the number of small freeholders. "I think it," he says, "the most conservative policy that can be conceived;" while the Rev. Charles Stubbs declared that "the only prospect of the "elevation of labourers was in the possession of land."

Select Committee on Small Holdings, 1890.

The Select Committee on Small Holdings, after an exhaustive inquiry into the subject, reported that they were "strongly and unanimously of opinion that the exten- "sion of a system of small holdings is a matter of national importance," that it is "calculated to add to the security of property by increasing the number of persons "directly interested in the soil," and that it is "the chief means to remedy migration, "which intensified the competition for employment in manufacturing towns."

Chapman. Pars. 11, 20, 21, 28, 104.

15. Much evidence in the present inquiry is in the same direction. Districts are named where there are "a good many small holdings which promote thrift and lead to "real independence," and where there has been no decrease in the population. At Oakley, where there are small holdings, the men "are said to put more into the savings "banks than all the surrounding districts put together," while speaking more generally it is shown that "the amalgamation of farms and consequent loss of small farms is a "grievance never absent from the labourers' minds." A supplemental system of small holdings would also be an advantage to the large farmer, who (provided that amicable relations were cultivated between the two classes) would have a valuable reserve of skilled labour available in times of pressure. Even with regard to allotments

Mr. Chapman states that "the best farmers are beginning to realise that the supply of "labour is maintained and increased by the labourers having a bit of land." In the Appendices to the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners will be found valuable details touching small holdings which already exist in the several districts, and the success attending them often under unfavourable conditions.

16. The Small Holdings Act of 1892 is a practical measure for the creation of small cultivating ownerships. To make it generally effective it is only needed that county councils (in whose hands the administration of the Act is placed) should realise its importance and make a more earnest effort to put it into operation. Small Holdings Act, 1892.

I would recommend that a communication be sent by the Board of Agriculture to county councils calling their attention to the Act, and urging that special efforts should be made to put it in force. Recommendation.

That the Board should ascertain from those county councils which have put the Act into operation what defects, if any, have been found in the working of the measure, and such defects should be immediately remedied by legislation.

It is shown that a few among the rural industrial class in almost every district are in a position to take small farms if such could be obtained on favourable conditions. The barrier in the way of dividing large farms where necessary into small holdings is the matter of buildings, for the erection of which many landowners have not the money to spare.

To meet this difficulty I would suggest that loans be advanced by the State to landowners at a low rate of interest for the purpose of providing the necessary buildings for small farms of the kind and size defined in the Small Holdings Act, 1892. Recommendation.

Cottages.

17. The Reports of the Assistant Commissioners show that one of the most pressing needs in the labourer's condition is an improvement in cottage accommodation. The evidence shows that cottages on estates and in villages owned by one landlord are in most cases satisfactory, and in many cases very superior, and the rents of all of them low. On the other hand cottages belonging to private owners are too often in a disgraceful condition, and let at the highest possible rent.

In reviewing the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners Mr. Little remarks "there "is abundant evidence to show that a large proportion of the cottages inhabited by "labourers are below a proper standard of what is required for decency and comfort, "while a considerable number of them are vile and deplorably wretched dwellings." Mr. Little's Summary. Par. 46.

He further adds "it is impossible to read these Reports without experiencing a painful "feeling that too frequently, and too commonly, the agricultural labourer lives under "conditions which are both physically and morally unwholesome and offensive." Par. 48.

18. It is alleged as the greatest difficulty in the way of cottage improvement that the labourers cannot afford to pay sufficient rent to make the building of good cottages remunerative.

Much evidence was given on this matter before the "Royal Commission on the "Housing of the Working Classes," 1884, showing conclusively that labourers as a class could afford to pay, and large numbers of them would gladly pay, economic rents provided that land were attached to the cottages. Housing of Working Classes Commission. 14,558 to 16,564.

19. Mr. Little states that the unsatisfactory condition of cottages in rural districts is a subject that "deserves the gravest consideration with a view to the sugges-"tion of remedial action." He gives a valuable recital of the powers already possessed by local authorities, and is of opinion that fresh legislation is not so much required as a more active administration of the present laws. Mr. Little's Summary. 55–6, 58, 64.

20. I agree with Mr. Little's recommendations adopted by the Commissioners (Report, pars. 358 and 359). That the medical officer of health in each district (or districts combined) should give his whole time to the duties of his office; that he should receive a sufficient salary to enable him to do so; and that to secure his independence he should be appointed by the county council, subject to the approval of the Local Government Board, are recommendations of special value. Recommendations.

21. I agree with the recommendation (Report, par. 360) that State loans should be advanced to landowners at low interest for the purpose of building cottages, but such

loans should also, in my opinion, be advanced to local authorities in accordance with the provisions of the Labourers (Ireland) Acts. I do not share Mr. Little's fears (par. 66) that local authorities as constituted in Great Britain would in any way misuse the powers conferred on them. The "private enterprise" (which means the speculative builder) referred to by Mr. Little is, in my opinion, the most hopeless agency for the supply of cottages, suitable as regards gardens, &c., for the agricultural labourer.

Tenure of Cottages.

22. It is shown in the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners that great discontent exists on the part of the labourers through their being compelled in so many districts to hold their cottages at the will of the farmers for whom they work, instead of renting them direct from the landowners. The labourers feel keenly their liability to be turned out of their cottages often at a week's notice. They declare among other drawbacks that it "puts them under the power of the farmers," and that it "tends "to keep down wages."

Chapman. Par. 98. Wilkinson. Driffield Union.

The defence of this system is that farmers will not take land unless permitted to sub-let the cottages to the labourers. There is, however, evidence that the system, while disliked by the men, is of no real benefit to the farmers. One large farmer speaking of the system said that "it was better to let cottages by the year direct from "the owner as it gives tenants more independence."

Chapman. Par. 61.

23. Mr. Chapman approves of the plan of landowners retaining the cottages in their own hands, and allowing farmers to nominate into them, and adds, "I have heard "farmers say that they like it too, because it removes one source of constant suspicion "from the minds of the labourers. Men say that if the cottage is not independent of "the work they take no interest in keeping the garden in good order, or in looking "after the house, because the better its condition the worse is the penalty of "forfeiting it."

Recommendation.

24. I recommend that where an agricultural labourer (as defined by the "Labourers (Ireland) Acts") occupies a house under an owner or a farmer either as a tenant or in consideration of his services, the occupation should not be legally terminated without three months' notice being given by either party or by mutual consent.

Such legislation might be novel in principle, but it would remove a grievance which a study of the evidence shows is admitted to be a grave one, not only by labourers but also by landowners and farmers. It would tend to create more friendly relations between employers and employed, and it would give to the labourers something which without mockery might be called a home.

Labourers owning their Cottages.

Housing Working Classes Commission. 16,944, 16,955, 14,400, 14,412, 14,465.

25. To this branch of the subject belongs the question as to the desirability of giving, where possible, facilities and inducements to labourers to purchase their cottages. On this question special evidence was given before the "Housing of the Working Classes Commission," 1884, by labourers and others. Mr. Squarey was of opinion that "labourers should have as far as possible a settled stability in their houses "by freehold if possible, if not, then by lease." It was stated by witnesses of the labouring class that many of the labourers would avail themselves of any scheme by which they could become owners of their cottages.

Wilkinson, para. 78.

Mr. Wilkinson, Assistant Commissioner, states that "in almost every district I heard "of one or two men who were labourers and nothing else, who had saved money "enough to buy cottages for themselves."

Recommendation.

26. I recommend the adoption of the Bill brought into Parliament during the present session by Mr. Wrightson (Member for Stockton), the provisions of which would enable labourers to buy their cottages by paying a certain sum on the completion of the purchase and the remainder of the purchase-money by annual instalments.

Agricultural Education.

27. Competent agricultural labourers are of the "skilled" working class, and with the decline of the custom of apprenticeships greater efforts should be made to instruct

young persons in rural districts in the various branches of husbandry. The education given in country public schools is defective in this respect. Instead of having as its first object to inculcate in the minds of the young a knowledge of the rudiments of what should be, under proper conditions, the most interesting, healthful, and attractive of all occupations, the education given is calculated rather to implant in the young an ignorant dislike of the calling, and to encourage them to seek occupations in other directions. Money spent in technical education in rural districts is, to a large extent, wasted through the want of a preliminary training in the elementary schools.

Much interesting evidence on this subject is given in the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners. Mr. Chapman says, "it is difficult to get labourers' wives to attend "cookery schools, and the conclusion is that girls should be trained in cookery before "they leave school." Chapman. Par. 58.

One important witness states "it should be made a part of a girl's education to bake "bread. There are not three girls in my village who can bake bread properly. Boys "should be taught the elementary principles of agricultural chemistry and rudimentary "principles of agriculture." Wilson Fox. Thingoe Union. Appendix B.

No substantial progress will be made in this kind of instruction until the Education Department attaches more importance to it, and makes it to the interests of schoolmasters and managers, from a financial point of view, to give it prominence in the curriculum of their schools.

28. I recommend the adoption of the "Agricultural Education in Elementary Schools" Bill now before Parliament, which provides for practical instruction by means of school gardens, in pruning, grafting, fruit and vegetable growing, poultry and bee keeping, rotation of garden crops, use of manures, choice of seeds, action of birds and insects on crops, and other agricultural and horticultural subjects. Recommendation.

Thrift and Old Age.

29. All the Assistant Commissioners report at considerable length as to the existence of provident habits among the rural labourers. The evidence given with regard to sick clubs and provident societies of various kinds seems to prove that the labourers as a body are more thrifty and provident than any other class with similar means.

It is evident, however, that with their scanty earnings it is impossible for them to make any provision for old age. It is shown that for the great majority of them parish relief or the workhouse is the only refuge when past work. This is a prospect which weighs heavily with them all, and for which some remedy should be found.

30. Without adopting the extravagant and ill-considered suggestions made in certain quarters, I would recommend that the subject should engage the serious attention of Parliament with a view of finding some practical scheme which would, without the taint of pauperism, secure reasonable comforts to agricultural labourers in their old age. Recommendations.

(Signed) JESSE COLLINGS.

I agree with the foregoing Observations by Mr. Jesse Collings.

(Signed) EDWARD TROW.

Observations appended to the Report by Sir Frederick Pollock.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY.

I desire to express my regret that circumstances have prevented the Commission from considering the question of Employers' Liability in a more full and definite manner; and in saying this I do not forget that since the Commission was appointed the matter has been largely discussed in Parliament and elsewhere, nor do I suppose that the Commission could have added much positive information to that which is already before the public. As an individual Member of the Commission, however, I think it sufficient to state my own opinion in the fewest possible words.

The law as it stands under the Act of 1880 appears, and has long appeared to me, anything but satisfactory. The Act is not adequate in redressing the injustice brought into the law by the quite modern doctrine of "common employment;" and the measure of redress which it does give is given in a cumbrous and intricate form, so that to the persons most concerned the law must seem even less just than it really is.

I am of opinion that any substantial simplification of the law, whether accepted as final or not, should be welcomed as an improvement. I cannot but think that in the controversy arising out of the lately abandoned Bill the importance of "contracting out" was exaggerated on both sides. On the one hand there was very little positive evidence to establish the alleged evils of "contracting out" in general (and in particular I do not think the figures given as statistics of railway accidents, which were evidently not compiled on any uniform principle, can be safely relied on as tending to any distinct conclusion whatever); on the other hand it is far from clear that the prohibition of "contracting out" would really have such a prejudicial effect upon schemes of voluntary insurance as was apprehended in some quarters. There might be much to be said on principle for allowing contracting out as regards liability arising from the negligence of workmen in the same grade of employment, but not as regards liability for the negligence of persons in a position of delegated authority, or for defects in those permanent conditions of the work which are, or ought to be, within the employer's knowledge and control. But this might lead to distinctions too fine for practical application.

It seems to be thought by several of the workmen's representatives that a good deal of habitual and culpable carelessness as to conditions of safety exists among employers. Such charges, if intended to be used for any serious purpose, ought, in my opinion, to be specifically made and proved, with due notice and opportunity of defence to the persons charged. I am not aware that any such proof has been produced, and I express no opinion as to the likelihood that it would be forthcoming if required. But I think that, if duly produced, it would properly lead, not merely or principally to increased facilities for civil redress, but to the application, and, if necessary, the strengthening, of criminal jurisdiction.

(Signed) FREDERICK POLLOCK.

We agree with the first two paragraphs of the foregoing observations by Sir Frederick Pollock.

(Signed) A. J. MUNDELLA.
THOS. BURT.

Report by Mr. William Abraham, Mr. Michael Austin, Mr. James Mawdsley, and Mr. Tom Mann.

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Introductory.

We are unable to join in the Report of the majority of the Commissioners. The greater part of that Report is taken up, not with any statement of the ascertained facts of the relations between employers and employed, or of the conditions of labour, but with a summary of the arguments used by witnesses for and against particular proposals. So far as we can judge, this summary has been intelligently and impartially performed. But in the comparatively few cases in which any definite conclusion is expressed as to the facts themselves, these conclusions appear to us either inaccurate, or, at best, to present too favourable a view of the condition of the mass of the working population. On the great majority of the points brought before the Commission, the Majority Report makes no recommendations whatever, whilst the vague and scanty reforms which it suggests seem to us inadequate.

Reference is made in the Majority Report to the course taken by the signatories of the Minority Report. We do not feel called upon to defend our methods: the Recommendations contained in the Minority Report might have been taken in whole or in part by the majority of the Commissioners had they desired, and it would have given us the greatest satisfaction had this been done. The material difference in the character of the two Reports will show at a glance that this was impossible to any considerable extent.

The fundamental cause of disputes between employers and employed is to be found, we believe, in the unsatisfactory position occupied by the wage-earning class.

Notwithstanding a great increase in national wealth, whole sections of the population, comprising, as we believe, at least five millions, are unable to obtain a subsistence compatible with health or efficiency.* Probably two millions are every year driven to accept Poor Law Relief in one form or another.† In London, the wealthiest and most productive city of the world, we learn from Mr. Charles Booth's researches, that 32 per cent. of the total population falls below the "Poverty Line"—that guinea per week of regular earnings below which no family can live in decency and health. And when we find that in certain districts of the metropolis one-half and even three-fifths of the entire population fall below that minimum,‡ and that this state of things arises from no exceptional distress, but represents the outcome of 50 years of steady improvement,§ we cannot but regard the situation as calling for the gravest consideration of the Government. Nor is this destitution confined to unskilled or specially degraded classes of workers. Even in those grades in which labour is better paid, the statistics of the Labour Depart-

* See Mr. Giffen's evidence that 25 per cent. of the whole adult male workers in the kingdom "fall below the line" of 20*s.* a week, and that this might be taken as a low subsistence level. (6942, 8125, 8134, Commission sitting as a whole.)

† 3735, &c.

‡ "Labour and Life of the People," Vol. I.; compare the evidence of Mr. Booth and Mr. Giffen before the Commission.

§ 6963–72.

ment* show that a large number of competent mechanics are at all times out of employment whilst in periods of trade depression many thousands of men are in the same condition.

But whilst many competent and industrious artisans find no work to do, thousands of others are kept to labour for unnecessarily long periods. In nearly every branch of manual labour the length of the working day is greater than is compatible with the proper discharge of the duties of parentage and citizenship. Even in the well-organised skilled trades, where the normal working day is often only nine hours, or less, an excessive amount of overtime is systematically worked. The returns presented to the Commission by the Amalgamated Society of Engineers show that 71 per cent. of its members are in the habit of working overtime averaging nine hours a week. The evidence laid before us proves that many of the chemical workers, the railway and tramway servants, the shop assistants, the iron and steel smelters, and many grades of women workers habitually labour for at least 12 hours a day, whilst many exceed 15.†

Many thousands of workers still toil under circumstances which make disease and accident an inevitable accompaniment of their lives. Insanitary conditions still prevail in many workshops, and to a yet greater extent in the homes in which the sweated industries are carried on. Phthisis still decimates the badly ventilated workplaces of the compositors.‡ Except, perhaps, in coal-mining and one or two other trades regulated by special legislation, no systematic attempt has yet been made to utilise the resources of science for the prevention of death or disease in industry. We cannot believe it to be necessary, in the present state of scientific knowledge, that the occupation of a railway worker should be more hazardous than that of a soldier, or that potters and file-makers should die at three times the rate of clergymen.§ And if we turn from the occupations of the workers to the homes in which they live, the state of things appears to us equally unsatisfactory. We do not here refer so much to the insanitary state of the slums as to the actual amount of house accommodation which each family obtains. Nearly two and a half millions of persons in England and Wales alone, live in tenements which the Registrar-General declares to be overcrowded.‖ The statistics of the census, and those of Mr. Charles Booth, indicate that probably from 20 to 33 per cent. of the whole population of some of our largest towns dwell in one-room homes.¶ In London alone we infer that a quarter of a million persons, including probably 100,000 children, must be living under the conditions which are implied by the occupation, by a whole family, of a single small room for all the purposes of domestic life. The per-centage of one-room homes in Glasgow, Kilmarnock, and other Scotch towns is even greater, whilst of English towns, the Registrar-General reports that Gateshead, Newcastle, Sunderland, Plymouth, Halifax, Bradford, and Huddersfield all showed a higher per-centage of overcrowding than London as a whole.** In many districts of Ireland the conditions are equally bad. Nor are the evils of bad housing confined to the towns. The Reports of the Assistant Commissioners on the agricultural population reveal in nearly all districts a terrible deficiency of house accommodation, even for the at-present diminishing population of the country side.††

Finally we have the fact that of all who survive to the age of 70, one out of every three is believed to be in receipt of poor relief.‡‡ In London one death in every six takes place in the workhouse or workhouse infirmary. In some rural districts it has been said nearly every aged agricultural labourer is a pauper. We have been unable to ascertain the actual number of pauper funerals, but we believe that it would be found that throughout the whole kingdom one person out of every four or five is buried by the parish.§§

It is impossible to refrain from connecting this deplorable condition of the working class with the fact that two-thirds of the annual product of the community is absorbed by one-fourth of its members, and that the annual tribute of rents, royalties,

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* See "The Labour Gazette" for September 1893.

† See the Answers to Groups A., B., and C.; and the evidence from the occupations mentioned.

‡ Evidence of Dr. Ogle; see that of Mr. Bowerman, Group C., 22,955–7; Mr. Leahy, C., 27,510–1; Mr. Merry, C., 27,445–97: Mr. O'Grady, C., 28,377–459; Mr. Palace, C., 28,665–7.

§ See Dr. Ogle's evidence. Table I., p. 19, of Digest of Evidence before the Commission as a whole.

‖ Census Report, C. 7222.

¶ See 4710, &c.; and Census Reports.

** "Labour Gazette," January 1894, p. 21.

†† See the Reports, especially those of Mr. O'Brien, Mr. Chapman, Mr. McCrea, and Mr. Wilson Fox.

‡‡ See "Pauperism and Old Age Pensions," by Charles Booth; also Mr. Ritchie's return of 1892.

§§ It would in our opinion be desirable that the Local Government Board should obtain exact statistics on all these points.

and dividends levied upon the industry of the nation amounts to nearly five hundred millions sterling.*

With economic conditions such as we have described, the relations between employers and employed cannot, in our view, fail to be unsatisfactory. Strikes, and other signs of resistance on the part of the wage-earners, however inconvenient they may be in themselves, are only symptomatic of a discontent with existing social conditions, which we regard as healthful and promising. We do not wish to imply that the state of things is worse than it has formerly been. We believe on the contrary, that the average condition of the wage-earners has by the legislative and other reforms of the past 60 years been steadily improved. That amelioration has, however, been only partial. Large sections of the community still live under conditions which are but little removed from those to which the earlier Factory and Mines Acts were successfully applied.† We believe that an earnest and persistent attempt should now be made, in the light of experience and economic science, so to use the collective power and the collective wealth of the community as permanently to raise the standard of life of the whole wage-earning class, and especially of those sections which have remained outside the influence of previous reforms.

Such a policy will, of course require time. We have no faith in any one panacea of social reform. Much may be hoped, especially among the better paid workmen, from the advance of Trade Union organisation, Co-operation, and other forms of voluntary association. But for the elevation of the standard of life of the most necessitous sections of the wage-earners we are driven to look mainly to a wise extension of collective action. The social and economic progress of the workers depends, in our judgment, mainly upon the systematic development of democratic public activity in its three principal forms—the national or municipal administration of such industries as can conveniently be managed socially, the regulation of private enterprise in industries not yet taken over by the community, and the public provision, through the taxation of rent and similarly unearned incomes, of educational and other facilities necessary for the mental and moral development of all classes of the community.

The specific recommendations which we submit for consideration are confined to certain immediately practicable reforms on these lines.

The Sweated Trades.

The most pressing necessities of the industrial situation appear to us to be: (1) the reform of the "Sweated" trades; (2) the prevention of excessive hours of labour; and (3) the promotion of greater regularity of employment. In these directions we believe that much may be accomplished by a wise extension of those Factory and Mines Regulation Acts which have worked so admirable a revolution in the textile trades, and in the Northumberland mines. The state of the workers in the so-called "Sweated" industries demands, in our judgment, the promptest attention. The hundreds of thousands of families engaged in the manufacture of slop clothing, inferior shoes and slippers, cheap furniture and saddlery, and common chairs, nails, and cutlery, form (except where the industry is carried on under the factory system) one of the most oppressed and demoralised sections of the community. The fundamental cause of the exceptional degradation of these trades is, we are convinced, the prevalence among them of the system of giving out work to be done at the workers' own homes.‡ Whilst not recommending the actual prohibition of home work, we regard it as of the utmost importance that every practicable means should be employed against its extension. At present, however, it is specially favoured by the law. The employer who gives out work to be done in the workers' homes escapes the obligations imposed upon the factory owner.

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* See the evidence of Mr. Giffen, Mr. Sidney Webb, and Mr. Hyndman before the Commission as a Whole.

† See 8125, 8134, and Answers to Group C. We are unable to agree with the optimistic opinion expressed in the Majority Report that, "not only the relative, but perhaps even the actual numbers" of the "deplorably large "residuum of population . . . . . who lead wretchedly poor lives . . . . . are diminishing." No evidence to this effect was forthcoming, and in view of Mr. Charles Booth's conclusion that over a million and a quarter persons in London alone are below the "poverty line," and of Mr. Giffen's evidence that some two millions of adult male workmen are earning less than a pound a week, we doubt whether the much smaller population of fifty years ago could have furnished so large an actual number in this condition.

‡ See on this point the voluminous evidence of the House of Lords Select Committee on the Sweating System, 1888–90; as well as the testimony of Mr. Charles Booth and many others before the present Commission.

We are convinced that no important improvement can be made in the condition of the sweated workers until the typical regulations of the Factory Acts are rendered really effective for their protection. This can only be done by placing upon the employer in the sweated trades the same obligations as have long been fulfilled by the employer in the factory industries. If a clothing contractor, for instance, chooses to avoid the expense, publicity, and liability to inspection involved in having a factory, and prefers to use, for the execution of his work, the homes occupied by his operatives, he should nevertheless be held legally responsible in the same manner as a factory owner, for the sanitary condition, hours of labour, education, &c. of the persons employed for his profit. Proposals to this effect were embodied in a Bill,* prepared in 1891, by the present Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies (Mr. Sydney Buxton), and we strongly recommend that they should now be passed into law. A more drastic proposal on similar lines was pressed upon the Commission by Mr. Charles Booth.† In addition to the giver-out of work, Mr. Booth recommends that the landlord of tenements used for manufacturing purposes should be registered and made legally liable for the compliance of his tenants with all the regulations of the Factory Acts, not merely in respect of sanitation, but also as regards hours of labour, age, and education of workers, &c. This suggestion, emanating as it does from so cautious and experienced an observer appears to us well worthy of consideration, especially in places where, as in the poorer parts of London, in Staffordshire, and in Sheffield, the responsibility of the giver-out of work stands specially in need of supplement.

But the demoralising effects of home work call, in our opinion, for more than an alteration of the law. We recommend that every effort should be used by public departments and local authorities to check its extension. At present much of the business of the "sweating" contractors is the supply of uniforms, and other clothing to various public bodies. We are glad to learn that the Commissioner of Metropolitan Police has, for some years, made it a condition of his clothing contracts that all the work should be performed at the contractor's own factory.‡

The Board of Trade inserts the following clause in its clothing contracts:—

> "The contractor undertakes that all garments included in this contract shall "be made up in his own factory, and that no work shall be done at the homes of "the workpeople. Any infringement of this condition, if proved to the satisfac- "tion of the President of the Board of Trade, shall render the contractor liable "to a penalty not exceeding 100*l.* for each offence."

The London County Council adopts the following form:—

> "The contractors hereby expressly undertake and agree with the Council that "all work and labour matters and things whatever under this present contract shall "be executed done and completed by the contractors upon their own premises "in . . . . . , under a penalty of 50*l.* to be recovered by the Council "for every breach as often as the same shall happen, in case of default by the "contractors under this clause as a debt due to the Council from the contractors, "or the said amount of 50*l.* may in every case be retained by the Council and "deducted by them from any moneys due or which may become due to the "contractors from the Council under this or any other contract with the "contractors."

The "new contract of Her Majesty's Office of Works for works and repairs in the London district" provides that: "the contractor shall not assign or underlet his "contract, or any part or parts thereof, without the consent of the Commissioners "being first obtained, and shall not, without like consent, make any sub-contract or "sub-contracts for the execution of the works, or any part or parts thereof, *or employ* "*any taskmen in, upon, or about the works or repairs.*"

We recommend that such a condition should be inserted in every public contract and that its fulfilment should be vigorously enforced. We suggest that specimens of the approved forms of contract for each class of work should, by a circular from the Treasury, be brought under the special notice of every public department in the United Kingdom. We recommend moreover, that similar circulars be issued by the Local Government Boards for England and Ireland respectively, and by the Board of Supervision for Scotland, to every local governing body in the United Kingdom, drawing attention to the desirability of inserting corresponding conditions in all the contracts made by such bodies.

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* H. of C. Bill No. 61 of 1891.

† 5404–5589, before the Commission as a whole.

‡ The clause is given in H. of C., 189, 17th May 1892. See 3779. Compare H. of C., 435 of 1893.

We think that the Government should carry still further its crusade against sweating. Most of the army clothing, is, we understand, made in the Army Clothing Factory, under direct public administration. We are of opinion that it would be of great advantage if all clothing and other articles required for the use of public departments were equally to be produced without the intervention of a contractor or other middleman. The uniforms for the volunteer force, though practically paid for out of the capitation grant from Army Votes, are, for instance, at present often given out by the contractors to be made in the workers own homes. This practice should, we consider, be peremptorily forbidden by the War Office. If volunteer uniforms cannot at present conveniently be made in the Army Clothing Factory, the contractor should in all cases be required to have all the work executed in his own factory.

We recommend that a small departmental committee should be appointed to consider how the Army Clothing Factory can be made available for the production, not only of every article of clothing and saddlery required by the Army and Navy, but also for those supplied to the Scotch departments, the Customs, Post Office, Metropolitan Police, Prisons, and all other public departments. A similar factory should be established in Ireland for supplying the uniforms of the Royal Irish Constabulary and those required for all Irish Departments. It should, in addition, be at any rate open to local governing bodies to obtain similar stores from the Government Factory at cost price, and every encouragement and facility should be given by the Local Government Board to town and county councils to establish their own clothing and other factories, and the law should be so altered as to permit for instance the London County Council to execute orders for the Middlesex County Council or the St. Pancras Vestry if desired.

Hours of Labour.

The prevention of excessive hours of labour stands, in our view, second in importance only to the reform of the sweated industries. We believe that no factor in the degradation of the standard of life is more potent than the physical exhaustion and absence of leisure involved in long hours of manual work.

A regular working day not exceeding eight hours, with the suppression of all but inevitable overtime, would produce, in our judgment, not only a marked improvement of the health and efficiency of the wage-earning class, but also an incalculable extension of education, trade union organisation, co-operation, and other agenceis for raising the condition of the workers.* We think that the influence of every department of the Government should be persistently employed to achieve this important result.

Much may be done, we believe, by the mere example of the National Executive. We are glad to notice that, since the beginning of the Inquiry, the Secretary of State for War has established the Eight Hours' Day (without reduction of time-wage) in the War Office Factories. Unfortunately only the Admiralty has yet followed this excellent example. Neither in theStationery Office nor in the Mint, neither in the Factories of the Post Office, nor in the Warehouses of the Indian Store Department has any corresponding reduction of hours been made. We can see no reason why the workmen in one department of public employment should not be treated as well as those in another. We recommend that eight hours should be at once prescribed by an Order in Council as the normal maximum working day in all Government departments. The practice of working overtime should, by the same Order, be strictly limited to cases of special emergency, to be certified in each instance by the Minister responsible to Parliament for the department, and published in the "London Gazette." We think that it would be desirable to embody in an Act of Parliament corresponding provisions with regard to all persons in the service of local governing bodies in the United Kingdom. Pending such an Act, we recommend that a circular be sent to all such bodies by the Local Government Board, enclosing a copy of the Order in Council, and suggesting the adoption of a similar rule.

With regard to certain industries, the Government has already been entrusted by the legislature with power to regulate the hours of labour. Under the Railways Regulation Act of 1893, for instance, the Board of Trade is empowered in certain cases to call upon a railway company to shorten the hours of labour of its employees.

* We regret that no investigation was made by the Commission into the actual results of the adoption of the Eight Hours' Day in the large number of cases belonging to many different trades, in which the experiment has actually been tried. With the exception of a brief general statement by Mr. Allan, and some testimony relating to the Huddersfield tramways, absolutely no evidence has been obtained by the Commission as to the economic, financial, or social results of the reduction of hours.

The evidence leaves no doubt upon our minds that a vast number of railway workers are habitually on duty for over 70 hours per week.* We think that, pending further legislation, the Board of Trade should at once intimate to the railway companies its intention, if it is set in motion in the manner provided by the Act, of calling for the adoption within two years of such a schedule of working hours as would bring the normal maximum week's duty for any employee down to 48 hours, of which not more than 12 should fall in any one period of 24 hours. It appears desirable that the hours worked on railways should be checked by Government inspectors in the same manner as in factories.

Under the Factory and Workshops Acts, moreover, rules may be prescribed by one of the Principal Secretaries of State for the regulation of dangerous or unhealthy trades. The Home Office Committee on Chemical Works, for instance, were "impressed by the long hours of work which prevailed in some departments of "alkali works. They strongly advise the adoption of eight-hour shifts, which have "already been successfully tried in some departments at some of the works of the "United Alkali Company, whilst at the works of Messrs. Brunner, Mond, and Company "eight-hour shifts prevail throughout. Statistics supplied by the latter firm show a "large decrease in sickness since the adoption of the eight-hour system, while the "cost of wages paid per ton of alkali produced is now no more than it was under the "old system, although the men are paid the same wages for eight hours they were "formerly paid for twelve."† We strongly recommend that any Rules made by the Home Secreary for dangerous trades should in every case include the limitation of the week's work to 48 hours, or such shorter period as the character of the occupation may render desirable.

The evidence leaves no doubt upon our mind that for the mass of the workers an eight hours' day, with the effective suppression of habitual overtime, can be secured only by further legislative enactment. We have been much impressed by the great preponderance of working class witnesses in favour of the legal limitation of hours of labour, and still more by their practical unanimity as to the principle involved. Nothing appears to us more striking than the almost universal acceptance and rapid development of the movement for this explicit extension of the Factory Acts to all classes of labour. We think that the time has come when the expert advisers of the Factory Department should be directed to consider in what manner legal expression can best be given to this popular desire.

It will probably be convenient to deal with certain industries by special Acts.‡ We see, for instance, no reason why an Eight Hours' Bill for coal miners should not be immediately passed into law. Though no representative of the Miners Federation appeared before the Commission, the evidence leaves no doubt in our mind that an overwhelming majority of the coal miners, numbering probably three-fourths of the whole, are strongly in favour of legislation. Opposition among the working coal miners is, indeed, confined, if we exclude sub-contractors making a profit out of subordinate labour, practically to the counties of Northumberland and Durham. Here the shift of the hewers is less than eight hours, but the boys and some other classes of workers in the mine are underground for ten or eleven hours at a stretch. It is asserted that the local method of working renders any reduction of these excessive hours impracticable. But we notice that none of the numerous witnesses of the mine owner or manager class has committed himself to an explicit denial of the possibility of surmounting the difficulty by dividing the hewers in Northumberland and Durham into three shifts, instead of two, and the boys into two instead of one, a plan which is, we are informed, actually in successful operation in a number of pits in Durham, where it was adopted from other motives. Any such plan need not, of course, affect the total output, or the number of men employed, but merely their arrangement in shifts, and at the face. We express no opinion as to the desirability or otherwise of introducing a three-shift system where it is not already in force. But we entertain no doubt that, in this way, if in no other, the method of working in these two counties could, without serious difficulty, be adapted to an eight hours' law. The majority of the hewers in these two counties have, however, a strong dislike to begin their shift in the afternoon. We desire to express no opinion as to the validity of this

* See that of Mr. Levett, B. 24,077–153; Mr. Clifton, B. 24,167–306; Mr. W. Smith, B. 24,366–646; Sir George Findlay, B. 26,032–40; Mr. A. Ballantyne, B. 25,031–282; Mr. J. Paisley, B. 26,489–574; and others. See also the Board of Trade Returns as to hours, and the Evidence and Report of the House of Commons Select Committee, 1891, summarised for the Commission at page 89 of Vol. III. of Digest (Group B).

† "Labour Gazette," January 1894, p. 17.

‡ See the important testimony of Mr. Giffen, Controllor of the Labour Department, in favour of such Bills for coal miners, railway employees, chemical workers, &c., 7038–42.

dislike, but we cannot think that it should be allowed to stand in the way of securing to the hundreds of thousands of miners in other parts of the Kingdom, and to the boys and other workers in Northumberland and Durham themselves, the urgently desired boon of an eight hours' day.*

Another industry with which it may be convenient to deal by special legislation is the manufacture of textile fabrics. The cotton operatives, in particular, who were lately found doubting the practicability of a further shortening of the hours of labour, have since returned to their traditional position, and are now among its most strenuous supporters.† We believe that the hours of work of all textile workers could be reduced with advantage to the community. We recommend that the existing legal limit of 56½ hours per week should be at once altered to 48, the hours to be fixed for beginning and ending work being settled in consultation with the representatives of the industry. At the same time, the present nominal limitation of the law to mills in which women or children are employed should be expanded so as explicitly to cover all textile factories.

There are other classes of wage-earners, such as shop assistants and tramway workers, for whom special legislation may be expedient. Pending the adoption of more thorough proposals, we recommend that the Shop Assistants Bill prepared by Sir John Lubbock should be passed into law.‡ We think, too, that in all future railway or tramway Bills or Provisional Orders, the Board of Trade should require the insertion of a clause prescribing a maximum normal day for all persons to be employed.

We would, however, deprecate the constant application to Parliament of trade after trade. Such a course would not only consume much valuable time, but would, in our judgment, result at best in a lopsided regulation of industry which might be fraught with inconvenience and even danger. The precise and separate determination of the hours of labour in each of the different industries of the country would demand more investigation than the House of Commons itself could usefully undertake, and would involve more detailed regulation than could conveniently be embodied in statutory form.

What is required, is some continuous process of regulation, flexible enough to be adapted to the varied details of different industries, but not dependent upon incessant application to Parliament. Such a process is, we believe, to be found in a development of the system of Administrative or Provisional Orders, by which so large a part of modern legislation is effected. Under the Factory Act, for instance, the Home Secretary has already discretionary power to prescribe by order the hours between which alone persons engaged in certain occupations shall work ; to determine in what industries night work shall be permitted : and to exclude certain industries altogether from the Act. We recommend that an Eight Hours' Act should be passed, laying down the principle of a maximum working day, and authorising its application to particular industries, after due inquiry, by Orders similiar either to those made under the Factory and Workshop Acts, or to the Provisional Orders laid before Parliament on other subjects.

Under such an Act the Home Secretary, pending the creation of a minister for labour, might be empowered to direct inquiry to be made into the hours of labour of an industry when called upon to do so by a resolution of either House of Parliament or of any town or county council, or by the trades council of any town in which the industry was carried on, or by any registered trade union or employers' association in the trade concerned. The Home Secretary would appoint for the purpose of the inquiry a Commission of three or four experts, with full powers of investigation, both of the circumstances of the industry, and the wishes of those engaged in it, whether employers or employed. At the conclusion of its inquiry the Commission would report, (*a*) what were the facts as to the hours of labour ; (*b*) what appeared to be the predominant opinion among the members of the trade as to the regulation by law of their working hours ; (*c*) what regulation of the working hours, if any, was desirable, including the arrangement of the working day or week, the provision to be made for emergencies, seasons, &c ; (*d*) precisely to what trade or group of allied trades the regulation should extend ; and (*e*) whether the case was one in which the regulation of the hours of labour could be more suitably remitted to the local authorities of the districts in which the industry was carried on. Upon the receipt of the report, the Home Secretary would, if he deemed it advisable, issue an Order, either prescribing such a regulation of the maximum hours of labour, with such provisions

* *While quite agreeing with the demand for the eight hour day, I dissent from the three shift recommendation.* (*Signed*) *William Abraham.*

† See evidence of Mr. Hardern before the Commission as a Whole, 1161–4 ; compare also 4877.

‡ See the evidence of many witnesses before Group C., 30669 to 33418.

for emergencies, seasons, &c., as might be required for the trade, or else conferring upon town or county councils* in particular districts, or with regard to particular industries in all districts, the power of regulating the hours of labour, within limits specified by the Order. The Order of either kind might be required to be laid before Parliament, and after the lapse of forty days would become law unless either House, before the expiration of that time, presented an address against the Order, or any part thereof. In this way we believe that it would be possible promptly to secure an Eight Hours' Day for all manual workers with a due regard for the circumstances of each trade and the interests of the whole community, and without seriously encroaching upon the time of Parliament.

The Factory Department.

Such extensions of the Factory and Workshops Acts as we have suggested, both for the reform of the sweated trades and for the regulation of the hours of labour, must necessarily involve the enlargement, and perhaps the re-organisation, of the existing Factory Department.

Though hampered by the inadequate staff at its disposal, that Department has rendered inestimable service in raising the condition of the wage-earners in the factory industries. Unfortunately, although domestic and other small workshops have been, since 1878, included within the scope of the Factory Acts, no register of these workplaces has been prepared,† and though some attempt in this direction has, we believe, recently been made, the evidence shows that the great majority of them are not actually under inspection. We think it of great importance, on economic grounds, that all workplaces, whether small or large, and all industries, whether carried on in factories or in slum tenements, should be subject to equal though not necessarily identical regulation and control. The evidence is to us conclusive that in the great majority of the smaller workplaces the factory law has been allowed to remain a dead letter.‡ We therefore recommend that the Factory Department should prepare a complete register of all workplaces subject to the Acts, and that arrangements should be made as soon as possible for an equally adequate inspection of all such places, whether they be factories, workshops proper, or the so-called domestic workshops. The occupier of a factory or a mine is already required under penalty to report to the Factory or Mines Department his intention of commencing work. We think it of the utmost importance that a similar obligation should be imposed upon the occupiers of all other workplaces subject to the Acts. We agree with Mr. Charles Booth's recommendation that the landlord of any premises intended to be used for manufacturing purposes, or known to him to be so used, should likewise be required to communicate the fact to the Factory Department in order that it may be ascertained by inspection that the premises comply with the requirements of the law.§ With these reports, together with the register of home workers now required to be kept by employers giving out work, it ought soon to become impossible for any workplace subject to the Acts to escape the inspectors' notice. We recommend, that the Acts should be extended to all persons employed in laundries, and (at any rate as regards notice of, and protection against, accidents) to canals, docks, ships, and other craft in port, warehouses, buildings, and other works in course of construction, and any other places of like character not already subject to regulation.

A serious attempt to bring under inspection the small, as well as the large, workshops even if confined to those already subject to the Factory Acts, will involve a considerable increase in the staff employed. Even including the addition recently made the expansion of the Factory Department has, we believe, failed to keep pace with the growth of manufacturing industry, the steady extension of the scope of the law, or with the demands of public opinion.

This inadequacy of staff has not only prevented the Factory Department from making any serious attempt to enforce the law of 1878, as regards workshops. Even in the factories of Lancashire and Yorkshire, where the inspection is stated to be the most efficient, and where the actual working places are large and healthy, the lavatory accommodation is sometimes allowed to remain in a state which is a disgrace not only to the employers concerned, but also to the Government department responsible for carrying out the law. The investigations made by the Lady Sub-Commissioners afford, in the words of the official summary "ample evidence of the neglected, filthy and

* In view of such increased power it is highly desirable that the municipal franchise in Ireland should be assimilated to that of England.

† 4441-52.

‡ See Mr. Bignold, C. 10,185–94; Answers to Questions Group C.; and many witnesses before that Group; Evidence of Mr. Booth before the Commission as a Whole.

§ 5417–5801, Commission as a Whole.

"insanitary condition of the greater number of the lavatories in textile factories "... The scandalous state of things detailed may be briefly ascribed to two causes— "the inadequacy of the present system of inspection, and the ignorance and "indifference of the employers.* If this is the condition of the lavatory accommodation in the registered and well-known large textile factories, it is difficult to imagine what must be the sanitary state of the unregistered and uninspected workshops in which millions of the population pass half their lives. There must, it is clear, be a great increase in the scope and efficiency of factory inspection.

We do not recommend any increase in the number of inspectors of the present type. For most of the actual work of inspection we look rather to a large expansion of the new class of Assistant Inspectors, chosen mainly from the ranks of practical artisans.† We recommend that each of the present 57 inspectors should be provided with an adequate number of Assistant Inspectors, who, acting under his direction and control, should serve him as eyes and ears throughout his necessarily extensive district. These Assistant Inspectors should be eligible for promotion—if their service is satisfactory—to the rank of Inspector. We welcome the recent decision of the Home Secretary to appoint two women inspectors. We strongly recommend that this number should be increased. We think that a certain number of women should be included in the staff, to be employed not so much in the regular round of inspection duty, as for investigation of the complaints of women workers, and for special visits of inspection to their workplaces.

The present administration of the Factory Acts suffers, however, not only from the inadequacy of the staff of inspectors, but also from the failure to provide this staff with office accommodation or clerical assistance. Until very recently no public office existed outside of London at which a factory inspector could be consulted. No local address could be given at which he could be communicated with by post, other than his private lodgings or dwelling-house for the time being. His whereabouts, and even his very existence, remained therefore practically unknown to the workers in all but that small proportion of the total number of workplaces which obey the law requiring the placarding of his address, or which he was able actually to inspect. This isolation was increased by the large deduction made by other work from the time which he could devote to going about his district. Though his official correspondence is, or should be large, and his official reports are frequent and voluminous, no provision exists for the payment of a clerk. Any register of places subject to inspection must at present be made and maintained by the inspector himself, in addition to his daily burden of local correspondence and official reports. This description is still applicable to the greater part of the Kingdom. But since the Commission began its work, the Home Secretary has hired public offices for the Factory Inspectors in Birmingham, Leeds, Glasgow, and some other towns, and a small beginning has been made in the organisation of the office work. But a great extension in this direction is required. We recommend the adoption of Mr. Charles Booth's proposal that the Factory Department should at once procure local offices in, at any rate, all the large industrial centres ‡ These offices, which should be provided with an adequate clerical staff, should relieve the inspectors from the bulk of their correspondence, and should undertake, above all, the keeping of the register of workplaces subject to the Acts. The office administration should be made the charge of the superintending inspectors, and others specially assigned to this duty, the ordinary inspectors and their assistants attending only for consultation and reports, or by appointment. The offices could, of course, be made available for the mines inspectors, the number of whom requires, we believe, to be considerably increased. In this case, too, we recommend that the new appointments should be made, in the main, from the ranks of practical working miners or miners' agents.

In another direction, too, increased activity appears to be called for. The condition of the workers employed in unhealthy or dangerous manufacturing processes, or under insanitary conditions, demands the serious attention of the Factory Department. We cannot but regard it as unsatisfactory that so little attempt should hitherto have been made to diminish the rates of sickness and mortality among such trades as the potters, cutlers, white-lead workers, lucifer match-makers, &c.

The Factory Acts confer upon the Home Secretary the power of framing special Rules for dangerous or unhealthy trades. We regret that this power has hitherto been so little exercised. We note with pleasure the recent action taken by the Home Secretary appointing departmental committees to consider what steps should now be

* Summary of evidence upon the Employment of Women, p. 511.

† See evidence of Mr. Henderson, C, 9020–24; Mr. J. D. Prior, C, 6787–95; Mr. C. Booth (Commission as a Whole) 5418–5803.

‡ Evidence before Commission as a whole, 5418–5803.

taken with regard to one or two trades, but some more permanent organisation appears to be required. The Reports of those Committees, especially that relating to white-lead,* show how greatly additional protection is required, and indicate the importance of extending and systematising such investigations.

The Factory Inspectors' Reports contain frequent references to unhealthy or dangerous processes, often with suggestions for the protection of the workers.† In the absence, however, of any medical or scientific experts upon the staff of the Department, it has naturally been extremely difficult for the Home Secretary to frame Rules which should be at once practical and effective. We recommend that at least one such expert should be placed on the staff of the Factory Department with particular reference to this duty, and that adequate provision should be made for specialist assistance whenever required. It appears to us worthy of consideration whether, with this object, more use should not be made of the certifying surgeons, whose duty is at present restricted to passing young persons as fit to commence work in factories. Both the position and the method of remuneration of these officials appear to us to be open to improvement. We suggest that, at any rate in dangerous or unhealthy trades, the local surgeons might usefully be employed under the direction of the expert at head-quarters, to make periodical reports upon the condition of the operatives or to observe, over a prolonged period, the effect of particular processes.

But the whole subject of unhealthy or dangerous trades, and their effect upon the health of the community, calls, in our judgment, for further investigation. We recommend that a small commission of medical and scientific experts should be appointed to deal in succession with each of the industries in which the death-rate is above the average, with a view to the discovery of the causes of the excessive mortality and the manner in which it may best be prevented.

A further amendment of the law urgently needed is that relating to workers employed by the piece. The "particulars clause" (sec. 24 of the Act of 1891), though extremely useful as far as it goes, applies at present only to weaving. We strongly recommend that it should be extended in the clearest terms to all piece-work in the textile industries; and we think that the Home Secretary should be empowered further to extend it, by Order, to any other piece-work trades in which it is required.

Another industry in which additional registration and inspection appears to be required is that of canal traffic. The single Government inspector now charged with the enforcement of the Canal Boats Acts must obviously fail to maintain any effective supervision over the fifteen to twenty thousand canal boats and barges in all parts of the country. At present, too, there appears to be no educational standard required from children under 13 years of age employed on canal boats.‡

It is obvious that the development of the Factory Department which we recommend will involve increased expense. We estimate, however, that the additional charge, even if all our suggestions are adopted, would not exceed 50,000*l.* a year, an amount which we regard as small in comparison with the great social advantage to be expected from its outlay.

In connection with this development of the Factory Department the question arises whether the time has not come for the union under a Minister for Labour of the various departments now dealing with labour matters. We regard with satisfaction the recent appointment, under the President of the Board of Trade, of a Chief Commissioner for Labour, with a staff of central and local "Labour Correspondents." We anticipate great advantage from the preparation of accurate reports and statistics upon matters connected with the industrial condition of the wage-earning class, and their publication in so excellent a form as the "Labour Gazette." We recommend, indeed, that increased provision should be made in this direction. The Chief Commissioner of Labour ought always to be able to obtain the services of trained industrial investigators and special experts, whenever any particular problem requires elucidation.

It appears to us desirable that the Factory and Mines Departments on the one hand, and the Labour Department on the other, should be brought into close relationship. The extensive staff and wide experience of the older department could, we believe, be used so as greatly to facilitate the work of the younger. On the other hand, the intimate knowledge acquired by the Labour Department of the needs and feelings of the wage-earners would be invaluable to the departments charged with the protection of their standard of life. We recommend, therefore, the formation of a single Department of Labour, in which the present Factory and Mines Departments of the Home Office, the Labour Department of the Board of Trade, and the Registry of Friendly Societies should be included.

* See "Labour Gazette."

† See the Annual Reports of the Factory Department, 1885–92.

‡ See the evidence of Mr. George Smith and Mr. John Brydone, before Group B.

The establishment of a single Department of Labour, and the consequent union under one responsible Minister of all the branches of administration specially charged with labour questions, would afford a convenient opportunity for the creation of a special Minister for Labour, with a seat in the Cabinet. The increasing prominence of industrial problems and the growing participation in politics of the wage-earning class leads us to look with favour upon the appointment of such a Minister, to whose charge the proposed Department of Labour would naturally be committed. The creation of the Department itself would, however, involve no legislation, and need not be delayed until provision can be made for the appointment of a Minister for Labour.

Seamen.

We have reserved for a separate section the needs of the seamen, in whose case the protective law is administered, not by the Home Office, but by the Board of Trade. Any effectual elevation of the standard of life of other classes of workers must be accompanied by a similar advance for the sailor, or the percentage of British seamen on British ships will continue to fall. The evidence produced before us leaves no doubt of the great success of previous legislation regulating the mercantile marine.* We believe that the inspection of the Board of Trade officers and their not infrequent prosecutions of offending owners have been of the greatest value. That inspection and enforcement of the law has, however, hitherto been confined, in the main, to the prevention of actual wreck and loss of life at sea.

Since 1854, for instance, the Board has had power, under section 226 of the Merchant Shipping Act, to require any Local Marine Board to appoint a medical inspector of ships, charged with the inspection of medical stores on ships. Such officers appear, however, seldom, if ever, to have been appointed. We recommend that the action of the Board should now, in the public interest, be expressly extended to the improvement of the circumstances of the common sailor or fireman on board ship, so far, at least as regards the compulsory enforcement of the minimum requirements of health and efficiency. It must always be specially difficult, if not impossible, for a seaman himself to appeal to the courts of justice; and we consider that the Board of Trade should itself take action to ensure, both by inspection and by prosecution whenever necessary, that the law is complied with. The legislation immediately required appears to us to be (*a*) the enforcement of a compulsory manning scale† so adjusted as to secure a normal eight hours' day for sailors and firemen; (*b*) the restriction of the employment of Lascars, or other non-European seamen to a limited proportion of the crew; and (*c*) the insistance on the provision of proper sleeping accommodation for each seaman, with at least 120 feet of cubic space, and free from insanitary conditions.‡ Further provision is required for the enforcement of the existing law. We recommend, for instance, that the Board of Trade should make it part of its duty to see that the Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880,§ is carried out. At present, the sailor can only arrange for half his wages to be paid to his wife, and that only once a month. As this amount is often insufficient for the maintenance of his family, in many cases hardship arises. We recommend that the shipowner should be required to issue in this way, if desired by the seaman, at least two-thirds of the wages as they accrue, and to make the payments weekly.

The Bill providing for a minimum food scale, which passed its second reading in the House of Commons in 1892, ought, in our opinion, to be passed into law, and to be strictly enforced by the Board. We regard it, moreover, as important to the seaman's health that some qualification, however elementary, should be required before a man is engaged as cook.‖ Finally, we consider that the Local Marine Boards, of which the elected members are now chosen exclusively from shipowners by shipowners,¶ should be made equally representative of the seamen. We are glad to learn that the Board of Trade, which adds to each Board four nominated members, has lately appointed in many cases one seaman or ex-seaman. But we see no reason why the seaman registered as residing at each port should not, equally with the shipowners, possess the right of voting for and of electing representatives of their own class to a body in whose action they have no less vital an interest than their employers.

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* See the striking evidence of Sir Henry Calcraft, Permanent Secretary to the Board of Trade, before Group B.

† See evidence of Mr. Butcher and Mr. Wilson, M.P., Group B, 13,815–15,891.

‡ Evidence of Mr. Plimsoll, B., 11,307; Captain Hatfield, B., 13,312–6; Mr. Raeburn, B., 14,089–195.

§ See the Board of Trade Circular of 1st June 1891 given in Sir H. Calcraft's evidence (Group B).

‖ Evidence of Mr. Raeburn, B., 13,429–31.

¶ See House of Commons Return, No. 372 of 1890; evidence of Mr. Plimsoll, Sir H. Calcraft, Mr. J. H. Wilson, M.P., and others; Section 110 of Merchant Shipping Act of 1854.

Women Workers.

Another important section of workers requiring separate consideration is that of women and girls. The evidence obtained by the Assistant Commissioners indicates that, especially in the "sweated" trades in great cities, many hundreds of thousands of women are working at wages far below those of even unskilled men, often indeed at rates which are insufficient for healthy and decent maintenance. Women, too, are special sufferers from long hours and insanitary conditions, and have hitherto enjoyed but little means of obtaining redress through Trade Union action.

We regard the economic degradation of the women and girls in many of the industries of the great cities as constituting one of the most serious of industrial problems. Their condition is best in those industries in which the factory system has become universal, and worst in those in which home work most prevails. We consider that a strenuous endeavour should be made by the Government to raise the East London trouser finisher or fur-puller to the level of the Lancashire mill-worker.

We do do not propose any special legislation for women. We regard, however, almost every page of the Assistant Commissioner's Reports relating to women and girls as demonstrating the necessity and urgency of the reforms already described. Though much may be hoped from a spread of Trade Unionism among women workers, it is difficult to see how they can obtain by mere voluntary combination, either an eight hours day, or any material rise of the standard of wages, or sanitation. Their only hope lies in the extension of collective action by the State. The thorough enforcement and amendment of the Factory Acts, the gradual supersession of home work by the factory system, and the promotion of shorter hours and greater regularity of employment appear to us the most promising means of raising the condition of the poorer women workers. The extension of the Army Clothing Factory and other Government and municipal employment would, together with the stringent enforcement of clauses prohibiting home-work and requiring recognition of the Trade Union wages, co-operate most usefully in this work.

A few special points may be noted. We think that the number of women factory inspectors should be increased, and that local authorities might advantageously be urged by the Local Government Board to follow the example of the Kensington Vestry and the Dublin and Nottingham Town Councils in appointing women sanitary inspectors with the special object of enforcing the sanitary law in women's workplaces. Laundries, whether great or small, should, as we have already proposed, be brought under the Factory Acts, and these should likewise be extended so as to include those workplaces in the hardware trades in which women hire stalls or forges. The hours of bar and restaurant attendants should be regulated like those of other workers.

Special attention should be paid by the Home Secretary in dealing with unhealthy trades to those in which women or girls are employed.* The evidence shows that the Rules hitherto prescribed have been quite inadequate, and that the enforcement, even of these, has been greatly neglected by the Factory Department.† We think, for instance, that every case of "phossy jaw," lead colic, or the "wrist drop," and other results of specially dangerous industries, should be made the subject of a detailed and separate report by a medical expert, which should be considered by the Home Secretary and laid before Parliament, until some way of preventing such fearful incidents of modern industrialism is discovered, and though we are loth to recommend the closing of any career to women, we are driven, by the medical evidence of their greater susceptibility to lead poisoning, to the conclusion that their employment in the more dangerous portions of the white-lead manufacture should be absolutely prohibited.‡ This is strongly recommended by the Home Office Committee.§

The Agricultural Labourers.

The exhaustive Reports made by the Assistant Commissioners who inquired into the relations between the farmers and their labourers reveal, in our opinion, a deplorable state of things among the agricultural population.‖ Especially in Ireland and some counties in the south of England, the labourers' lot presents a sad picture. Though the condition of the labourer may, owing to the low price of food, be no worse than at previous periods, we cannot but regard it as profoundly unsatisfactory that so large and so important a section of the population should continue to exist on incomes

* The condition of the women employed in the weaving sheds at Belfast calls for immediate attention.
† See Miss Abraham's Report, throughout.
‡ See Miss Abraham's Report.
§ Labour Gazette, December 1893, p. 197.
‖ Nos. 2, 3, 14, 15, and 18 of C.—6894.

which do not exceed (even including all perquisites) 12*s.* to 15*s.* per week, whilst in Ireland it is often less than 8*s.* So long as wages in the country remain at the present low level the rural workman will remain a constant drag upon any attempts to raise the standard of the town worker. On this ground, if on no other, we consider that an earnest attempt should be made by the Government so to raise the standard of the rural workman that his minimum wage may rise to at least a sufficiency for the proper maintenance of a family.

Any thorough reform of the relations between employer and employed in agriculture involves, in our opinion, a fundamental revolution in the conditions of the ownership and tenure of land in the direction of State and municipal ownership, consideration of which may perhaps be deemed to lie beyond the scope of this report. We confine ourselves, therefore, to various minor proposals in the direction of increasing the independence and elevating the position of those who work on the land.

The first step towards improvement appears to us to lie in the transformation of the labourer's home. Almost every volume of the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners testifies to the need of better housing accommodation.* The official summary records that "there is abundant evidence to show that a large proportion of the cottages "inhabited by labourers, are below a proper standard of what is required for decency "and comfort, while a considerable number of them are vile and deplorably wretched "dwellings.†

Though much has been done in some villages, in others (as for instance, in parts of Dorsetshire) the state of the cottage accommodation remains practically as bad as it was in 1867. In Ireland the provision under The Labourers (Ireland) Act of 1881 of over 11,000 cottages out of public funds, and the letting of these by the boards of guardians direct to the labourers has been productive, as the Assistant Commissioners report, of immense advantage.‡ This Act, although a great boon to the Irish agricultural labourer, is sadly deficient in its procedure, and the legal expenses connected with its operation stultify to a great extent the object in view. An amendment of this Act is of the utmost importance, giving greater facilities to boards of guardians in the acquiring of land, and reducing to a minimum the legal costs. In fact, to be thoroughly effective the Act should be made compulsory. We recommend that the parish councils in Great Britain should receive the same power of providing cottages as is enjoyed by boards of guardians in Ireland, and by town councils throughout the whole country; and that every encouragement and facility should be afforded by the Local Goverment Board for the free exercise of this power.

In only one case, that of Thingoe, Suffolk, has a rural sanitary authority in England built cottages, under a scheme sanctioned in accordance with Part III. of the Housing of the Working Classes Act.

We recommend that the duty of providing adequate sanitary housing accommodation should be brought forcibly home to the rural authorities by a circular from the Local Government Board, and that in every case in which the accommodation is reported to be deficient, a special communication should be addressed to the local authority, inciting it to take action. We believe that the provision of an abundant supply of cottages, owned neither by the landlord nor the farmer, but tenable directly from a public authority, would go far to increase the independence and improve the position of the English labourer.§ Scarcely less important than the supply of cottages is the provision of allotments and small holdings. We are strongly averse to the statutory creation of any new individual landowners, but, in order to effect a rise in the wages of farm labourers, we recommend that the utmost possible facilities should be afforded to parish and district councils to both purchase and hire land compulsorily, for the purpose, not of selling, but of letting it out in small plots. With a view to bringing about a general rise of agricultural wages and agricultural independence, we should seek to enable every enterprising labourer to get access to a piece of land if he desires to do so. To be of service it must be within a mile of his cottage, as otherwise he cannot reach it to put in his odd time. It must also be obtainable at a fair rent as compared with that which farmers pay for land of similar quality. Finally the dilatory and costly processes prescribed by the Allotments Act should be greatly simplified, and the Act should be extended to Ireland.

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* See Mr. Rutherfurd's Report, pp. 22–27: Mr. Chapman's, pp. 31–35; Mr. Thomas's, pp. 21–21; Mr. Spencer's, pp. 14–17, and especially pp. 29–31.

† Par. 46 of Summary.

‡ See especially Mr. McCrea's Report, p. 10.

§ Compare the significant objection to the more extensive carrying out of the Labourers (Ireland) Act, 1881, made to Mr. McCrea: "There is no use beating about the bush, the farmers do not want to create a new order "of labourers who would have the control of the situation," p. 10.

The lot of the labourer in old age demands, moreover, immediate attention. We are satisfied neither with the workhouse nor with outdoor relief as the community's provision, in declining years, for those who have tilled its soil. The subject of pensions for the aged is, perhaps, beyond the scope of this Report. But we cannot refrain from observing that the grant of an honorable pension from public funds, to all aged persons alike, as recommended by Mr. Charles Booth,* would, in our opinion, do much to raise the status of the poorer classes of workers, and especially to increase the independence of the agricultural labourer.

We do not pretend in these few suggestions, in any way to exhaust the reforms which are needed before the farm labourer can be placed in a satisfactory position. His greatest want is freedom and independence.† We believe that the new parish councils, if allowed a fairly free hand by Parliament and the Local Government Board, will gradually supply this want better than any action of the central Government could do. For the village therefore, we recommend Democratic organisation, with full power to deal with village problems.

Employers' Liability.

The reform of the law relating to the employers liability for accidents to persons in his employment has been so exhaustively dealt with by the House of Commons in the Session which has just closed that we think it unnecessary to go into details. We are strongly impressed with the need for a change in the law to meet the many hard cases that now arise. The Bill passed by the House of Commons, but not agreed to by the Lords, embodies the reforms which we recommend. We strongly urge that a renewed attempt should immediately be made to pass it into law. We are utterly opposed to any employer or any wage-earner being allowed to "contract out" of the law. We regard it as of paramount importance to the whole community that the standard conditions of safety, like those of health, education, sanitation, &c., should be irrevocably secured to every person; and that the miner should no more be permitted to sign away the benefits of the Employers' Liability Act than those of the Mines Regulations Acts. The privilege of "contracting out" in return for some real or fancied individual advantage, is contrary to the whole principle of our factory and mines regulation, our Truck Acts, and Education Code, and with the laws dealing with the public health. It is no inconsiderable argument in support of this view that every Trade Union representative who has come before us has, without exception, expressed himself strongly against "contracting out."

Meanwhile, seeing that the principle of the Bill of 1893–4 has been endorsed by the Cabinet and the House of Commons, there is nothing to prevent the Government from at once adopting its provisions as far as their own employees are concerned. Such a declaration, if widely advertised, would have a considerable effect upon the practice of other employers of labour, especially town councils and other local authorities, and would secure the advantages of the Bill for many thousands of workmen. We recommend, therefore, that an Order in Council or a Treasury Minute, should explicitly adopt as the rule of all departments of the public service the provisions of the Bill of 1893–4.

The Unemployed.

Perhaps the most unsatisfactory of all the features in the present relations between employers and employed is the irregularity of the work of large sections of the community. We regard this irregularity as one of the most serious of the factors at present tending to degrade the standard of life.

Instability of work arises mainly from three distinct and widely different causes. Seasonal fluctuations in some trades greatly affect the numbers employed from month to month. The alternate expansion and contraction of trade throughout the industrial world causes periods of depression which are marked by widespread lack of employment. And arising out of these two causes and co-operating with them in producing an unemployed class, we have, finally, the existence of an unfortunate residuum of labour so demoralised by poverty, ill-health, and irregularity of life as to have become unfit for regular work.

These three causes need, it is clear, to be separately dealt with. With regard to seasonal fluctuations, we believe that the drastic reform of the sweated trades, the

* "Pauperism and Old Age Pensions": see Mr. Giffen's evidence, 7015–20: compare the suggestions at pp. 29, 34, of Mr. Thomas's Report, at p. 20 of Mr. Spencer's, and that of an employer at p. xxxv. and 686 of Answers (Group C.).

† "His aim must be to acquire in a full sense the power of bargain, and when that is attained good and sufficient wages will be paid by the farmer." (Mr. Chapman's Report, p. 47.)

general establishment of an eight hours' day, and the thorough enforcement of the Factory Act, would go far to diminish the minor irregularities of employment. Much can be effected too in nearly all industries by the exercise of a reasonable consideration on the part of public authorities. We consider that it should be regarded as one of the most important functions of public administration so to use its power and influence as to mitigate seasonal irregularity of employment as far as possible. We think, for instance, that every public authority should take into consideration the state of the labour market in arranging at what season of the year it will have its work executed. The number of painters out of work in the winter would, for instance, be diminished if it were made a rule that no painting work should be done for public authorities in the busy season. The irregularity of employment among compositors might be greatly mitigated if some consideration were shown in the dates at which large public printing orders were given out.

In one case, however, the evil effects of irregular employment are too serious to be dealt with in this manner. The continued demoralisation of the riverside population of East London, by the system of casual labour, constitutes, in our opinion, the gravest of all the problems which the Metropolis presents. No real improvement can be effected in the condition of East and South-East London so long as the system of intermittent employment of casual dock and wharf labourers prevails. Irregularity of river traffic cannot, of course, be entirely avoided. But the experience of the Post Office, the co-operative societies, and the great railway companies shows that it is possible to combine prompt management of fluctuating business, if on a sufficiently large scale, with the regular employment of a disciplined and well-organised staff. If we could raise the condition of the dock labourers even to that of the railway porters or Post Office employees the gain to London would be incalculable. So long as the administration of London's docks and wharves is entrusted to a large number of competing employers, we see no chance of this immense social reform being accomplished.

We recommend, therefore, that the Board of Trade, in consultation with the London County Council, should at once prepare a Bill for the establishment of a representative Dock and Harbour Board for the Thames, with power to take over and administer the docks and wharves below London Bridge, as well as all the present functions of the Thames Conservancy Board, at any rate as regards the lower Thames. The Thames Docks and Harbour Board should, of course, include representatives from the London County Council, the Town Council of West Ham, and other local authorities interested. We think, moreover, that one representative of the shipowners and one of the dock labourers might with advantage be added. And it should be charged upon the Board, as one of its primary duties, to take such steps as may be possible for the organisation and permanent employment by the Board itself of a regular staff of dock and riverside labourers.

In this connection we have had submitted to us by one of our number a plan for concentrating and improving the dock accommodation of London by cutting a new channel across the Isle of Dogs.* Such a project, if feasible, would present many advantages, and would probably greatly promote regularity of employment on the river and in the docks and wharves. It involves, however, engineering and financial problems of importance, and we recommend that it should be made the subject of a special report by suitable experts, which should be laid before the Thames Docks and Harbour Board as soon as this is established.

The extensive failure of employment which results from commercial depression appears to us to be, as Lord Farrer declared,† "an inevitable consequence of private enterprise," that is, of the management of industry by individual capitalists for the purpose of personal gain. Where an industry is carried on, not for private profit, but in order to supply a public want, much greater permanence of work can be secured. The Postmaster-General, for instance, who is by far the largest employer of labour in the country, and who has to deal with an ever-fluctuating business, never, as we are informed, dismisses from lack of work any employee who has once been taken on the establishment. And the evidence given on behalf of the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society‡ indicates with what success the elimination of the profit-maker and the substitution of production with direct reference to a known demand, may transform industries hitherto irregular, into sources of constant employ-

* See evidence of Mr. Tom Mann before the Commission as a Whole.
† 8043, Commission as a Whole.
‡ Evidence of Mr. W. Maxwell before Commission as a Whole, 449.

ment. The only real remedy for the instability caused by commercial fluctuations is, we believe, the gradual substitution of the collective for the competitive administration of industry. Every extension of public administration almost necessarily results in an increase in the area of constant, as compared with irregular employment, and a consequent rise in the standard of life which cannot fail to be the marked advantage of the whole community.

This consideration furnishes, in our view, an important argument for the extension, wherever practicable, of municipal and national administration. In the meantime, however, there remains to be dealt with the widespread distress and demoralisation caused by the periodical failure of employment in times of commercial contraction. We believe that in such cases a considerable latitude should be permitted to local authorities.

In any district in which distress has arisen from a serious contraction of the local industries, vestries, local boards and town and county councils should be allowed, and even encouraged, to co-operate with boards of guardians, in dealing with the distress, not necessarily on poor law lines, but in whatever manner may be thought best. Public works of a useful, though not necessarily of a remunerative character, may often be undertaken with advantage under such circumstances, full wages being paid to those employed, and no stigma of pauperism being attached to this relief.

Sufficient trial has, we believe, not yet been made to warrant any conclusive judgment as to the extent to which this method of relieving exceptional distress can safely be carried, and the manner in which it may be best applied. Any reasonable experiments by local authorities should therefore be encouraged and welcomed by the Local Government Board. They should, however, be regarded frankly as experiments, and we attach the greatest possible importance to their working and results being exhaustively investigated and recorded—not by any of the persons concerned, but by the impartial experts of the Labour Department. Only in this way can we hope to make the experiments useful in the solution of a problem which, in our opinion, ranks among the most difficult of those presented to us.

But whatever may be done to promote greater regularity of work, and to deal with special distress among efficient workmen, there will still remain a further and quite distinct problem. There exists in our great cities a permanent class of unemployed, or only casually employed labourers, living always from hand to mouth—comprising, we believe, no very large per-centage of the population, but sufficient in number to constitute a source of grave social disease. This class must not be confused with the regular and efficient workmen, to whom we have hitherto been referring. Some of them, indeed, are regular workers enough, when they can get work to do. These need only a better organisation of industry to rank as efficient citizens. Others are, in their present condition, unfit for any better organisation. The degradation of extreme poverty, the weakness arising from long continued want, and above all, the demoralisation due to irregularity of life, have combined to produce an unfortunate residuum physically and morally incapable of constant work. The degeneration of character with which we have here to deal, must, we consider, be treated as a case of disease. We must aim at preventing any spread of the contamination, especially among children. By raising the standard of life of the poorest workers, in the ways suggested throughout this Report, we must stop the causes which are daily recruiting this degenerate class. By longer school training, and better technical education, we ought to ensure that its ranks are no longer swollen by the untaught, half skilled youths whom the first shock of industrial dislocation throws out of work.*

For the actual invalids of labour—those unfortunates who have already become unfit for regular work—we should welcome the establishment of experimental labour colonies, under strict government, to which any man might be committed for a fixed term, to undergo the course of mental and technical educational discipline most calculated to restore him to the ranks of the workers. The solution indeed of this particular problem lies, in our opinion, in a wise development of the poor law, based upon the principle that paupers, no less than hospital patients, fall naturally into distinct classes, each requiring its own particular skilled and separate treatment, directed not to punish, but to cure.

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* The practice of the employers in some trades of displacing adult labour by boys and "learners," who receive no adequate training, obviously intensifies the evil. The employer of children is already compelled by law to allow them time to attend school, and to see that they do so. The undue multiplication of apprentices, "learners," and boy labour might equally be dealt with by an amendment of the Factory Acts, which should require every employer of persons under 18 years of age to allow them time to attend technical classes.

Conditions of Public Employment.

It follows from the general lines of our argument that the Government should, in our opinion strive always to show itself a model employer. Since the Commission began its work this principle has, at the instance of Sir John Gorst, been explicitly adopted by the House of Commons. On the 6th of March 1893 the House resolved:—

"That in the opinion of this House, no person should, in Her Majesty's Naval "Establishments, be engaged at wages insufficient for a proper maintenance, and that "the conditions of labour as regards hours, wages, insurance against accidents, "provision for old age, &c. should be such as to afford an example to private "employers throughout the country."*

This resolution was, after instructive debate, expressly accepted by the Government as applicable to all the public departments, and was adopted without a dissentient voice. We look upon this new departure as of the utmost importance. The example set by public departments and local authorities who, together employ directly a considerable proportion of the adult male labour of the country has, we believe, a great effect upon the condition of other wage-earners.

Its influence in raising the general standard of life cannot fail to be considerable, whilst the constancy of its action makes it an invaluable lever of social reform.

We regard it therefore as of the highest importance that every public authority should so arrange the conditions of its service as to exercise a good effect upon other employers. Every opportunity should be taken of making publicly known that the old principle of the Treasury that the Government ought to buy its labour in the cheapest market, and pay it no more than the competitive prices, has been definitely and deliberately abandoned. The contrary principle now that it has been endorsed by two resolutions of the House of Commons† will, we presume, be expressly adopted as the rule of the public service.

Many complaints have, however, been made to us that the Government is, in some departments, far from being a model employer.‡ We consider, for instance, that the wages paid by the Admiralty to the labourers in the Deptford Victualling Yard, by the Post Office to some of its sorters and letter-carriers; by the War Office to labourers at Woolwich and elsewhere; and by the Board of Customs and Inland Revenue to some of their employees, violate, even after the reforms recently effected, the spirit of the House of Commons resolutions, and ought at once to be reconsidered in connection with the question of the income below which efficiency and decent family life cannot be maintained. For the Government to pay less than this amount is actually to create the poverty and social demoralisation which it is elsewhere combatting. In view of the testimony of Mr. Giffen, and Mr. Charles Booth, and the experience of the London County Council, and other municipal bodies, we think that the minimum wages of any able-bodied adult man in public employment in London should at any rate not be less than 24*s.* a week. For adult women in London, the County Council minimum of 18*s.* a week might be adopted, though equal wages ought to be paid for equal work whether performed by man or woman. In other localities where the cost of living is less, the minimum might vary accordingly, but we think that in no case should a lower rate than 21*s.* a week be paid to adult men. The minimum should be periodically reconsidered with a view to its being raised whenever practicable, and it would be well for the Labour Department to prepare every tenth year, a general report upon the conditions of Government, compared with municipal and private employment respectively.

So far we have referred only to the absolute minimum wage below which it is prejudicial to the community that any family should sink. For all but the most unskilled labour, however, a more advantageous standard of life has usually been secured, which is expressed in the standard rate of the Trade Union concerned.

We consider that wherever a Trade Union standard wage or list of piece-work exists, and is in practice observed by the private employers, or any considerable section of them, it should be adopted by all public authorities employing the particular class of workmen concerned.

The coopers, for instance, who are employed by the Admiralty in the Deptford Victualling Yard at low wages ought to be paid in accordance with the list of prices

* 6th March 1893. Hansard, p. 1180, vol. 9.

† 13th February 1891 and 6th March 1893.

‡ See for instance p. xvi. of the Summary of Answers received (Group C.), and p. xi. of the Summary of Answers (Group A.).

agreed to by the London Master Coopers' Association, and the Trade Union (the Philanthropic Society of Coopers.)

The War Department should give up its refusal to recognise at Woolwich the standard rate of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers. The standard rates in practice obtained by the Associated Society of Shipwrights should be accepted in the Admiralty Dockyards. We regret to see, too, that the ship riggers complain* that their members in the dockyards receive far less than the normal rates paid elsewhere.

With regard to the hours of labour we have already expressed our opinion that the Government should set an example to other employers by establishing the eight hours' day as the normal maximum in all public departments, and by strictly limiting overtime to actual emergencies.

The practice, moreover, followed by some departments of engaging extra men just when required, and ruthlessly dismissing them as soon as the pressure is past, ought, except in cases of absolute necessity, to be abandoned. Such a practice is unheard of in the clerical branches of the Civil Service, where fluctuations of work also exist. We believe that it would be quite possible, by the exercise of a little foresight and consideration, so to regulate the demand for manual labour in public departments as to reduce irregularity, as far as ordinary periods are concerned, to a minimum.

We recommend further, that wherever it is possible for any public department to dispense with the contractor, or other middleman, and to directly employ its own labour, it is desirable that this course should be adopted. We have already referred to the desirability of extending the Army Clothing Factory, and of establishing a similar factory in Ireland. The Office of Works and Public Buildings ought to execute all repairs and cleaning, and all ordinary building operations for the public service, by its own directly employed staff. We see no reason why the example of France, the United States, and many of the colonies, in maintaining a Government Printing Department should not be followed by the Stationery Office. And we must, above all, condemn the practice adopted by that Office, as well as by the Post Office, of employing a contractor as middleman for the performance of its cartage, instead of having its own carts, horses, and drivers.

Where it is necessary to enter into contracts for supplies or works, the House of Commons resolution as to securing payment of fair wages should be strictly observed. We cannot regard as sufficient compliance with this resolution the practice followed by some departments of merely informing the contractor of its tenor, or of inserting a vaguely worded general clause in the contract.† We think that it would be of great advantage if the example of the London County Council, in expressly binding the contractor to pay the Trade Union standard rates, *as specified in a schedule to the contract*, and to observe the Trade Union hours and other conditions, were followed by all public authorities, and we recommend that this form should be adopted by the Government.

The express adoption by the Government of the labour policy which we have indicated—a policy which has, as we have said, in substance already received the endorsement of the House of Commons—would, we believe, be of incalculable influence in raising the general standard of working-class life throughout the country. In order to ensure the adoption of the new policy by every public department, we recommend that it should be embodied into a formal Minute of the Lords Commissioners of the Treasury, and communicated to all public departments. It would, moreover, be of great advantage if the Minute were communicated by a circular from the Local Government Board commending the example of the Government, including its acceptance of the provisions of the Employers' Liability Bill, to all local governing bodies in England and Wales, by the Chief Secretary to all local authorities in Ireland, and by the Secretary for Scotland to all those in that country.

Conciliation and Arbitration.

So long as the mass of the working population remain in their present economic condition, we see no prospect of entirely preventing the dislocation and suffering caused by strikes and lock-outs. We believe that so long as industry is carried on, not with a view to public needs, but for the sake of private profit, and so long as the land, the mines, and the instruments of producton are in unrestrained individual ownership, it will be impossible to avoid industrial disputes.

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* See the complaints in the Answers to Group A., at pp. 137, 150, 169, 173.

† House of Commons Return, No. 189 of 17th May 1892.

We do not, therefore, think that any machinery for conciliation or arbitration will put an end to strikes and lock-outs.

Trade disputes fall into two distinct classes. On the one hand we have questions as to the proper interpretation of an existing agreement, or its application to a particular piece of work. This class of questions is, in our view, well adapted for settlement by joint boards, whether of conciliation or arbitration, similar to those in the boot and shoe making industry. We should welcome the establishment of similar boards in every industry, to be fully recognised by the Board of Trade, but in no way controlled by it. It is indispensable that they should be composed of equal numbers of employers and employed, and that the latter should be elected by the Trade Union concerned. As the main purpose of these boards would be conciliation, we see no advantage in giving them any legal functions or compulsory powers. Their decision can only be effective in so far as it brings to bear the common public opinion of either side. One great advantage to be expected from them is, indeed, the breaking down of that repugnance, still unhappily felt by some employers, to expressly recognise the officers of the Trade Unions, and to frankly confer with them on equal terms. Such joint boards might do much to maintain a uniform standard wage in each trade throughout the district, and thus serve to prevent that nibbling at wages and cutting of prices by a few unscrupulous employers, which is at present a fruitful source of disputes. They could also render most valuable service in trades in which piece-work prevails by the formulation of detailed piece-work lists, and their application to new jobs.

For the other class of questions—the terms upon which a *new agreement* should be entered into—which includes all proposals for general advances or reductions of wages, increase or decrease of hours, &c., arbitration appears to us to be of little real use, and to be of equivocal advantage to the workman. The points at issue are not such as admit of decision upon any principles which both sides accept. In the recent colossal dispute in the coal trade, for instance, the employers demanded a reduction of rates on the ground that prices and profits had fallen. The men refused to submit to any reduction because, as they alleged, even the former rates did not amount to a "living wage," that minimum necessary for efficient citizenship below which it is to the public interest that no person should sink. Before an arbitrator could have dealt with this case, the prior question must first have been settled of whether wages ought to follow prices, or prices wages, a point of social or industrial policy on which there is no agreement.

The result of this absence of settled principle has been that, where cases of this description have been referred to arbitration, the issue has usually turned upon a comparison of the period in question with some "normal year," and the decision has been given upon consideration of whether the employers were making profits higher or lower than those of that year. But this, it will be obvious, comes in effect to stereotyping the average position of the workman at that which he enjoyed in the year 1870, 1880, or any other year selected as the normal period. Believing, as we do, that the whole energy of the community should be turned to increasing the share which has hitherto fallen to the wage-earner, we are opposed to any system which tends to accept the past or present standard as a basis for the future. If arbitration is resorted to at all, with regard to this class of questions, we think that it should only take place on a reference which (omitting all mention of fluctuations of prices or profits, or of any normal year) is explicitly based upon an inquiry whether the existing conditions are or are not consistent with efficient citizenship.

The only legislation relating to this subject that appears to be required is the grant of adequate power to the Labour Department to obtain the fullest possible information about the facts of every dispute, the actual net wages earned, the cost of living, the price of the product, the cost of manufacture, the salaries and interest paid, the employers' profits, and any other details that may seem material. We recommend that the Labour Department should be given power to obtain these facts, voluntarily if possible, but where necessary, by compulsory inspection of accounts, &c. in order that the issues between the contending parties may be impartially and accurately ascertained, and put fairly before the combatants and the public. The great and increasing part taken by the press and public opinion in large industrial disputes, even to the extent of contributing large sums in support of one or other party, not to mention the occasional intervention of the Government, renders the fullest possible investigation by a Public Department absolutely necessary in the interests of justice.

Proposed Alteration of the Trade Union Acts, 1871–76.

One proposal, made to the Commission by several witnesses, appears to us open to the gravest objection. This suggestion is that it would be desirable to make Trade Unions liable to be sued by any person who had a grievance against the action of their officers or agents. To expose the large amalgamated societies of the country with their accumulated funds, sometimes reaching a quarter of a million sterling, to be sued for damages by any employer in any part of the country, or by any discontented member or non-unionist, for the action of some branch secretary or delegate, would be a great injustice. If every Trade Union were liable to be perpetually harassed by actions at law on account of the doings of individual members; if Trade Union funds were to be depleted by lawyers' fees and costs, if not even by damages or fines, it would go far to make Trade Unionism impossible for any but the most prosperous and experienced artisans.

The present freedom of Trade Unions from any interference by the courts of law—anomalous as it may appear to lawyers—was, after prolonged struggle and Parliamentary agitation, conceded in 1871, and finally became law in 1876. Any attempt to revoke this hardly won charter of Trade Union freedom, or in any way to tamper with the purely voluntary character of their associations, would, in our opinion, provoke the most embittered resistance from the whole body of Trade Unionists, and would, we think, be undesirable from every point of view.

Conclusion.

To sum up; we regard the unsatisfactory relations between employers and employed as but one inevitable incident of the present industrial anarchy. The only complete solution of the problem is, in our opinion, to be found in the progress of the industrial evolution, which will assign to the "captains of industry," as well as to the manual workers, their proper position as servants of the community.

Meanwhile, the relations between capitalists and manual workers are enormously embittered by the demoralising conditions in which great masses of the population are compelled to live. Under any conceivable view of social development, these conditions demand the serious attention of the Government, and constitute, in our opinion, the most pressing of all the problems of statesmanship.

The evil influences of the "sweated trades," the demoralising irregularity of employment, the insanitary condition, both of the workplaces and the homes, of large sections of the community, the inadequate wages obtained in all the less skilled grades of workers, the excessive hours of labour which prevail throughout so large a part of the industrial field, all call for immediate action.

We think it high time that the whole strength and influence of the collective organisation of the community should be deliberately, patiently, and persistently used to raise the standard of life of its weaker and most oppressed members. We regard this as one of the primary functions of democratic Government, whether national or local, and whilst leaving on one side as beyond our scope such fundamental matters as the nationalisation of the land, and the taxation of unearned incomes, we have suggested, in some detail, various immediately practicable reforms in this direction. These reforms include:—

(*a.*) The explicit and widely advertised adoption by the Government and all local authorities, of direct public employment whenever this is advantageous, the Eight Hours' Day, Trade Union conditions, and a moral minimum wage.

(*b.*) The extension of the factory and similar Acts to all manual workers in all trades, and their drastic enforcement in such a way as to discourage home-work, and absolutely prevent industrial oppression.

(*c.*) The securing by appropriate law of an Eight Hours' Day for every manual worker.

(*d.*) The thorough investigation and bold experimental treatment of the problem of the unemployed.

(*e.*) The provision of adequate sanitary housing accommodation for the whole nation; as well as honorable maintenance for all its workers in their old age.

In short, the whole force of democratic statesmanship must, in our opinion, henceforth be directed to the substitution, as fast as possible, of public for capitalist enterprise, and where this substitution is not yet practicable, to the strict and detailed regulation of all industrial operations, so as to secure to every worker the conditions of efficient citizenship.

(Signed) WILLIAM ABRAHAM.
MICHAEL AUSTIN.
JAMES MAWDSLEY.
TOM MANN.

Report by Sir John E. Gorst.

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May it please Your Majesty,

I have the misfortune to dissent from the chief recommendations which my colleagues on the Royal Commission on Labour have made, and I therefore ask leave to make the following Report:—

Public provision should, in my judgment, be made for settling trade disputes by other measures than strikes and lock-outs.

In the highly-organised trades joint committees exist, composed of equal numbers of employers and employed, by which disputes as to existing contracts are amicably adjusted and which, in general, succeed in settling questions of wages and hours without disturbing the peaceful course of industry.

The law should, in my opinion, provide means by which similar advantages might be enjoyed, as far as possible, by the general body of workers throughout the country.

The unorganised exceed the organised workers in a proportion of at least six to one; and for most of them a strong effective organisation is an impossibility.

For this purpose an authority should be created which should fulfil two cardinal principles:—

(1.) It should be permanent, as the joint committees of the organised trades are. It should not be created for the express purpose of dealing with a dispute already in existence.

(2.) It should be local, as the joint committees are. Its members should owe their position to local authority. They should not be appointed by the central government.

Local Boards of Industry.

I recommend that effect should be given to these principles, by empowering every county council to create one or more local boards of industry.

In counties of cities, where the area is limited, one such board would suffice. In the Metropolis, in some great towns, and in agricultural counties, where the area is extended, the council would divide the county into convenient areas, and appoint one board for each. The jurisdiction of the board would be limited by the area for which it was appointed.

The number of members constituting the board and the mode of appointment should be left to the discretion of the council. Personally I incline to small boards, but there may be cases in which large boards would be better. The joint committees of organised trades are generally large. The mode of appointment would naturally vary according to the circumstances of each county. In some, the council might itself select; in others, it might accept the nomination of associations; in others, it might devise some kind of election. The only rigid rule that should be prescribed is that the number of the representatives of employers and employed should be equal.

The board, when constituted, should appoint its own chairman. If it cannot agree, the chairman should be appointed by some outside judicial authority, such as the Judge of Assize. Whoever appoints the chairman should be instructed to choose a person of judicial mind and character, and as far as possible impartial between employers and employed.

The period for which the board and its chairman should hold office might be left to the discretion of the council.

The cost of these local boards of industry, which need not be great, would be paid out of the county rate. The council would prescribe the remuneration (if any) which the members of the board should receive, the clerk, or other officer they might appoint, and the expenses they were authorised to incur. The general proceedings of the boards should be subject to rules made from time to time by the council.

Industrial Tribunals.

The local board of industry should have power to hear and decide questions arising out of existing contracts of labour, or depending upon the interpretation of trade customs. Its decision should be enforceable in the same manner as that of an ordinary tribunal.

For this purpose the board of industry should be authorised by rules to form, when desirable, committees by whom this jurisdiction should be exercised.

Conciliation in Trade Disputes.

The local board of industry should also be charged with the duty of mediating in trade disputes. Its functions in this respect might be limited at the outset. They could be afterwards increased.

It might be sufficient at first to impose on the board of industry the duty, where it thought fit, of persuading the parties to the dispute to come together under the presidency of the board to discuss their differences, and to settle their controversy by mutual agreement.

Personally, I am in favour of giving such a board power to summon parties and witnesses before it, and to compel their attendance; and of imposing upon the board the duty, where the disputants will not agree, of making a public report setting forth the origin and grounds of the quarrel, and of the solution by which it ought to be terminated.

But, as there is much difference of opinion as to the extent of the power which a mediator can usefully exercise in a trade dispute, it seems to me that the best course would be to leave a discretion in this matter, within certain limits, to the county council. Some districts would bear more drastic treatment than others; and experiments made in particular counties would be instructive.

Where a dispute extended over the districts of several boards provision should be made for their meeting, and appointing a joint board to act. Where the dispute arose in an organised trade, which had a joint committee, the boards would naturally abstain from interference unless that joint committee failed to settle the dispute. Even in that case interference would probably be injudicious, until the boards of industry had first acquired prestige and public confidence.

It is true that this method of mediation is applicable only to the smaller disputes, local in their character, and could not be put in force in a great conflict affecting the whole of one of the staple industries of the country. But it must be remembered that the sum of all the misery and loss, caused by these insignificant disputes unnoticed by the public press, is perhaps greater than that caused by the greater conflicts to which public attention is directed. In order to deal with a labour dispute, involving a wide-spread disturbance of industry, there should be established, as in the State of Massachusetts, a central board of industry, appointed by the Government. It should consist of three persons—one, a representative of the employers; one of the workers; and the third appointed by the other two; or, in the event of their not agreeing, by the Lord Chancellor.

Neither central nor local board should be compelled to intervene unless and until it was of opinion that its intervention was likely to prevent or terminate a conflict.

Minister of Industry.

I recommend that all the functions of the Executive Government in relation to industry should be concentrated in one Government Department.

Hours of Labour.

To shorten the hours of labour, as far as is consistent with the welfare of the national industries, is one of the most wide-spread wishes of the workers of the United Kingdom. Active help should be given by the Government and Legislature towards the accomplishment of this laudable design. The central government and the local authorities should set an example to private employers by shortening the hours of labour of those whom they employ, so far as the maintenance of the efficiency of the public service will allow. In the case of railways, tramways, and other public monopolies, as well as in the case of all contractors for the public service, the hours of labour of the employed should be made subject to public control. The hours in all dangerous and unhealthy trades should be curtailed by law, so as to reduce to a minimum the damage which the exercise of such trades unavoidably costs to the workers and to the community. While great staple industries, like that of mining, may properly, so soon as practical unanimity has been arrived at, be dealt with by Act of Parliament, it is, in my opinion, impossible for the Government to undertake the investigation of every industry in the country, or cut the Gordian knot by applying the same limit to each. The hours of any particular trade should be regulated with due regard to local desires and local circumstances.

The local board of industry should be empowered to inquire into the hours of labour in any trade carried on in its district, at the request of either employers or employed, or on the direction of the county council. It should be authorised, after due inquiry and after hearing all parties, to frame a scheme of hours for that industry within its district, containing the necessary provisions for overtime in cases of emergency or the pressure of seasons. Power should be given to several boards of industry to unite for the purpose of holding a joint inquiry and framing a joint scheme for all their districts.

The scheme so framed should be transmitted to the Minister of Industry, who might, if he thought it necessary, refer it to the central board of industry for reconsideration. If finally approved by the Minister, legal effect could be given to the scheme by Order in Council, and a general Act of Parliament might apply the penalties of the Factory Acts to all persons who employed labour in violation of the provisions of such Orders in Council.

Inspection.

I concur with other Members of the Commission in recommending that the staff of inspectors should be increased; that assistants should be appointed; that women as well as men should be employed in this capacity; and that offices should be opened in all the great centres of manufacture. The local boards of industry should be in touch with the inspectors and sanitary authorities, and could render valuable service in seeing to the due enforcement of the law within their districts.

Sweated Industries.

I concur with the other members of the Commission in recommending that the occupiers of workshops should be required to obtain a certificate of the sanitary condition of their premises, that the owner of any room used as a workshop without such certificate should be liable to penalties, and that persons who employ outworkers should be bound to see that work so given out was done in certified workshops only. The employer of outworkers should be as much responsible as a factory owner for taking care that those who work for his profit enjoy the protection of the factory laws.

Employers' Liability.

I recommend that the law of employers' liability for accidents to their workmen should be amended, and that an obligation should be placed upon every employer of labour to pay compensation for all accidents which befall the worker in the ordinary course of his employment, except those which arise from his own misconduct. If liability is restricted to cases in which it can be proved that the accident was caused by negligence, more than three-fourths of the accidents which happen in the operations of industry remain unprovided for. Contracting out of this obligation should be prohibited in the interest of the community at large, upon which the cost of providing for the disabled worker would ultimately fall.

The Unemployed.

I agree with other Members of the Commission in regarding the question how to deal with the unemployed as the most urgent and vital of the social questions of the day. But I refrain from making any observations upon it in this Report, because I understand that the subject is not one which your Majesty has referred to the Royal Commission on Labour.

Agricultural Labour.

The depressed condition of the actual tiller of the soil in most parts of the United Kingdom appears to me to re-act in a very pernicious way upon the wages and general conditions of labour of the whole body of the less skilled workers. The insufficient wages of the agricultural labourer, his long and monotonous hours of toil, the dilapidated dwelling in which he is too often housed, the absence of leisure and all interest in his life, the difficulties (only now in process of removal) of obtaining the use of land for his own cultivation, and the prospect of the workhouse as the ultimate destiny of his old age, all combine to induce the younger generation to renounce the vocation of their fathers, and to migrate into the towns, where they displace the older and less efficient workers in industries already overcrowded. I concur with other members of the Commission in thinking that energetic steps should be taken to improve the conditions of rural labour by providing proper sanitary dwellings with gardens and allotment ground close at hand, so that everybody willing to invest his labour or employ his leisure in the cultivation of the soil may be able to find land on which to operate; by promoting the revival of rural industries; and by helping the worker to make some provision for old age better than poor law relief or the workhouse. Such measures would not only directly improve the position of the labourer in the country; they would also take away some of the motives for migration to the towns and add some inducements to the surplus population of towns to return to the country. They would thus at least tend to check the depopulation of the rural districts and the congestion of casual and intermittent labour in the cities, which is one of the worst symptoms of a diseased condition of modern civilisation.

All which I humbly submit for Your Majesty's most gracious consideration.

(Signed) JOHN E. GORST.

APPENDIX I.

Memorandum by Mr. George Livesey on Profit-sharing.

The Inquiry which the Commission has made "into the questions affecting the "relations between employers and employed" would fall short of its object if it did not show how those relations may be improved.

The Reference requires the Commission "to report whether legislation can with "advantage be directed to the remedy of any evils that may be disclosed," but, although legislation may prohibit injustice, it can do very little, if anything, to promote good feeling and community of interest between employers and employed, and may even tend in the opposite direction.

The evidence so freely placed before the Commission has shown that in numerous cases the relations between employers and employed are in urgent need of improvement. The workers, with some exceptions, contend that they do not get their share of the product of labour, management, and capital; if so, and certainly in some cases at least it is true, it is essential that means should be found for enabling them to obtain it, and where and when the workers get their share it is of scarcely less importance that they should be assured of the fact or they cannot be expected to be contented.

The wage hire system is responsible to a large extent for the present unsatisfactory conditions; it has the sanction of very high antiquity, but the times have changed and are changing fast; supreme power has lately passed into the hands of the majority, who are wage earners; in the past they have to a great extent been treated as children, but they have now acquired the full rights of manhood, and everything should be done to make men of them and to fit them to use their power aright; hitherto they have had no responsibility and no right or power to have a voice in the management or conduct of the work or business by which they live; the wage hire system gives them only the most remote interest in its prosperity. It matters little to them whether their employer is prosperous or the reverse, they get the current wages, the only difference being, that where there are large profits they may get by favour or by fighting an increase of wages, and when profits fall they stand a chance of losing employment; but in either case they have very little inducement to take any interest in the success of the business or to endeavour to promote its welfare. To their honour, however, be it said, that a sense of duty, a desire to give a fair day's work for a fair day's wage, and pride in doing good work have been in the past as fully manifested by the working class as by any other section of the community, but it is doubtful whether those principles are as effective now as formerly.

It has been said by Mr. Thomas Burt that "the workers have passed from slavery to "serfdom, and then to the wage hire system, and they will get beyond that some day," while Mr. Albert Grey put the gradations as "the slave, the serf, the hireling, and he "hoped ultimately the partner," and there is very little doubt those gentlemen are right; at any rate the wages system does not now produce content or industrial peace.

Some of the witnesses recommend as a remedy the principle of industrial co-operation in the form of profit-sharing partnership; it is on this principle that the fishing industry is largely worked, viz., absolute profit-sharing without wages, and the only fisherman witness (Mr. Reuben Manton, Committee B., November 27th, 1891, Question 11,156), stated that "the only way to work the fishing "industry to make it remunera-"tive is to place every man on board every boat on the profit-sharing system. We "consider we lose caste if we work in any other way. I myself have never worked "in any other way than by a share of the profits." Possibly this is the reason why the Commission has heard so little about the fishermen.

The partnership principle of sharing profits has been extensively and successfully applied to salaried officials, but only in rare and generally recent cases has the system been extended to the wage earners; but where it has been adopted the results, as shown by the evidence of employers and employed, are very satisfactory.

The wage hire system has so long been the rule that both parties are slow to see the need for, and still more slow to attempt to find and apply, a remedy for its defects, but there is ample evidence of the absolute and pressing necessity for friendly co-operation between capital and labour whereby the best energies of both shall be united to promote their joint interests and the general welfare of the nation.

To attain this end it is not sufficient to rely simply upon the high motive of a sense of duty. Men in all ranks are willing to make any sacrifice for their country, or to save life or to alleviate suffering or to stand at the post of duty, whatever may be the consequences; but commercial relations and questions of work and wages do not quite reach this high level. Men must have their just proportion of the joint product of their labour and skill with their employer's capital and skill, *and they must know that they have it*, or they will not be contented, for discontented men are not expected to do their best or to be willing workers; their interest needs enlistment by a fair participation in profits; but this is only half the work, a general knowledge of the business should be cultivated and so far as is practicable they should take their share of responsibility in its management and be encouraged to become owners of capital, thus enabling them to realise the difficulties and to share the anxieties that beset employers. The co-operative movement is practically confined to one class of the community; it needs both capital and experience in management before it can make any appreciable impression on the enormous field of productive industry; a union of capitalists or employers, managers, and workmen is necessary, towards which the only practicable step seems to be profit-sharing somewhat on the lines started in 1842 by Leclaire in Paris and successfully adopted by a great variety of businesses in this country during the last few years.

The first and most important step is to give the worker the same direct interest in the success of his work as that which actuates his employer, the chief element of which is profit. If he feels in common with his employer that energy, industry, intelligence and good-will put into his work may be expected to result to his advantage as they do to that of his employer he will be furnished with a new and powerful motive to do his best that will form a safe foundation for further progress in the direction of partnership; it will, however, be a work of time and of education in industrial economy of which probably the best available teacher is the system of profit-sharing itself.

Profit-sharing is not equally applicable to all occupations or businesses; to some the method of its application has not yet been discovered, while the innumerable variations in industrial conditions and circumstances necessitate corresponding variations to a greater or less extent in the adaptation of the system. The usual plan is to pay interest on capital at a fixed minimum rate, generally 5 per cent., as a first charge upon profits, and then at the end of the year to divide any surplus in agreed proportions between capital and labour, including, of course, clerical work and supervision.

There is a difficulty in ascertaining with some degree of exactness the fair proportions for the division of the surplus; sometimes it is an equal percentage on capital, beyond the fixed 5 per cent., and on wages and salaries, which is right enough in those cases where the capital is small relatively to the annual wages bill; with a larger proportionate capital, $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 or more per cent. may be paid on wages for every 1 per cent. additional to the capital; again the total surplus profit may be divided into two equal parts, one going to capital and the other to the employed; another method where the capital is very large relatively to the wages is to treat the agreed fixed interest as the "wages of capital," and to divide the surplus profit either equally or unequally as may be agreed as fair, between the "wages of capital" and the wages of labour, and still other methods will be suggested by special circumstances.

Probably, whatever system of division of profits may be adopted, it will, at any rate at first, be only approximately correct, but when a genuine attempt is made to act fairly there is little doubt it will be accepted in a cordial manner; employers need not fear to act liberally, the response of the employed has hitherto fully justified liberal treatment. Where it is necessary that trade competitors should be kept in ignorance of the amount of capital and profits, the plan given in evidence by Mr. Bushill, a manufacturing stationer (December 1st, 1892), may be adopted. The capital is credited with 5 per cent., and from the balance "a certain fixed sum, called the "reserved limit, is credited to the partners as a first charge for salaries of manage-"ment and payment for risk, and the residue is equally divided between the employees "and the firm." (Evidence, Whole Commission, Question 5900.) "The amount of "the reserved limit is not generally known, but it is communicated to a chartered "accountant, and he certifies year by year what bonus, if any, has accrued to the "employees." (Question 5906.)

An entirely different application of the principle of profit-sharing is necessary in such cases as gas companies, where the profits are always strictly limited by Parliament; in many instances it is in proportion to the price charged for gas, under what is known as the sliding-scale. When additional profit can be earned no portion

can be divided until the greater part has been absorbed by reducing the price of gas, when the shareholders thereby become entitled to an increase of dividend not exceeding one-quarter or 5*s.* per cent. for each penny reduction. Parliament has thus made the consumers and the shareholders partners, it being to the interest of both that gas should be sold at as low a price as possible, but it has quite overlooked the interest of the employed, to whom, apparently, no thought has been given; all, however, that is necessary is to include them in the partnership, by providing that a certain percentage on their salaries and wages shall be paid for every reduction of one penny (1*d.*) per 1,000 feet, and taking that percentage off when the price of gas rises; the interests of consumers, shareholders, and the officials and workmen can thus be rendered identical, which is the aim and essence of profit sharing. It is a question whether Parliament should not require the inclusion of the employed in the partnership under the sliding-scale of the gas companies, thus doing justice to all parties. The co-operative societies also recognise the claims of the consumer, who is in danger of being ignored in the struggle between capital and labour.

An objection may be urged that, as the effect of the utmost effort of the employed must be very small when compared with the effect, for instance, of such variations in the price of coal as have taken place lately, which largely determine the price of gas, they should not suffer loss by increases, or profit by reductions of price, but it is surely fair that all three partners should participate alike in gains or losses, the employed having at least the same right to any unearned increment as the shareholders and consumers; and sharing in prosperity, they should also share in adversity. It has, moreover, been made clear that the total bonus paid to the employed has not been at the expense of the gas company which has adopted the system, for the whole amount, equal to 4 or 5 per cent. on salaries and wages, and something more, has been saved to the company by their better working.

Profit-sharing has been applied with success to agriculture by Mr. Albert Grey (*see* Reports on the Agricultural Labourer, by Mr. A. Wilson Fox, Assistant Commissioner, Vol. I., Part III., page 109, Report on Glendale Union, Northumberland, paragraphs 68 and 69) on some extensive farms; after paying rent and interest on the capital employed to work the farm and ordinary wages, &c., he divides the surplus between the employed and the capital, giving the former an annual bonus or percentage on their wages, generally about 5 per cent., or a little more, and some additional interest to the latter.

The other trades and industries that have adopted profit-sharing with success are sufficiently varied and numerous to prove its adaptability to a very large proportion of all the industries of the kingdom; very few, however, have been brought before the Commission, for the simple and sufficient reason that where profit-sharing is in force, there industrial peace prevails, there is no antagonism between employers and employed, and consequently no grievances to be made public and no remedies required.

When profit sharing is introduced into any business it is essential as far as possible to take the employed into confidence, a committee composed of workmen elected by their fellow workmen and of employers and managing officials should settle the details of the scheme and frame rules, &c., such committee to meet periodically, and at other times when necessary, to confer on all matters affecting the working of the undertaking so far as the employed are concerned; the great object being to create confidence and to promote mutual goodwill. The bonus should be declared annually or half-yearly, but the former by preference, and every opportunity should be given to the recipients to save it, or, if practicable and *safe*, to invest it in the business, or again part of the bonus may be reserved as a provident fund for old age or other purposes.

The Joint Committee of the South Metropolitan Gas Company has worked excellently, nearly half of the employed in receipt of an annual bonus leave it in the company's hands at 4 per cent., which with other savings now amounts to nearly 30,000*l.*, many men having upwards of 30*l.* to their credit, and beyond this the workmen have, since profit-sharing was introduced, in little more than three years invested 4,200*l.* in the Company's stock, which pays a trifle over 5 per cent., and others have purchased houses through the building society established by those in the Company's employ.

When profit-sharing has been introduced, and the employed have shown their confidence in the concern by becoming shareholders, or have given other similar pledges of their loyalty and stability, the next step is to give them their proper share in the responsibilities of management, as is now being done by the Scottish Co-operative

Wholesale Society; it will necessarily, at first, be small, but by the growth of confidence and increased means of saving and investment, the present want of opportunity at least will be removed, and it will be the fault of the workers if they do not rise to a better position.

The community of interest resulting from profit-sharing, the opportunity it provides for saving, the bringing of employers and employed together in friendly conference at stated periods, and whenever necessary by means of the joint committee, its educating influence and the growth of a sense of responsibility, are immense powers for good, which must tend materially to obliterate the dividing line that separates class from class, and to place the relations of employers and employed on a sound and satisfactory footing, thus preventing disputes by removing their cause, which is infinitely better than allowing them to arise, and then settling them more or less satisfactorily, or merely patching them up by boards of conciliation or arbitration.

GEORGE LIVESEY.

September 2nd, 1893.

DESCRIPTION of the PROFIT-SHARING SCHEME of the SOUTH METROPOLITAN GAS COMPANY.

NOTE A.*

The South Metropolitan Gas Company's profit-sharing scheme is simply a voluntary extension of the principle of the sliding scale—which governs the price of gas and the dividend—to the officers and workmen.

The starting point or initial price of gas for this purpose was fixed by the directors at 2*s.* 8*d.* per 1,000 feet. When gas is sold at or above that figure there is no bonus, but for every penny at which it is sold in any year below 2*s.* 8*d.* a bonus of 1 per cent. on the amount of the annual salary or wages is paid to the officials and workmen; thus, with gas sold at 2*s.* 7*d.*, there would be a bonus of 1 per cent.; at 2*s.* 6*d.*, 2 per cent.; at 2*s.* 5*d.*, 3 per cent.; at 2*s.* 4*d.*, 4 per cent.; at 2*s.* 3*d.*, 5 per cent. at 2*s.* 2*d.*, 6 per cent., and so on.

The scheme was started in 1889 for the purpose of attaching the employed to their employers, and to give them a direct interest in the prosperity of the Company. In both objects it has been successful, the price of gas and the bonus have been as follows:—

Year ending.	Price of Gas.	Bonus.
June 1890 - -	2*s.* 3*d.* per 1,000 feet -	5 per cent.
June 1891 - -	2*s.* 3*d.* per 1,000 feet -	5 „ „
June 1892 - -	2*s.* 5*d.* average „ -	3 „ „
June 1893 - -	2*s.* 5*d.* average „ -	4 „ „

In the last year, although entitled only to 3 per cent., the directors were so satisfied with the good working of their servants that they made the bonus 4 per cent.

The reduction to 3 per cent. was willingly submitted to, the cause being apparently thoroughly understood, the workmen simply remarked that they would do their best to enable the Company to reduce the price of gas that they might have a higher bonus.

The bonus, amounting to about 10,000*l.* a year on the average, costs the Company nothing, the whole amount being saved by the cheerful and good working of its servants; it is therefore good business and not philanthropy.

In conjunction with the scheme, and to ensure satisfactory working, there is a joint committee consisting of 18 workmen elected by their fellows by ballot and 18 directors and officials nominated by the board; so far during four years there has never been any disagreement or division of opinion between the two sections; disaffection and distrust have been prevented, and mutual confidence and goodwill have resulted. The bonus is declared annually in June, and is payable in full, but nearly one-half of the recipients voluntarily leave it to accumulate in the Company's hands at 4 per cent. interest, the total so left, with some other savings of the workmen, now amounts to nearly 30,000*l.*, in addition to upwards of 4,000*l.* invested in the Company's ordinary stock.

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* Forwarded to the Commission by Mr. Livesey on October 17th, 1893.

Note B.*

In 1894, after nearly five years' trial has shown that the system is beneficial to al connected with the Company, the directors have resolved, with the approval of their officers and workmen, to extend and alter the system, in order to make all who are regularly employed by the Company shareholders.

The rate of bonus is increased from 1 per cent. on salaries and wages for each penny reduction in the price of gas, to 1½ per cent., until the total bonus reaches 9 per cent., above which figure the 1 per cent per penny is reverted to according to the following scale:—

Price of Gas.	Bonus—New Scale.	Bonus—Old Scale.
s. *d.*		
2 8 per 1,000 feet	None.	None.
2 7 „ „	1½ per cent.	1 per cent.
2 6 „ „	3 „	2 „
2 5 „ „	4½ „	3 „
2 4 „ „	6 „	4 „
2 3 „ „	7½ „	5 „
2 2 „ „	9 „	6 „
2 1 „ „	10 „	7 „
2 0 „ „	11 „	8 „
and so on. „		

But the following important condition is coupled with the increase of the rate.

One half only of the increased bonus is payable in cash; the remaining half must be invested in the Company's ordinary stock at the market price, in the names of three trustees, and when any individual profit-sharer has sufficient (about 13*l.*) standing to his credit, with the trustees to purchase 5*l.* of stock, it is to be transferred to his name.

No man, however, is compelled to accept the new scale with its condition as to investment if he prefers the old one; he has simply to notify his desire prior to the annual declaration of the bonus, and he can have it on either scale. There is no doubt that the new scale will be generally if not universally accepted, as the alteration was unanimously approved.

The directors of the Crystal Palace District Gas Company have this year followed the example of the South Metropolitan by adopting profit-sharing on the principle of the latter Company's new scale, which has been unanimously accepted by the officials and workmen.

* Forwarded to the Commission by Mr. Livesey on April 25th, 1894.

APPENDIX II.

Memorandum by Sir Frederick Pollock on the Law of Trade Combinations.

It does not seem needful or desirable for the present purpose to enter at large upon the history of criminal legislation in the past as affecting trade unions and other trade combinations. That history, from the Statute of Labourers (1349) to the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, has been set forth by Sir James Stephen with complete mastery of the authorities, and in a perfectly impartial spirit.* Rather it may now be useful, before considering the present state of the law as a whole, to examine what seem, apart from Acts of Parliament and the judicial interpretation of them, to be the principles of English jurisprudence applicable to these matters. And it may be worth while to distinguish carefully, in the first instance, between civil and criminal rights and liabilities. Many persons are apt to think, or to speak as if they thought, that whatever is not a criminal offence must be rightful or even laudable (except when it is done by a public officer in apparent execution of his duty; in which case, according to some, the presumption is that it is wrong); or that there can be no effectual remedy for wrongful acts which are not criminally punishable. Each of these propositions, when plainly stated, is easily seen to be contrary to the laws and judicial practice of England, and (I believe) of every civilised commonwealth in the world; nevertheless it is not difficult to construct arguments of plausible appearance that really involve one or both of them.

1.—*The Common Law as to Civil Rights and Liabilities.*

It has been a settled principle from early times that everyone is free to carry on his trade or business in his own way, save so far as the conduct of any particular business may have been regulated or restrained by lawful authority, and provided he does not so conduct his own business as to interfere with the equal rights of others. Hence everyone is entitled to be free from obstruction or molestation in the pursuit of his calling, though not from competition or from its natural results. A new schoolmaster may set up a rival school in a town, and do his best to attract scholars to it; but if he tries to increase the custom of his new school by beating or frightening boys on their way to or from the old one his act is wrongful.

One may lawfully endeavour to attract workmen from a rival's employ by better terms (though not to induce them to break existing contracts); but it is a trespass to beset a man's house and prevent his servants from going in and out, or to intimidate his workmen, tenants, or customers in order to obstruct his business.† Towards the end of the last century an African trader recovered damages from a rival who fired at natives to deter them from trading with his ship.

Modern decisions have gone a step further, and it is now held an actionable wrong to persuade B to break his contract with A, intending thereby to obtain an advantage for oneself over A, or to do him a mischief by depriving him of B's services. This rule was not established without judicial dissent, and its precise limits have been much discussed; but I think it is accepted, on the whole, both here and in America, to some such extent as I have stated. Much more will A have a right to sue X for damages if X induces A to break his contract with B, not by merely offering higher pay, or the like, but by unlawful violence or by threats of it.

All this, be it observed, is established by decisions unconnected with any disputes between employers and workmen, and independent of any legislation subsisting or repealed.‡ And the acts described as wrongful, in other words, as entitling the person injured by them to sue for damages, are not punishable by a criminal court for that

* History of the Criminal Law, 1883, iii., 203–227; the late Sir W. Erle's work on the Law of Trade Unions (1869); and Mr. (now Justice) R. S. Wright's on Criminal Conspiracies (1873) are likewise of importance. Sir James Stephen uses and cites both.

† Authorities are collected in my book on the Law of Torts, 3rd edition, pp. 216, 217.

‡ The rule in *Lumley* v. *Gye* is now supported as a pure common-law rule, and the discussion of the Statute of Labourers which took place in that case must be considered irrelevant. American acceptance of the rule seems conclusive on this point.

reason only, though they may happen also to be common criminal offences against some person (as if X assaults B in order to deter him from working for A) or may come within the terms of some special penal enactment.

Again, the common law never could (as statute law no longer does) compel a man to work in his trade. But it does not encourage him to abridge his freedom of working or trading, and, therefore, agreements "in restraint of trade," although it be not unlawful either to make them or to observe them, are not enforceable contracts unless made for value, nor if the restriction imposed on any party is, in the opinion of the court, unreasonably disproportioned to the interest of the other party or parties which is to be protected. Agreements between men of business to regulate the conduct of their business as to wages, hours of work, and so forth, by the decision of a majority*; not to employ travellers or others who have left the service of a member of the association within a certain time†; to divide their business according to a fixed scheme, and to refuse to accept business from third persons except according to that scheme‡—have been held invalid as in "restraint of trade." There is no doubt, I conceive, that the same principle would apply to the ordinary rules of trades unions in so far as they purport to bind the members as to hours of work, wages to be accepted, and the like, according to the decision of any committee or executive. But this only means that the members cannot be compelled by process of law to obey the rules. It does not mean that they do any positive wrong if they think fit to obey them. In the words of Lord Justice Bowen—

"Contracts, as they are called, in restraint of trade, are not . . . illegal in any "sense, except that the law will not enforce them. It does not prohibit the making of "such contracts; it merely declines, after they have been made, to recognise their "validity . . . No action at common law will lie or ever has lain against any "individual or individuals for entering into a contract merely because it was in restraint "of trade."§

There remain in this connection two questions of which neither is free from difficulty, and which it is impossible to separate in practice, namely:—

1. Can acts which would be lawful if done by a single competitor be unlawful because done by several acting in concert? In other words, are there any limits to the right to combine for competitive purposes distinct from the limits set to the right of individuals to compete?
2. What are the limits of lawful competition in itself and apart from combination?

First, it is now settled by the unanimous decision of the House of Lords in the *Mogul Steamship Co.'s* case,‖ that an act which would not even be civilly wrongful if done by one person does not become so merely because it is done in concert by several persons, though the concerted character of an action may sometimes be material as evidence that it was done with a wrongful intention of causing harm.

Further, the same decision shows that the Courts will not undertake to define the limits of legitimate competition short of the point where it can be said that some definitely wrongful act is committed, such as intimidation, obstruction, molestation, or the intentional procurement of a breach of contract or other violation of individual rights.¶ The House of Lords held, confirming the decision of the Court of Appeal, that A, B, and C do no wrong to D. a rival shipowner, by combining to give special advantages to persons who will deal with them to the exclusion of D, although the probable and intended effect of the combination be to secure a monopoly to its members for the time being, and drive the independent trader D out of that particular market. Lord Hannen said: "I know of no restriction imposed by law on compe- "tition by one trader with another with the sole object of benefiting himself." He considered, however, that "a different case would have arisen if the evidence had "shown that the object of the defendants was a malicious one, namely, to injure the "plaintiffs, whether they (the defendants) should be benefited or not."

I do not think there is any authority (apart from interpretation of statutes, of which presently) to show what would be held to amount to intimidation. Upon principle I should think intimidation would mean any threat, calculated to affect a man of common sense and firmness, of doing or procuring to be done to his prejudice anything either punishable as an offence or civilly wrongful.

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* *Hilton* v. *Eckersley* (1855–56), 6 E. & B. 47, 66.
† *Mineral Water Bottle Society* v. *Booth* (1887), 36 Ch. Division, 465.
‡ *Collins* v. *Locke* (1879), 4 App. Ca. 674.
§ *Mogul Steamship Company* v. *McGregor, Gow, & Co.*, 23 Q. B. Div. 598, at p. 619.
‖ December 18, 1891: *Times* newspaper, December 19.
¶ Lord Justice Bowen's judgment, 23 Q. B. Div., at p. 614.

Let us apply these principles to some of the ordinary facts of trade disputes. I submit the following propositions as being fairly deducible:—

1. Neither an agreement for a strike, immediate or contingent, among workmen in any trade, nor an agreement for a lock-out among masters, is an enforceable contract; but neither is in itself punishable or wrongful.
2. A strike (or lock-out) begun without breach of any existing contract does not necessarily involve any wrongful act.
3. But if a strike is begun by stopping work in breach of an existing contract, the employer probably has a right of action against the promoters of the strike for procuring that breach of contract. A workman would have the same right against anyone who procured his employer to dismiss him in breach of existing terms, either individually or by way of general lock-out.* And generally whatever can be said of a workman's freedom to choose his employer may be said of an employer's freedom to choose his workmen.
4. Individual workmen are free to renew or not to renew their contracts, or to enter or not to enter into contracts with other employers, as they think fit. And all persons are free, if they think fit, to lay before workmen, individually or collectively, facts and reasons in favour of their doing or not doing any of these things. The like as to customers resorting or not resorting to any particular place of business or dealing with any individual trader.
5. But no one is free to deprive an employer of his workmen's services, or of the custom of those who may deal with him, by violence or unlawful interference of any kind with person or property, nor by threats thereof. Any such act is a trespass against the employer as well as against the workman or customer intimidated. And the rule seems to extend to threats of doing harm by means of a breach of contract or other definite civil wrong.
6. An agreement not to work with or not to employ any particular class of persons (as a rule of a trades union not to work with non-union men, or of an association of masters not to employ members of a particular union), is probably "in "restraint of trade" and not enforceable, but it is not wrongful.
7. Any of the acts above mentioned which is not wrongful in itself does not become wrongful—
   (*a.*) merely because done by a number of persons acting in concert; or
   (*b.*) merely because those persons give notice to an employer or other person concerned of their intention to do such acts.

   It seems, therefore, that an employer has not any civil right of action against, *e.g.*, the officers of a trade union who threaten him with a strike of union hands (not involving violence or breach of contract), if he continues to employ non-union men in general, or particular men objected to by the union.
8. It is not clear that interference with a man's business by persons having no definite interest of their own to serve thereby (for example, an agreement not to deal with a certain trader at all, or to prevent others from doing so)† might not be held to be without just cause or excuse, and therefore an actionable wrong, even if it did not involve the committing, procuring, or threatening of any breach of the peace, or breach of contract, or other specific wrongful act.

If anyone thinks that the law as laid down by the House of Lords does not sufficiently protect individual freedom of action, he may partly console himself by reflecting on the obvious fact, that, whatever the law may be, there will still be a thousand ways beyond the reach of legal process in which a majority in any trade or society can make it unpleasant for the minority to differ with them. Ultimately the rights of minorities can be secured only by securing general respect for every citizen's lawful freedom of action and discussion; and this must be the work of enlightened public opinion, and not of legal definitions. Judgments and statutes, which embody, or ought to embody, the best wisdom and experience of the nation, may do something to guide and form public opinion; they cannot take its place.

I am not aware of any subsisting legislation which, with regard to civil liability, could be held to affect the results of common law principles.

This statement concludes nothing as to the criminal law. Many civil wrongs (including some of those above mentioned) are certainly not criminal offences; on the other hand, acts which are not a civil wrong to any definite person may be deemed so

* I do not mean to deny that an action of this kind would be to some extent a novelty, or that difficulties both of law and of evidence might be expected to arise.

† *See* Lord Hannen's opinion in the *Mogul Steamship Co.'s* case.

contrary to the public welfare that they are made punishable offences. "There are "some forms of injury," both civil and criminal, "which can only be effected by the "combination of many persons."*

Things which are harmless or trifling when done by one or by a few may be a nuisance, or a danger to the public peace, and therefore criminal, when done and repeated by the multitude.

We pass then to the criminal law.

2.—*Criminal Law.*

There is no doubt, I apprehend, that assault and battery, unlawful wounding, riot, unlawful assembly, and other open offences against the Queen's peace, are equally offences whether committed in the course of any trade dispute, or by members of any trade combination, or not. And it is not the fault of the law when such offences fail in any particular case to be repressed, either because the officers of the law are lacking in firmness or discretion, or because they are not then and there in possession of adequate means to cause the peace to be kept.

Difficulties arise when we have to do with a state of things not necessarily unlawful in itself, and not necessarily tending to breach of the peace or specific offences against person or property, but often having such a tendency in fact. It is matter of common knowledge that almost every considerable strike has been more or less accompanied by incidents of this kind. As in the case of troops in the field in time of war, there is always risk of excesses taking place, even without the consent and against the will of the leaders. Public opinion, however not unnaturally makes the power of restraining them a rough test of the leaders' good faith and competence. The general law does not provide against such consequences, before they have actually happened, otherwise than through the power of magistrates to bind persons over to keep the peace. On the other hand, there has been much special legislation, now reduced to comparative simplicity both in principles and in terms.

In the earlier part of this century there were two somewhat widely spread opinions intimately connected with the legislation against trade combinations. First, that any combination to affect the current rate of wages was not only in restraint of trade, but so manifestly against the public good as to be of itself an indictable conspiracy. Secondly, that the courts had a general power of declaring agreements and combinations to be criminal which were directed to any purpose that appeared to the judges to be "contrary to public policy." The history of these opinions may be traced in the learned and almost authoritative works already referred to. For the matter in hand it may suffice to say that the first of them, whether it were more or less plausible at one time, has been clearly overruled by our modern legislation relating to trades unions,† and the second is now most unlikely to be judicially approved or acted on.

The offence of conspiracy is commonly defined as consisting in an agreement either to do something unlawful, or to do something not in itself unlawful by means which are unlawful. It is a question of great difficulty to what extent the term "unlawful" includes, for this purpose, acts which are civilly but not criminally wrongful, such as ordinary trespasses or breaches of contract.‡ But this difficulty does not arise with regard to trade combinations since the Act of 1875,§ which expressly declares that a trade combination is not a criminal conspiracy unless it contemplates acts which would be criminal if committed by a single person.‖ Another section of the Act declares certain specific forms of molestation, exercised "with a view to compel any "other person to abstain from doing or to do any act which such other person has a "legal right to do or abstain from doing," to be substantive criminal offences. There is no doubt that the intention of this section was to draw the line between legitimate and illegitimate picketing. Certainly most, and I am disposed to think all, of the acts specified, being done with the intent mentioned, would be civilly wrongful apart from any legislation, and an agreement to commit them would probably have been an indictable conspiracy without the aid of any of the more extensive theories of "restraint of trade." Be that as it may, the enactment is sufficiently clear, with one exception; and, subject to that exception, the difficulties that occur in its application are such difficulties in obtaining sufficient evidence against ascertained persons as cannot be abolished by the wisdom of any legislature or the skill of any draftsman.

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* *See* Lord Hannen's opinion in the *Mogul Steamship Co.'s* case.

† Trade Union Act, 1871, 34 & 35 Vict. c. 31.

‡ See *R.* v *Parnell*, 14 Cox 508.

§ Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, 38 & 39 Vict. c. 86.

‖ S. 3. The terms of this and of s. 7 are annexed for reference.

The exception lies in the word "intimidates." Must intimidation be a threat of something which, if executed, would be a criminal offence against person or tangible property? Or does it include the threat of doing that which would be civilly, though not criminally, wrongful? Or, lastly, can it include the announcement of an intent to do or cause to be done something which, without being in itself wrongful, is capable of putting moral compulsion on the person threatened? A specially constituted Court of the Queen's Bench Division, proceeding on the intention of Parliament as shown in the Trade Union Act of 1871 as well as in the Act of 1875, has pronounced the first of these interpretations to be the correct one.*

In *Curran* v. *Treleaven* it appears that the union men who were called out did leave their work peaceably indeed, but in breach of existing contracts. As to this, the decision of the Court was put on the ground that the intention of Parliament was to make the Act of 1875 merely equivalent to the repealed Trade Union Act of 1871, which made intimidation an offence only if it were such as would justify binding over the intimidator to keep the peace. There appears to be no doubt that this was so in fact. (*See* the notes at pp. 548, 556 of the report.) It is to be regretted that (notwithstanding express warning uttered by Members of Parliament learned in the law when the Bill was in Committee) the language of the Act of 1875 was left uncertain. Whether the language was more or less strained by the Court in order to carry out the known intention is a question of purely technical interest.

The further question whether Mr. Treleaven had a remedy by civil action against the officials of the union for procuring the union men to depart in breach of still subsisting contracts was not before the Court, and does not appear to have been mentioned even incidentally.

Certain sections of the Italian Penal Code of 1889, the latest and most scientific work of European criminal legislation, cover much the same ground as our Act of 1875, with which the framers of the Code were doubtless acquainted. I append a translation of these sections. They appear to leave open the same question as to what amounts to intimidation, unless indeed the Italian term *minaccia* has been more definitely interpreted by authority, as to which I have not any knowledge.

On the whole it will be seen that our present law makes no difference in principle between combinations of employers and combinations of workmen, but has made an exception or resolved a doubt (according to the view taken of what the common law was) in favour of trade combinations as distinct from combinations for other purposes.

13, Old Square, Lincoln's Inn,
January 22, 1892.

FREDERICK POLLOCK.

APPENDIX I.

38 & 39 Vict. c. 86.

"An Act for amending the Law relating to Conspiracy, and to the Protection of Property, and for other purposes." [13th August 1875.]

* * * * * *

"Conspiracy and Protection of Property."

3. "An agreement or combination by two or more persons to do or procure to be done any act in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen shall not be indictable as a conspiracy if such act committed by one person would not be punishable as a crime.

"Nothing in this section shall exempt from punishment any persons guilty of a conspiracy for which a punishment is awarded by any Act of Parliament.

"Nothing in this section shall affect the law relating to riot, unlawful assembly, breach of the peace, or sedition, or any offence against the State or the Sovereign.

"A crime for the purposes of this section means an offence punishable on indictment, or an offence which is punishable on summary conviction, and for the commission

* *Gibson* v. *Lawson*, *Curran* v. *Treleaven*, 1891, 2 Q.B. 545. Cf. the note on these cases in the "Law Quarterly Review" for January 1892, p. 7.

of which the offender is liable under the statute making the offence punishable to be imprisoned either absolutely or at the discretion of the Court as an alternative for some other punishment.

"Where a person is convicted of any such agreement or combination as aforesaid to do or procure to be done an act which is punishable only on summary conviction, and is sentenced to imprisonment, the imprisonment shall not exceed three months, or such longer time, if any, as may have been prescribed by the statute for the punishment of the said act when committed by one person."

* * * * * * * *

7. "Every person who, with a view to compel any other person to abstain from doing or to do any act which such other person has a legal right to do or abstain from doing, wrongfully and without legal authority,—

"1. Uses violence to or intimidates such other person or his wife and children, or injures his property; or,

"2. Persistently follows such other person about from place to place; or,

"3. Hides any tools, clothes, or other property owned or used by such other person, or deprives him of or hinders him in the use thereof; or,

"4. Watches or besets the house or other place where such other person resides, or works, or carries on business, or happens to be, or the approach to such house or place; or,

"5. Follows such other person with two or more other persons in a disorderly manner in or through any street or road,

shall, on conviction thereof by a court of summary jurisdiction, or on indictment as herein-after mentioned, be liable either to pay a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds, or to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three months, with or without hard labour."

"Attending at or near the house or place where a person resides, or works, or carries on business, or happens, to be, or the approach to such house or place, in order merely to obtain or communicate information, shall not be deemed a watching or besetting within the meaning of this section."

Appendix II.

Italian Penal Code (1889), Book II., Tit. II., C. VI.

Of Offences against Freedom of Labour.

Art. 165. Whoever by force or threats restrains or hinders in anywise the freedom of industry or trade is punishable with imprisonment not exceeding 20 months, and with a fine of from 100 to 3,000 francs.

Art. 166. Whoever by force or threats brings about, or causes to be continued, a stoppage or interruption of work, in order to impose either on workmen or on employers or contractors a lowering or rise of wages, or terms different from those already agreed upon, is punishable with imprisonment not exceeding 20 months.

Art. 167. In the case of ringleaders or promoters of the offences specified in the foregoing sections, the punishment is imprisonment for any term from three months to three years, and fine from 500 to 5,000 francs.

Exercising compulsion by violence or threats, and threatening with unlawful harm of any serious kind, are also made substantive offences in another chapter (ss. 154, 156).

Supplementary Note to Memorandum on the Law of Trade Combinations.

The Court of Appeal has held in *Temperton* v. *Russell* (No. 2) 1893, 1 Q.B. 715, that a combination to persuade workmen not to renew their engagements with a particular employer (this being within the workmen's rights, and coercion or intimidation of the workmen not being alleged) may be an actionable wrong, if "malicious." If this be correct, I have understated the remedies open to employers and possibly to workmen. But, with great submission, the reasons given in the judgments do not convince me that the decision is right on this point.

February, 1894. Frederick Pollock.

APPENDIX III.

Memorandum by Sir Frederick Pollock on the Statute Law as to Arbitration in Trade Disputes.

The Act of 5 George IV. c. 96. passed in 1824, and amended in details in 1837 (7 Will. IV. & 1 Vict. c. 67.), gives compulsory powers of settling certain disputes between masters and workmen on the application of either party.

The process is a hearing before not less than four or more than six arbitrators, half being or representing masters and half being workmen, but all nominated by a magistrate of the district where the party complained against resides,* to whom application must be made in the first instance. But also the parties may agree upon any other mode of arbitration (s. 13).

A number of causes of dispute are mentioned, evidently with a principal, if not an exclusive, regard to piece-work in textile manufactures, but the following particulars appear to be of general application :—"Disagreements respecting the price to be paid "for work done, or in the course of being done, whether such disputes shall happen "or arise between them (masters and workmen) respecting the payment of wages "as agreed upon, or the hours of labour as agreed upon, or any injury or damage "done to work or delay in finishing work, or not finishing the work in a good and "workmanlike manner, or according to any contract or to bad materials." Further details as to causes are special to the textile trades. The general rate of wages is expressly excluded from the statutory jurisdiction. "Nothing in this Act contained "shall authorise any justice . . . . . to establish a rate of wages or price of "labour or workmanship at which the workmen shall in future be paid, unless with "the mutual consent of both master and workman." A justice of the peace may, however, by consent of both parties, hear, in a summary manner, and finally determine, a matter in dispute on this as well as on any other of the enumerated points. But it seems clear that even then he could not "establish a rate of wages or price of labour "or workmanship" so as to bind anyone who was not a party to the proceeding. If the arbitrators cannot agree they must refer the points of difference to the magistrate who appointed them, or, failing him, to the nearest available magistrate.

There are special provisions for enforcing the award by distress, and in default thereof by imprisonment, or by imprisonment simply in special cases where it may appear to the justices that it will be less injurious to the party than distress. Also the Act requires a ticket of particulars to be delivered "with every piece of work "given out by the manufacturer to a workman to be done." Two Acts of 1845, 8 & 9 Vict. c. 77. and c. 128, make further regulations concerning this ticket in the textile trades. The latter Act applies to the silk trade only, the former to "persons "employed in the woollen, worsted, linen, cotton, cotton and silk hosiery manufac-"tures."† It does not appear why there were two distinct Acts in the same session; both received the Royal Assent within the space of a few days (August 4th and 9th).

The principal Act disqualifies a justice who is a master manufacturer or agent from exercising the powers given by it.

Voluntary arbitrations having become common, the Councils of Conciliation Act (30 & 31 Vict. c. 105.) was passed in 1867. The object of this Act was to facilitate the settlement of disputes between masters and workmen, and it was declared "to be "expedient without repealing the said several Acts that masters and workmen should "be enabled, when licensed by Her Majesty, to form equitable councils of conciliation "or arbitration, and that the powers in the said Acts contained for enforcing awards "made under or by the provisions thereof should be extended to the enforcing of "awards to be made by and under the authority of such equitable councils of "conciliation."

Under this statute any number of masters and workmen in any particular trade (with certain qualifications as to residence and continuance in the trade) might at a specially convened meeting agree to form a council of conciliation and arbitration, and might apply to the Home Secretary for a licence authorising them to hold and exercise all the powers granted under the above-named Acts to arbitrators and referees,

* 7 Will. IV. & 1 Vict. c. 67.

† "Manufacturers" by an obvious error in the text of the Act as printed in the Revised Statutes.

and also to "adjudicate upon and determine any other case of dispute or difference "submitted to them by the mutual consent of master and workman or masters and "workmen." These councils were not to consist of less than two masters and two workmen, nor of more than ten masters and ten workmen.

The express exclusion of any authority to establish a rate of wages, &c. is repeated from the Act of George IV.

The council, when formed, must appoint a "committee of conciliation" consisting of one master and one workman, to whom disputes shall be referred in the first instance. Three are a quorum of the council itself, one being a master, another a workman, and the third the chairman. The chairman of the council must be a person unconnected with trade. It seems needless to state the provisions as to the right of voting for members of the council, and the manner of conducting elections.

The Act does not apply to domestic servants or agricultural labourers.

The Arbitration (Masters and Workmen) Act, 1872, 35 & 36 Vict. c. 46. may be described as extending in detail section 13 of the Act of 1824. Masters and workmen may choose either a board or council, or persons designated or to be designated, as standing arbitrators, and may give them all the powers, both of arbitrators under the Act of Geo. IV., and also (in effect) jurisdiction over any dispute whatever arising out of the contract of service.* The arbitrators lose their jurisdiction over any particular case unless they hear and determine it within 21 days of the event from which the dispute arose (not, be it observed, the date of the reference).

The agreement may give power to determine rates of wages, hours of work, and other regulations. This, as has been seen, could not be done under the former Acts.

The most peculiar part of the machinery of the Act is the mode of concluding an agreement under it. If the master or his agent gives the workman a printed copy of such an agreement, and the workman accepts it, and does not notify his dissent within 48 hours,† the agreement becomes binding upon both parties, and remains binding during the continuance of the contract of service, and any continuous renewal of it.‡

It would seem that the Act contemplated the wholesale formation of standing agreements to refer disputes to the councils established, or to be established, under the Act of 1867.

The result is that employers and workmen can practically, whenever they think fit, create, or adopt by agreement, a special tribunal, whose decisions will be binding in all trade disputes, and enforceable by the special powers of the Act of Geo. IV.

The existence of the ordinary means of enforcing a submission to arbitration must at the same time not be overlooked. Employers and workmen are as free as all other persons to refer existing disputes, or agree to refer future ones, to arbitration under the general law now embodied in the Arbitration Act, 1889.

In some trades, however, it appears from evidence already given before the Commission that settlement of disputes as they arise by representative committees of masters and workmen is preferred to arbitration in any shape.

Lincoln's Inn, July 7th, 1891. F. Pollock.

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* This extended power was conferred by reference to the provisions of the Master and Servant Act, 1867, since repealed by the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875. The result is, that on the face of the Revised Statutes this clause of the Act of 1872 is not intelligible.

† It would no doubt be held that the workman must be informed of this provision at the time on the face of the document or otherwise.

‡ The effect of s. 1, sub-s. 3, is not perfectly clear in some details.

APPENDIX IV.

(i.)

Labour Disputes (Arbitration).*

A Bill to make provision for Conciliation and Arbitration in Labour Disputes. A. D. 189

(*Prepared and brought in by Mr. Mundella, Mr. Burt, and Mr. Secretary Asquith.*)

Be it enacted by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

Power of Board of Trade to appoint conciliator or board o conciliatio

1.—(1.) Where a difference exists or is apprehended between an employer, or any class of employers, and workmen, or between different classes of workmen, with respect to the terms or nature of their employment, the Board of Trade may, if they think fit, on the application of any of the employers or workmen, appoint a person or persons to act as conciliator or as a board of conciliation.

(2.) The conciliator or board of conciliation shall inquire into the causes of the difference by communication with the parties and otherwise, and shall endeavour to bring about a settlement of the difference.

Power to in establis ment of lo boards of conciliatio

2. If it appears to the Board of Trade that in any district or trade where disputes are of frequent occurrence adequate means do not exist for having disputes submitted to a local board of conciliation, they may appoint any person or persons to inquire into the conditions of the district or trade, and to confer with employers and employed with the view of establishing a local board of conciliation or arbitration composed of representatives of employers and employed.

Registrati of boards conciliatio

3.—(1.) Any board established either before or after the *passing of this Act* which is constituted for the purpose of settling disputes between masters and workmen, or between different classes of workmen, by conciliation or arbitration, may apply to the Board of Trade for registration.

(2.) The application must be accompanied by copies of the constitution and regulations of the board of conciliation or arbitration, with such further information, if any, as the Board of Trade may require, and thereupon the Board of Trade may, if they think fit, enter in a register to be kept by them for the purpose, the name of the board of conciliation or arbitration, and its principal office, and such other particulars as the Board of Trade may think expedient.

(3.) Every board of conciliation or arbitration registered in pursuance of this Act shall furnish such returns and reports of its proceedings as the Board of Trade may from time to time require.

Reports to Board of Trade and to Parliament.

4.—(1.) All persons appointed by the Board of Trade in pursuance of this Act shall report their proceedings to the Board of Trade, and all such reports, and also all reports made to the Board of Trade by any local board of conciliation or arbitration, shall be laid before Parliament.

(2.) The Board of Trade shall present to Parliament annually a report of their proceedings under this Act.

Short title

5. This Act may be cited as the Conciliation Act, 1893.

* *Ordered, by the House of Commons, to be Printed, 17th April*, 1893.

(ii.)

Conciliation (Trade Disputes).*

A.D. 1894.

A Bill to make better provision for the Settlement of Labour Disputes.

(*Prepared and brought in by Mr. Mundella, Mr. Secretary Asquith, and Mr. Burt.*)

Be it enacted by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

Powers of Board of Trade in labour disputes.

1. Where a difference exists or is apprehended between an employer, or any class of employers, and workmen, or between different classes of workmen, the Board of Trade may, if they think fit, exercise all or any of the following powers, namely:—

(*a*) inquire into the causes and circumstances of the difference, and make such report, if any, thereon as appears to the Board expedient; and

(*b*) invite the parties to the difference to meet together, by themselves or their representatives, under the presidency of a chairman mutually agreed upon or nominated by the Board of Trade or by some other person or body, with a view to the amicable settlement of the difference.

Power to appoint conciliator or board of conciliation.

2.—(1.) In the case of any difference to which the foregoing section applies, the Board of Trade may, on the application of any of the employers or workmen interested, and if the Board, after taking into consideration the circumstances of the case and the means available for conciliation in the district or the trade, are of opinion that the circumstances are such as to justify them in proceeding under this section, appoint a person or persons to act as conciliator or as a board of conciliation, and the person or persons so appointed shall inquire into the causes and circumstances of the difference by communication with the parties and otherwise, and shall endeavour to bring about a settlement of the difference.

(2.) If it is agreed or arranged to refer any question arising out of or incidental to any such difference to a person appointed by the Board of Trade or to two or more persons, of whom one is to be appointed by the Board of Trade, the Board of Trade may, if they think fit, make an appointment accordingly.

Power to aid in establishment of local boards of conciliation.

3. If it appears to the Board of Trade that in any district or trade where disputes are of frequent occurrence adequate means do not exist for having disputes submitted to a board of conciliation for the district or trade, they may appoint any person or persons to inquire into the conditions of the district or trade, and to confer with employers and employed with the view of establishing a local board of conciliation or arbitration composed of representatives of employers and employed.

Register of conciliation and arbitration boards.

4. The Board of Trade shall keep a register of boards of conciliation and arbitration, and shall enter therein such particulars with respect thereto as to the Board may seem expedient.

Annual report to Parliament.

5. The Board of Trade shall present to Parliament annually a report of their proceedings under this Act.

Short title.

6. This Act may be cited as the Conciliation Act, 1894.

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* *Ordered, by the House of Commons, to be Printed, 29th March,* 1894.

APPENDIX V.

(Drawn up by the Secretary.)

CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION IN THE COLONIES, UNITED STATES, AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES.*

1. *Voluntary Conciliation and Arbitration.*

Voluntary Conciliation and Arbitration.

(i.) The necessity of treating the subjects of conciliation and arbitration in the Colonies and Foreign Countries simultaneously arises from the fact that these methods, as applied to the settlement of trade disputes, are frequently combined in the procedure of a single tribunal or board, which has power to pronounce a decision on the failure of the disputants to effect a settlement. According to the Report of the New South Wales Commission on Strikes, "when conciliation has failed, then is the time "for arbitration to begin." The difference in principle between the two is defined in the same document. "The function of a conciliation agency is to bring about a "voluntary agreement between the parties to a dispute, while the function of an "arbitrator is to determine the merits of the case, and give a positive decision." The exercise of both functions is, however, less frequent with voluntary institutions than with those appointed by the State. Methods of voluntary conciliation, such as the English permanent joint committees of employers and employed in given industries, have few counterparts, whether in the United States, in the Colonies, or on the Continent of Europe; while the voluntary reference of disputes to arbitration is still more rarely found. The experience of these countries would appear to point to the conclusion that the success of such methods pre-supposes both a high state of organisation, at least on the side of the employed, and a disposition on the part of the opposed associations to negotiate on friendly terms. Thus, in the United States, the comparative weakness of labour organisations appears to have been an obstacle in the past to the formation of joint committees on the English system. The development of organisation in that country has, no doubt, been rapid of late years, but up to 1887, in the opinion of Mr. Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labour at Washington, the trade union proper, while flourishing, had, "not attained any such magnitude, or "secured such influence as the like organisation in the old country." The comparative failure of arbitration in America has been attributed by Professor Ely expressly to the same cause. American trade unions, as another writer points out, are still seeking complete legal recognition. In certain trades, however, there is efficient organisation of comparatively long standing, and joint committees empowered to draw up periodical agreements are not unknown. In 1870 the shoe manufacturers of Massachusetts formed a committee for the purpose of arranging a scale of wages with the representatives of the workmen's association, which was called the Order of Knights of St. Crispin. This was the first board of conciliation in Massachusetts, and the experiment was, on the whole, successful, though only temporary, for in 1878 the Order finally gave way to an international union. The board of conciliation established in 1879 by Messrs. Straiton and Storm, cigar manufacturers in New York, has been quoted as the first systematic application of the principle of arbitration in America. It was, in fact, a joint committee, which decided all questions by a majority vote. It consisted of two sections, and the employed were in a majority in both. It roused a degree of interest perhaps disproportionate to its success, satisfactory though this was for a short time, but after about eight years of existence, during which its influence had declined, it was abolished by the firm. A similar committee was formed in Connecticut in 1885, on the initiative of the National Association of Fur Hat Finishers and Makers, and up to 1890, it continued to draw up annual agreements as to prices and wages. In the New York building trades, wages are fixed in the same manner, and in the cloak-making and shoemaking industries of that State, joint committees have recently been instituted for the settlement of disputes. With these exceptions, the principle of voluntary conciliation and arbitration has gained no footing

United States.

* Cf. FOREIGN REPORTS:—Vol. I.—United States: Vol. II.—The Colonies and India: Vol. III.—Holland: Vol. IV.—Belgium: Vol. V.—Germany: Vol. VI.—France: Vol. VII.—Switzerland: Vol. VIII.—Italy: Vol. IX.—Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, Spain and Portugal: Vol. X.—Russia,: Vol. XI.—Austria-Hungary, and the Balkan States.

in the United States. In the coal and iron trades it has even conspicuously failed, except in certain departments of the iron trade, in which sliding scales fixed by conference between employers and employed have prevailed for many years. It was stated in 1881 by Mr. Carroll D. Wright, that in no State of the Union had industrial arbitration received so much attention as in Pennsylvania, where it had been attempted in each of the chief centres of the coal trade, but that up to that time it had failed in every instance, through the mismanagement of those who conducted it.

Canada. (ii.) In Canada the organisation of labour is less advanced, and the history of conciliation and arbitration still more meagre, than in the United States. The labour question, however, has not there assumed the same form. Canada, according to the Report of the Commission on Labour and Capital in the Dominion in 1889, "has not experi- "enced the same disastrous results from trade disputes as have been felt in other "lands." The principle of arbitration was nevertheless largely supported by witnesses before the Commission, especially by those representing labour organisations, some of whom referred to instances of successful arbitration or conciliation in the mining and building trades. The Report for 1889 of the Ontario Bureau of Industries stated that, on the whole, there appeared to be "a greater willingness than formerly "on the part of both employers and workpeople to resort to the more conciliatory "modes of settling disputes."

Australasia. (iii.) In the Australasian colonies, though boards of conciliation in connection with trade unions have existed in certain industries, such as the building trades, for many years, the system has by no means become general. In 1887 attempts were made both in New South Wales and Victoria to establish a permanent board of conciliation representing the whole of the organised capital and labour of the colony, but both schemes fell through for want of support. The reason for the failure of voluntary schemes is, in this case, very different from that which applies to America. In Australia the industrial depression of recent years has led to an extraordinarily rapid growth of organisation on the part of workmen, who have hoped thus to maintain the old rates of wages in the face of diminishing profits. Almost every industry is highly organised, and almost every colony has a federation of unions. Intercolonial federation has also made great progress, and the whole system is centred in the Australasian Federation of Labour. The struggle between organised labour and the counter organisations of employers, on the one hand to enforce the recognition of the principles of an exclusive unionism, and on the other hand to secure freedom of contract, has hitherto been too bitter to admit of a mutual understanding. The question at issue, that of the employment or otherwise of non-unionists, is, moreover, one on which compromise is scarcely possible, since one side or the other must yield the point. The decline of the power of the unions since the great strikes of 1890 and 1891 seems to indicate the quarter from which a withdrawal may be expected. In the meantime Australian employers appear to join in the general approval of the principle of conciliation indicated by the tenor of the evidence before the New South Wales Commission on Strikes. They insist, however, on their right to employ non-unionist labour, and on the impossibility of treating on equal terms with bodies which claim a monopoly of the entire industry of the country. The leaders of the labour movement, on the other hand, regard this monopoly as essential to the very existence of organisation. Thus, while in America the members of unions are not sufficiently "disciplined to unanimity of action," in Australia the enormous power and extensive requirements of the organisations have put employers on the defensive. Neither condition of things is favourable to the establishment of a voluntary system of conciliation, and therefore, in both cases it is legislative reform which chiefly occupies the attention of the promoters of industrial peace. In some few instances, in the absence of a permanent board of conciliation, differences have been adjusted by informal conference between employers and employed, sometimes resulting in a written agreement as to future conditions of employment. Such agreements are not only rare, but have in no case proved lasting, and the labour leaders are opposed to any conclusion of terms between employers and individual workmen or isolated unions. This method of preventing disputes was, nevertheless, distinctly recommended by the New South Wales Commission on Strikes.

On the Continent of Europe. (iv.) On the continent the wilder political aims of the advanced labour party, combined with the constant tendency of the employers and of the moderate labour party to appeal to civil authority, and the weakness of organisation on both sides, make voluntary conciliation on the English system almost impossible, at any rate in such countries as Germany, France, and Italy. In others again, such as Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, the comparatively undeveloped state of the labour movement has

till quite recently made the question of the settlement of disputes an unimportant one. It is in Belgium and Switzerland that the organisation of labour is strongest and the conditions most like those of England, but in these countries also the influence of the State in such matters is considerable.

France. (v.) In France the national sentiment in favour of intimate relations and long-continued connection between employers and employed has retarded the growth of independent association among workmen. That growth, however, is steady, and is accompanied by an increasing adoption of the principle of voluntary arbitration and conciliation. A large number of syndicates both of employers and of employed have clauses in their articles providing for arbitration and conciliation. In the case of the employers' syndicates this is frequently of a merely commercial character. The Syndical Chamber of Butchers in Paris provides for conciliation with workmen, and the Federation of Workers in the Book Trade has a rule that no strike be declared before all means of conciliation have been exhausted. An instance of a joint committee expressly formed on the English model is to be found in the Joint Syndical Council for the Paper Trade, instituted by the employers in 1873. It consists of eight employers and eight workmen, with a president elected from one side and a secretary from the other. The Council depends solely on its moral influence for the acceptance of its decisions. It is stated that no strike has occurred in this industry since the formation of the Council, and that this result is largely due to the democratic spirit which animates the Employers' Syndicate. A similar joint committee has existed among the typographers of Rouen since 1877. It revises the tariff from time to time, but has never been required to adjust a dispute. Several other committees of this kind have been formed, either by arrangement between separate syndicates or by a mixed syndicate of employers and employed. In 1892 the National Syndicate of Workers in the Artistic Industries established a permanent council of arbitration and conciliation on a somewhat more elaborate plan, in imitation of the Conseils de Prud'hommes. It comprises a committee of conciliation to which disputes are referred in the first instance, and a general committee, which is appealed to on the failure of conciliation, and can alone pronounce an award. This Committee consists of equal numbers of employers and employed, and in case of a tie-vote there is a permanent arbitrator, whose decision is binding and without appeal. Of 1,100 agricultural syndicates 93 have instituted boards of arbitration and conciliation for the solution of disputed questions. In such cases the function of the arbitrators is apparently to report on some technical point. On the basis of their report the syndicate itself attempts conciliation or pronounces a decision which is without appeal. The penalty for repudiation is exclusion from the society.

Germany. (vi.) In Germany the national tendency to rely upon the State for the amelioration of existing conditions, together with the division of the industrial community into opposing camps of social and political opinion, causes that community to lack the consolidation and independence which favour the institution of voluntary methods of dealing with trade disputes. Organised labour bears a far smaller proportion than in England to the total labour of the country, and the only trade union in Germany which very closely resembles the English institution is the National Printers' Trade Union, formed in 1867, and re-named the German Printers' Benefit Society after the prosecution of its leaders as Socialists in 1878. This body, which rapidly extended throughout Germany, established in 1873 a board of conciliation for the whole printing trade of the Empire. It consisted of an equal number of employers and employed, empowered to take action in the event of any proposal to alter the wages' list. Local boards in the twelve main centres of the industry were empowered to decide all minor disputes arising out of the terms of the labour contract, subject to appeal to the central board. The repudiation of awards, in some instances, by the Master Printers' Association led to the abolition of the boards in 1878, and the substitution of a wages' committee, in connection with which the old local organisation was revived in 1886. The strike of 1891–92 inflicted a serious blow on the whole system. Attempts to organise voluntary boards of arbitration and conciliation for other industries have met with very little success, but there are some instances of such boards in particular factories, such as the Schultheiss Brass Foundry. These are rather consultative committees than boards of conciliation in the ordinary sense.

Italy. (vii.) According to Signor Bodio, Director-General of Statistics at Rome, institutions for the settlement of disputes between labour and capital hardly exist in Italy. In the event of strikes the civil authorities are called upon to restore order, and the question at issue is then submitted to the arbitration of some influential or official person selected for the occasion only. There are, however, a few instances of voluntary joint boards of conciliation and arbitration, of which the most conspicuous is the Giuria

per l'Industria Serica at Como. In 1877 the association to which most of the silk manufacturers of Como belonged, opened an office for the settlement of the frequent disputes connected with wages. In 1880 the operatives demanded its reconstitution as a regular board of arbitration, and after numerous meetings of committees of employers and employed, the Giuria was established in 1883 under its present regulations. It consisted of 30 manufacturers elected by the Chamber of Commerce and the Employers' Association, and 48 operatives elected by the Consolato Operaio. The Giuria nominates from its members a presiding committee of three manufacturers elected by the operatives and three operatives elected by the manufacturers. The Board of Conciliation consists of four manufacturers and four operatives, drawn by lot from the general body of the Giuria, and is empowered to act only on the failure of conciliation by the presiding committee. After the strike of 1891 the Syndic (Mayor) of Como induced each manufacturer to adopt a fixed separate tariff. The Giuria can thus no longer compound general controversies, but only intervene in individual disputes arising out of these tariffs. The labour chambers now being established are beginning to assume the position of arbitrators, and to organise joint committees. Such a committee exists at Piacenza, appointed by the Labour Exchange and the Chamber of Commerce.

Holland. (viii.) In Holland the organisation of labour is as yet imperfect. Conflicts between labour and capital are not very frequent, though their number tends to increase. Thus systematic methods of settling disputes have hardly come into existence. They are to be found, however, in the boards of arbitration established in certain factories, notably that of Mr. van Marken of Delft. The Board in this case consists of equal numbers of employers and employed, with an impartial president, chosen by the members. As far as our information goes it has never yet been called into operation.

Sweden and Norway. (ix.) In Sweden and Norway the only trade possessing a standing board of conciliation is that of house-painters. It consists of an equal number of employers and employed. When a serious question arises an impartial president is appointed, and the question is decided by a majority of votes. This system is said to have worked very well. Proposals to establish permanent boards of conciliation and arbitration in other industries have not hitherto led to any result. The Norberg mining strike in 1891, against a reduction of wages, was settled by a board of arbitration composed of seven members, three representing each party, together with the Director of the Mine Department of the Collegium of Commerce (or Board of Trade) at Stockholm. Both parties undertook beforehand to abide by the award, and the men returned to work pending the decision. The Board examined the employers' books and decided the question in favour of the men. The award was accepted and carried out. Arbitration on similar lines was successful in a strike at the Gefle saw-mills.

Belgium. (x.) In Belgium voluntary boards of conciliation and arbitration have been established in various trades with satisfactory results. They were preceded by consultative committees (*chambres d'explications*) organised at the Mariemont colliery after the strike in 1875–76, by M. Weiler, mining engineer. These, which are still in existence, consist of workmen and foremen connected with the machinery department, not of actual colliers. In 1888 councils of conciliation and arbitration were instituted both at Mariemont and Bascoup for all classes of workmen employed there. Each council consists of an equal number of employers and workmen, and in case of equal voting the question is referred to the management of the company. These councils have proved useful in deciding important questions and promoting good feeling. In 1886 a joint committee of the same nature was formed at Brussels, representing the different organisations of masters and journeymen in the tailoring trade. In some other industries, as those of printers and jewellers, where no permanent board exists, temporary joint committees are appointed on the occasion of a dispute, and generally effect a compromise.

Switzerland. (xi.) It is stated that in Switzerland there is an increasing tendency towards the peaceable settlement of trade disputes. The formation of boards of arbitration and conciliation on the English model is a scheme that finds favour both with employers and employed, but it is felt that stronger organisation on both sides is necessary for its complete success. Such boards already exist in connection with 25 trade unions, and are active and efficient. The Zurich Federation of Employers' and Workmen's Associations, which was formed in 1889, provides for conciliation and arbitration, and each association which joins it undertakes to refer all disputes to the Federation Board, and to be bound by its decisions. Repudiation of an award is punished by censure or expulsion.

Spain. (xii.) In Spain there have been a few instances of the action of joint committees in fixing wages and thus avoiding disputes, but these institutions have been for the most part short lived.

2.—*Legislative Mediation and Arbitration.*

Legislative Arbitration: United States.

(xiii.) Legal provision for arbitration exists in the United States, in Canada, in New South Wales, and in most European countries. There are, however, few instances in which a permissive measure of this kind has proved operative. In the United States the first instance of such legislation was the Wallace Act of 1883 in Pennsylvania, passed after an investigation of the English system of voluntary boards, and authorising the establishment of boards of arbitration in that State. This Act took immediate effect, but the working of the boards constituted under it was apparently not very satisfactory. It was always found necessary to call in an umpire, whose award was invariably a compromise which satisfied neither party. The awards in this case are not binding until accepted by both parties. By a similar Act passed in Ohio in 1885, both must pledge themselves beforehand to accept the award.* Most of the American boards of arbitration have resulted from compulsory legislation. Of these, the only two possessing a record of several years are those of Massachusetts and New York, established in 1886 and 1887. The former is composed of a representative of the employers, a representative of the employed, and an impartial person chosen by both. The latter consists of two representatives of different political parties, and a member of a "*bonâ fide* trade organisation" of the State. Appeal to these boards is optional, but they are obliged, whether called upon or not, to proceed to any place where a dispute is in progress, and endeavour to bring about an amicable settlement. For this purpose the two parties are sometimes invited to discuss the question in the presence of the board, which holds in reserve the power, in default of a settlement, of inquiring into the cause of the controversy and publishing a report assigning the responsibility. Such a system of conciliation has an element of compulsion, but it is more often adopted than the method of direct arbitration, and the result is often satisfactory. When the board is called upon by either party to arbitrate, it holds an inquiry, which it may at discretion make public, and issues a written decision. The award is binding on the disputants for six months, unless 60 days' notice is given by the one to the other of an intention not to be bound by it. In 1887 such notice was given in two instances of arbitration by the Massachusetts Board, but in neither case was the award departed from at the end of the period. There is no provision for compelling the acceptance of the award. A similar Arbitration Act has been passed in California. In New Jersey arbitration boards were authorised by law in 1886, but were both voluntary and unofficial. An Act of 1892 supplemented them by State boards appointed by the Governor, and competent both to hear appeals from local boards and to settle disputes in the first instances, if desired by both parties. The disputants must agree beforehand to accept the award, but there is no means of compelling them to do so. Their prescribed constitution and procedure is very similar to that of the boards already mentioned. In Colorado, Missouri, and North Dakota, provision is made for mediation by the Board of Public Works or the Commissioner of Labour, who in Missouri may organise a board of arbitration on the failure of the former expedient. By an Act of March 10th, 1893, Commissioners of Conciliation may be elected in every town, incorporated village, or city of North Dakota at the same time as the Justices of the Peace. When issuing a summons in a civil action, the justice may issue a subpœna summoning two of these commissioners. The justice and commissioners, after hearing the evidence of the parties to the dispute upon oath or not at their discretion, shall "endeavour to persuade the parties to agree to an amicable settlement," and if an agreement is reached it may be made a judgment of the court. If, on the other hand, the parties cannot agree, the case must be adjourned for trial, and at the trial no part of the previous proceedings may be admitted as evidence. In April 1893, the Pennsylvania Legislature passed an Act empowering either or both parties to a dispute to apply to the Court of Common Pleas to constitute a Board of Arbitration. The court may at its discretion, with due regard to the importance of the case, constitute such a board, which shall sit with closed doors "until its organisation is consummated," each party selecting three members and the court appointing three more, or six if either party fails to comply. One of the members appointed by the court will preside, and the proceedings are to be public. Similar laws have been passed in Kansas, Iowa, and Maryland. It does not appear that any of the American State Boards, except that of Massachusetts, have

* An Act has recently been passed in Ohio "to provide for a State board of arbitration for the settlement "of differences between employers and their employés." It repeals the Act of 1885 which authorised the formation of voluntary tribunals. Its provisions do not differ materially from those of the Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Californian Acts. An Act was passed in Michigan on July 3rd, 1889, authorising the governor to appoint a State board, but so far he has failed to exercise the authority conferred upon him

been specially successful, and it is difficult to ascertain from their reports for how long a period their awards have been respected. The satisfactory nature of the work accomplished by the Massachusetts Board is pointed out in the Report for 1892. Attention is drawn to the fact that, during its seven years' existence, the strikes and lock-outs occurring in Massachusetts, though too numerous, have been largely settled in an amicable manner, and have in no case so seriously disturbed the public peace as in several other States of the Union. The success of the Board in promoting the settlement of disputes was, it is stated, more marked in 1892 than in any preceding year, owing to the better acquaintance of the public with the provisions of the law and the working of the Board, together with a general and growing sense of the "wasteful inutility" of strikes and lock-outs. During 1892 the Board dealt with 40 disputes, either spontaneously or on the application of the parties concerned, more than half the cases being of the latter kind, and nine of these applications coming jointly from employers and employed. There were altogether nine cases in which the efforts of the Board to effect a settlement were unsuccessful, owing to the refusal of arbitration, or to the natural termination of the dispute by the defeat of either side. Eight disputes were successfully settled by conciliation in the presence of the Board, and in eight the arbitration of the Board was applied for and accepted. All these latter cases, without exception, were disputes affecting wages in the shoemaking trade, and were submitted to arbitration at the desire of both parties, and the Board was sometimes required to draw up price lists in detail for each department of the industry. In 13 cases a private agreement was arrived at, with more or less assistance from the Board, and in two cases which occurred towards the end of the year, a settlement in this manner was expected. There was only one dispute, and that unfortunately of a rather serious kind, in which the action of the Board received other than the most courteous response. Under the Massachusetts Act, and those which resemble it in other States, a special voluntary board may be temporarily substituted for the State board at the desire of the persons concerned, and is endowed for the time being with all the powers of the permanent body. The Massachusetts Report for 1887 mentions two instances of the appointment of such a board. The Act of Congress of 1888 for the creation of voluntary inter-State boards for the settlement of disputes in railway labour appears to be practically inoperative. It makes the whole process optional, from the constitution of the board to the acceptance of the decision. The Nebraska Commissioner of Labour regards it as an inadequate measure. It is, however, the opinion of Mr. Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labour at Washington, that all arbitration should be voluntary, and that to constitute State boards is to return to the system of State regulation of wages.

Canada. (xiv.) In Canada the Legislatures of Ontario, Nova Scotia, and British Columbia have passed Acts for the settlement of trade disputes by arbitration, but no information has been received as to any instance of their operation. Under the Nova Scotia Mines Arbitration Act, arbitration is optional, but, to secure the acceptance of the award, the employer may retain 14 days' wages of his workmen and deposit the amount at the bank, together with an equal amount on his own part; the deposit on either side is forfeited on failure to carry out the award. This is the only instance in which a State arbitration board has been provided with any means of enforcing awards for the settlement of collective disputes. The British Columbian Act of April 1894 appoints a Commissioner of Councils of Labour Conciliation and Arbitration which are to be composed of persons nominated by the disputants and appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor, with a judge of the Supreme Court as President of the Council of Arbitration. The award in this case is not binding in law upon the parties unless they have previously entered into an agreement to be bound by it. The Dominion Trades and Labour Congress in 1891 passed a resolution in favour of the formation of a Dominion Board of Arbitration and Mediation, whose decisions should be compulsory in the case of railway companies and corporations holding public franchises. In 1892, the Congress further resolved that arbitration should be adopted wherever possible, and that for the purpose of facilitating this, the Government should appoint a Board of Conciliation and Arbitration.

Australasia. (xv.) The New South Wales Commission on Strikes, appointed in 1890, took a considerable amount of evidence on the subject of arbitration and conciliation, and finally reported in favour of a State board of conciliation, empowered to constitute itself a board of arbitration on the failure of the disputants to agree. The Commission recommended that, for purposes of conciliation, which usually requires special knowledge of the matter in dispute, there should be temporary members of the board, representing the interests concerned, and that, for purposes of arbitration, for which judicial ability is

necessary, there should be a permanent section, with a chairman appointed by the Government. The Commission advised that the board should have no power to compel the disputants to appear before it, but that the request of one of them should suffice to call it into action. The award should not be enforced, since the function of such a board is rather admonitory than judicial. In England, as the Commission pointed out, compliance has always been optional, and awards have rarely been rejected. The Commission, moreover, while regarding it as essential that powers of arbitration should be held in reserve, expressed a decided preference for conciliation in point of practical efficiency. As the result of this Report an Act was passed in 1891 establishing a central court of arbitration for the colony, but leaving it to the discretion of the Governor whether a central board of conciliation shall be formed or district councils to the number of five. The Act departed from the recommendations of the Commission by separating the conciliation board from the board of arbitration during the exercise of its own function, while allowing its members to sit as assessors on the reference of a matter to the board of arbitration. It also made the term of office the same for both councils, but authorised the formation of special temporary councils whenever required. It provided that, if before the award were given both parties agreed to be bound by it, it might be made a rule of the Supreme Court on the application of either. Two councils for the whole colony, one for conciliation, and one for arbitration, were appointed under the Act, and met in October 1892, when a doubt was expressed by the president whether the absence of compulsion to refer disputes to the board would not make the law inoperative. This, it is believed, is the only instance of actual legislation providing for the settlement of trade disputes in any Australasian Colony.

The only dispute, so far as can be ascertained, which has been settled by arbitration under the Act, was the strike at the Helensburg Colliery early in 1893. The arbitrators practically upheld the reductions proposed by the owners, and after some resistance the award was accepted by the men. Two mining disputes occurred in April 1893, in which, according the "Sydney Daily Telegraph," conciliation and arbitration respectively were offered by the employed but refused by the employers. The consent of both parties is not necessary for a reference to the council of conciliation, but in this case the employers replied that they could not make any change in the terms which they had at first proposed. The total result of the first year's operation of the Act was one case dealt with by arbitration and one by conciliation; eight applications made to the board by the employed were refused by the employers, and in six cases the nogotiations of the board were unsuccessful. The poverty of the result achieved is attributed by the Clerk of Awards to the collapse of the labour organisations since the strikes of 1890 and 1891, and the great increase which has at the same time taken place in the power of employers' associations. The conclusion which he draws from the experience of the year is "that voluntary conciliation and arbitration, though excellent methods where the "parties to a dispute are upon fairly equal terms of power, break down where cir- "cumstances generally, a crowded labour market, accumulated funds, superior "organisation or other causes, place one of the two in an overwhelmingly superior "position than the other. . . . As matters stood the misfortunes of the one (party) were "the opportunity of the other and that opportunity has been fully seized." Only four out of fourteen employers' associations responded to the invitation sent to them on the occasion of the inaugural meeting of the board. The usefulness of a standing council of conciliation has not been proved, as all applications for conciliation were made under section five of the Act which provides for the appointment by the applicants of conciliators outside the standing council. During the year it was decided that the councils may give their services unofficially in cases where the number of persons employed, who are concerned in the dispute, falls below ten, the minimum number prescribed by the Act. In one case the employers refused the invitation sent to them by the council of conciliation after application had been made to it by the employed on the ground that those persons being already on strike, had ceased to be in their employment. As the Act provides only for conciliation between employers and employed, it has been pointed out that a further definition of these terms would be desirable. Five years before the passing of the Act of 1891, a Bill which partly anticipated it had been introduced into the New South Wales Parliament. In 1890 a Bill authorising optional councils of conciliation was rejected by the Victorian Legislative Assembly, and Mr. Kingston's Industrial Unions Bill, which made elaborate provision for the formation of public and private conciliation boards, was rejected by the South Australian House of Assembly. On its re-introduction as amended

in 1892 it was again thrown out. A Bill for industrial conciliation and arbitration has been under the consideration of the Labour Bills Committee of the New Zealand Parliament during the present year: it provides for district boards of arbitration elected by employers and employed, and for a court of arbitration to which any dispute which cannot be settled by the local board must be referred; the decision of the court is to be enforced by law. The court itself is to be composed of three members appointed by the Associations of Employers and Associations of Employed, and the Governor.

On the Continent of Europe.

(xvi.) On the continent of Europe the only example of successful conciliation and arbitration as established by law is to be found in the peculiarly French institution of Conseils de Prud'hommes, which has also been established in Belgium, and less extensively in Switzerland. Originating, according to some authorities, in the thirteenth century, this institution was represented in the eighteenth by the Tribunal Commun of the silk trade of Lyons. In 1791 this was swept away, with other mediæval survivals, but was restored by Napoleon in 1806 in the form of a Conseil de Prud'hommes, which became the model for other councils in the principal manufacturing towns. In 1892 the number existing in France was 149. According to the official publication "De la Conciliation et de l'Arbitrage," it is to this institution that "the comparative tranquillity prevailing in French industry in this century" is due. It is nevertheless the case that the Conseils de Prud'hommes are not directly concerned with the settlement of collective disputes, or with the determination of rates of wages. They can only deal with disputes between individual workmen or employers, or between a workman and his employer, and only with such disputes as arise out of the interpretation of a contract written or implied; while in the case of a claim exceeding 8*l.* in value, an appeal lies from them to the tribunals of commerce. Their great merit consists in the simplicity and inexpensiveness of their procedure, and the readiness with which they dispose of small disputes which would otherwise cause ill-feeling or require an elaborate legal remedy. The councils exercise the double function of conciliation and arbitration, and are divided for this purpose into two committees, that of conciliation (*bureau particulier*), and that of arbitration or judgment (*bureau général ou de jugement*). The former consists of an employer and a workman, if possible, of different industries. The disputants state their case before this Committee, which endeavours to bring them to a friendly understanding, and, if necessary, suggests terms of agreement. About two-thirds of the cases brought forward are decided on the spot; those in which conciliation has failed are referred to the Committee of Judgment. It is stated that the proportion of such cases has lately shown a tendency to increase. The Committee of Judgment consists of two employers and two workmen, with a president (an employer), and a vice-president (a workman), who preside alternately. Witnesses may be called and are obliged to appear, but counsel are not admitted. In all cases where the value of the claim is below 8*l.*, the judgment of the court is final and is enforced by law. This legal recognition enables the councils to command respect, while both employers and employed have confidence in judges chosen from among themselves. The electors on each side choose their representatives at separate meetings, and the employer Prud'hommes are elected by employers. The system by which the employers elected the employed, and the employed the employers, was abolished as unworkable in 1853. A council can be created by a State decree, on the request of a local chamber of commerce. Under the decree of March 1890, only those trades in which materials undergo transformation can elect such councils; thus, the mining and transport industries among others, are excluded. The electors must be masters or workmen over 25 years of age, and resident for three years in the neighbourhood. The Prud'hommes must be 30 years of age, and able to read and write. A Bill is now (1893) before the Legislature, which provides for the codification of the various decrees relating to the conseils, and the introduction of certain reforms, such as the extension of the suffrage to women and of the jurisdiction of the council to further trades and to cases involving sums up to 500 fr. (20*l.*) The new law of arbitration passed by the French Legislature in December 1892 attempts a compromise between a purely permissive measure and one dependent on State initiative. It does not establish permanent boards, but provides facilities for a resort to conciliation or arbitration if desired, and at the least possible cost to the disputants. The justice of the peace may urge them to form a committee of conciliation, and may be asked to preside over such a committee, or, failing conciliation, he may invite them to appoint arbitrators. If these can neither make a decision nor agree upon a new arbitrator, such a person is named by the president of the civil tribunal. There is no provision by this law

against the refusal of arbitration or the repudiation of awards. Article 15 of the law specially mentions that women of French nationality may be delegates with a view to conciliation. The Act has already taken effect in numerous cases, but apparently, according to the latest returns, not with altogether satisfactory results.

The establishment of the modern Conseils de Prud'hommes in France and Belgium was almost simultaneous, Belgium being then part of the French Empire. Their constitution was afterwards completely remodelled, still on the lines indicated by the successive reforms which were taking place in their French counterparts. In 1891 there were 27 of these tribunals, and it appears from statistics of their work between 1862 and 1891 that about 75 per cent. of the cases brought before them were settled by conciliation. They are now supplemented by an institution which is in closer relation with modern industrial conditions, namely, the Councils of Trade and Labour (*Conseils de l'Industrie et du Travail*) established by law in 1887. The main difference between these and the Conseils de Prud'hommes, so far as they are concerned with the settlement of disputes, is that the Councils of Trade and Labour are competent to deal with collective disputes and to pronounce opinions affecting future agreements between employers and employed, instead of decisions based solely on existing contracts. Moreover, while the decisions of the Prud'hommes are binding in matters within their competence, those of the Councils of Trade and Labour may be accepted or not at discretion. Their principal function is not that of boards of conciliation, but of intelligence departments charged with the collection of statistical data bearing on the state of industry in general and the furnishing of information to the Government. The apathy or hostility of employers and workmen, and the want of adequate representation of the various branches of industry, are said to impede the Councils in the exercise of their conciliatory functions. Each Council is established by a Royal decree, which specifies the limits of its district, the number of its sections, each representing a different industry, and the number of representatives of employers and employed. Their constitution is very similar to that of the Conseils de Prud'hommes on which they were based.

(xvii.) In Switzerland, the establishment of Conseils de Prud'hommes dates only from 1883, when the Tribunaux d'Arbitrage Industriel, instituted at Geneva in 1874, were abolished to make way for them. Ten trades are represented on these Councils, the watch industry being one. Transport and commerce are also included, contrary to the practice in France. In Neuchâtel, the formation of such councils is authorised by law, but is not compulsory, as at Geneva and Bâle, and only one town has hitherto availed itself of the Act. The institution has shown satisfactory results at Geneva, and the proportion of cases settled by conciliation, though not so high as in France or Belgium, tends to increase. A law authorising voluntary boards of arbitration for Canton Vadu was passed in 1888, and has been carried into effect in several cases. Switzerland.

(xviii.) An Italian institution, similar to the Conseils de Prud'hommes, is to be found in the Collegi di Probi Viri, recommended by the Commission on Strikes in 1878, but only established by law, after the failure of numerous schemes, in June 1893. The law is permissive, and the boards are to be instituted by Royal decree. They are to be elective, and equally representative of employers and employed, with a president appointed by the Government. Like the Conseils de Prud'hommes, they combine conciliatory functions with special judicial powers within certain limits. They can deal only with existing contracts, and if a sum exceeding 8*l.* (200 lire) is in dispute, an appeal lies from the "Giuria" or board of arbitration to the local tribunal or praetor. They differ from the Conseils de Prud'hommes in that women are eligible as arbitrators. Italy.

(xix.) In Germany special courts for the settlement of industrial disputes have in various forms been sanctioned by law since the beginning of the century; but on the whole, legislation of this kind has been found ineffectual. The incorporation into France of the left bank of the Rhine, during the Napoleonic wars, led to the formation of Conseils de Prud'hommes in several districts, and when the provinces reverted to Prussia, an attempt was made to extend the system, but with no great success. The Prussian Legislature passed a law in 1849 for the establishment of industrial courts, and eleven of these were formed, but accomplished little, partly on account of a want of clearness in the provisions affecting their constitution and procedure. The Industrial Code, passed by the North German Confederation in 1869, and subsequently adopted by the Empire, authorised the institution by the communal authorities of courts of arbitration for the settlement of disputes respecting the labour contract, the members of such courts to be chosen from among the employers and the employed in equal numbers. The industrial classes, however, were slow to take advantage of this Germany.

provision, and of the few courts which were formed, some never exercised their functions, and others were prevented by their statutes from intervening in the collective disputes with which the authors of the Code intended them to deal. Those which had power so to intervene do not appear to have used it, since no instance can be found of any strike which was settled by the arbitration of a State court. The Stuttgart court was the most successful in connection with individual disputes, and the factory inspector for the district reported in 1889 that it had succeeded in gaining the confidence of the workpeople, who showed much more activity than the employers in the election of representatives. After several ineffectual attempts at further legislation, a law was passed in 1890 by which the existing courts were abolished, and provision made for the formation of industrial courts of a somewhat different character. Their usual function is retrospective and judicial, like that of the arbitration board of the Conseils de Prud'hommes, and in this capacity their decisions are final if the matter in dispute is below the value of 5*l*. If a larger sum is involved, appeal may be made to the regular tribunals of the district. An industrial court has the further power of constituting itself a board of conciliation for the settlement of disputes affecting future contracts, when appealed to in this sense by both parties. In such a case four assessors are named by the president, and the disputants may elect further assessors provided that equality of representation is preserved. The decisions of the court when acting as a board of conciliation are not legally binding, and cannot be enforced. Its duty is simply to conciliate or arbitrate as may be required, and to publish the result of the negotiations. Up to the end of 1892 nine courts had been established under the new law, and during that year had dealt with 1,480 cases, of which about half were settled by compromise. In some districts where industrial courts are specially needed, there has been considerable delay in carrying out the law. In Berlin the election of assessors only took place in February 1893. The Berlin court consists of 420 assessors, of whom two must be summoned to each meeting, and the statutes provide that those summoned on each occasion shall be as far as possible of the same trade as the disputants. In the mining districts the expense of organising the courts is borne by the State instead of by the communal authorities, and the conservative party in the Chamber of Deputies offered strong but ineffectual opposition to the proposal to vote the necessary funds. Courts were established in those districts in April 1893. Attention has been called to the very infrequent exercise by industrial courts of the power of resolving themselves into boards of conciliation.

(xx.) The Austrian industrial courts, which were instituted in 1869, can, like the French prud'hommes, decide disputes which arise out of existing labour contracts. These courts have both conciliatory and judicial functions; any case brought before them is first referred to a committee of two, who endeavour to effect a settlement, and in the event of failure bring the matter before the judicial board (*Spruchcollegium*). There are also committees of arbitration in connection with the guilds, and a Government Bill of 1891 strove to bring the two industrial parties still closer together by establishing workmen's committees and forming compulsory boards of arbitration. The Bill has not yet become law, but it affords a good example of the desire of the Austrian Government to exercise a mediating influence upon labour disputes and to associate employers and employed in the work of self-government so that they may be brought to discuss their respective grievances in a friendly and reasonable spirit.

Holland, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, Portugal.

(xxi.) No legalised institution for the settlement of trade disputes at present exists in Holland, Denmark, Sweden, or Norway. In Holland the national love of freedom is manifested in a distrust of State interference which is only now beginning to relax. The desirability of establishing district labour councils has been considered by the Dutch Labour Commission, and the subject has more than once been brought before the States General. A Bill now under consideration provides for the formation of such councils, with committees of conciliation and arbitration. A law authorising the establishment of courts of arbitration and conciliation was passed in Portugal in 1889. The courts are also to collect information on industrial questions and to see to the enforcement of laws regulating the conditions of labour.

Throughout Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, institutions exist which are known as boards of conciliation; but, far from dealing primarily with trade disputes, their object is to secure cheap justice to the people in ordinary civil cases, and to prevent litigation by bringing about an amicable arrangement, or pronouncing a decision with the consent of both parties. Either mode of settlement is final, and all civil cases must by law be brought in the first instance before the local board of conciliation.

Legislative mediation.

(xxii.) Legal provision for mediation exists in the United States in connection with the State Boards of Arbitration which have been already described, and are enjoined by law to intervene in trade disputes with the object of effecting an amicable settlement.

This intervention, when successful, frequently leads to a discussion between the parties in the presence of the Board, and thus mediation passes into conciliation. In Colorado, Maryland, Missouri, and North Dakota provision is made for arbitration by the Board of Public Works or the Commissioner of Labour. The French Arbitration Act of 1892 authorises the Justice of the Peace to urge the parties to a dispute to form a conciliation board or appoint arbitrators; if his overtures are rejected, he is empowered to publish a statement to that effect. These are the principal cases in which mediation is provided for by law; instances of private intervention are still less frequent. In such a method of settlement there is more commonly a kind of compromise between an official and a private proceeding; that is, it is effected by a person in an official position acting for the time being as far as possible in a private capacity. In certain cases the Governors of States have offered their services as mediators in American strikes, and in Australia mediation was attempted by the Mayor of Sydney and others, but with small success, in the great Maritime Strike of 1890. It is said to have been employed, though not publicly, in the Broken Hill Miners' Strike of 1892. In Australia, however, especially in South Australia, a frequent method of settling disputes is by the private mediation of the central council of federated unions for the Colony; and similarly in France, disputes affecting the federation of workers in the book trade are most commonly settled by the intervention of the Federation delegate. On the Continent there is, generally speaking, a strong tendency on the part of both employers and employed to refer disputes to the mediation of State officials. In France, Norway, and Sweden, and Austria, the magistrates frequently intervene; and in Switzerland the mediation of the cantonal and communal authorities, or other persons of recognised standing, has proved increasingly successful of late years. In Spain the Governors of the provinces have often intervened. In Germany, Austria, and Russia it is very usual for this office to be undertaken by the Inspectors of Factories, who occupy a prominent position in the industrial world. Their special opportunities of obtaining information no doubt constitute a high qualification, and their influence in this direction might be even more beneficial in Germany and Russia, but for the distrust with which the working classes are apt to regard them in Austria their success in dealing with disputes appears to be remarkable, as the Inspectors' Reports for 1888 mention 65 strikes, those for 1889, 135 strikes, which were settled by their mediation. One remarkable instance of successful mediation is that of the German Emperor on the occasion of the Westphalian miners' strike of 1889. It is impossible, however, to ignore the authoritative character which necessarily belongs to the recommendations of the head of the State, and it is not probable that either mediator or disputants could forget the forces which were expressly stated to be held in reserve.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

APPENDIX VI.

Memorandum by Mr. Tom Mann on State and Municipal Control of Industry.

The control of industry by the State or municipalities is advocated because it is believed that such collective control would best secure the interests of all sections of the community.

It is held that modern commercialism with its intense competition does not admit of proper individual development, and amongst the most ardent advocates of collective control of industry are to be found those strong individualists who desire nothing so much as the opportunity for all to fully develop their manhood and womanhood. They point to the fact that under present conditions a considerable proportion of the population are in enforced idleness, and are, therefore, consuming without producing, and to the fact that many others are engaged producing and distributing articles, some of which are useless, and others positively mischievous in their effects, and which would never find a sale were it not for the modern development of a system of palming off goods by accomplished salesmen who successfully persuade people to purchase articles that are not wanted: and the energy of the producers and distributors of such articles, it is contended, is entirely wasted, they too being consumers, but not producers of anything of value.

It is further held that modern-day competition is productive of many of the worst evils that now burden society; to it is mainly chargeable the very grave evils that arise from failures in business with the attendant results of mental derangement in many cases, and crime in others; and in either case whether men are in lunatic asylums, hospitals, or jails, their value to the State is nil.

It is also held that the progress of science, metallurgical, mechanical, and chemical, is impeded by the sectionalised methods of conducting trade that obtain to-day, and that, therefore, the standard of life is very much lower than it would be with more perfect industrial organisation, such as might be obtained under collective control. The baneful tendency of modern commercialism demands of the conductors of trade and commerce, not that they shall endeavour to excel, but that they shall by some means or other obtain the trade of competing firms, and thus honesty is sacrificed for rascality in thousands of instances, quality gives place to "shoddy," and the collective good is lost sight of in the intensity of the sectional struggle for existence.

It is also held that even of the wealth now produced an unfair share of it gets into the possession of those who render very small value to the State, so that upon the grounds of inefficient production, and of inequitable distribution, it is demanded that public control should supersede the private control of industry.

It must not be thought that this is merely the demand of small sections of poverty-stricken men, or the wastrels of various grades of the community; it may or may not include these, but certainly it is the fact that an increasing number of recognised scholars, competent business men, and thoughtful workmen are endorsing the proposals in favour of State or municipal regulation of industry.

The belief obtains that with competent organisers there might be such a regulation of the production and distribution of commodities as should admit of all getting the requisites of life at all times of the year, and that the mischief arising from fluctuations could be spread over the whole of the people, so that none should be entirely crushed by adversity. Historically considered, it is contended that economic evolution points to the collective control of industry, as is indicated by the fact that for many years past in numerous trades the old individual relationship between employer and workman has ceased, the business manager taking the place of the friendly employer, whilst the limited liability companies are becoming in increasing instances enormous concerns employing thousands of workmen with a strong tendency for these to again combine into syndicates of prodigious proportions, so that whilst we still have sectional control, with its advantages and evils, the tendency of the times is strongly in favour of reducing these sections, and those who take careful note of these events are of opinion that the present tendency will gather force until we reach at least municipal, probably national, control, and the demand now made is that Government should facilitate the change that the evolutionary industrial forces are thrusting upon us. This demand for municipal or national control of all industries is opposed as yet by a considerable portion of the thoughtful community, and among those who are firm adherents

to the principles of collectivism there are many who, as yet, only call for a modicum of municipal or State regulation. On the other hand there are many opponents of collectivism who are distinctly and enthusiastically in favour of the State control of the land and railways, and of the municipal control of tramways and docks, and the water and lighting supply.

The great question of the land is receiving adequate attention without my referring to it at this stage, neither is it necessary to dwell upon the railway management in this country, except to say that a growing demand is arising in favour of the nationalisation of railways, and that some contend that travelling should be supported out of public taxation and not by payment per distance as at present.

The specific works that I have to deal with is that of the control of the docks, wharves, warehouses, &c. in the Port of London. So numerous and serious have been the disputes that have arisen between the various groups of employers and workmen in the Port, that public attention has been directed to the subject of these disputes for some time past. Suggested joint committees, boards of arbitration or conciliation, or friendly understanding between employers and workmen direct, all have been tried, but with only poor results. The case is not disposed of by employers attributing to the workmen a careless or mischievous disposition, nor yet by workmen replying that the cause of the troubles is due to the avarice of the employers. Upon investigation it will be seen that the methods by which the business of the port is conducted are of so varied and peculiar a nature that it is practically impossible to proceed many weeks together without serious difficulties arising through dissatisfaction on one side or the other, and it will be seen that the present methods of conducting the trade of the Port are conducive neither to the well-being of the employers, the workers, or the general public.

London having been the capital and chief centre of the English people for so many centuries, it has naturally followed that a large proportion of the imports should find their way up the Thames, because there are situated the chief agencies of consumption and distribution. It is not difficult to understand that the dock accommodation of a century ago, which amply met the requirements then, should soon prove unequal to the increasing trade, and that from time to time great and important changes have been made to increase the accommodation as trade and commerce grew. Accompanying these changes there has always been much tenacity shown to retain ancient methods and customs.

It will be understood that if the work of a large port is to be done efficiently, such accommodation is needed as will admit of the import cargoes being brought direct by the ship to the warehouse, from which it can be delivered to the merchants with the greatest expedition, in order that no unnecessary time or expense be spent upon the cargo, and this means that it is desirable that there should be no second or third handling of goods if one handling will suffice, and the same applies to export or outgoing cargo. And as practically all goods have to be warehoused, it is necessary that the requisite warehouse accommodation should be in immediate proximity to the discharging berths, otherwise it will necessitate the handling of goods several times over to get them from the docks to the warehouse, which, of course, will increase the cost considerably. In consequence of cargoes coming from various parts of the world at different seasons of the year, it is desirable that all imports should be brought as far as possible into one compact dock system, as otherwise for a considerable portion of the year machinery and men will be idle, and less than the best economy effected; and keeping in view the necessity for rapidity of despatch, if good all-round results are to be obtained, it is also a necessary condition of success that the best machinery available shall be used for loading and discharging. And in the case of a large port like London, where a considerable amount of the cargo brought in is for transhipment purposes, it is also necessary that the discharging and loading berths shall be near each other, as otherwise several handlings of goods must take place, and time occupied in transmission from dock to dock, which would not be necessary if the export and import docks were immediately adjacent. Thus, for a proper system of docks it is requisite that the docks and warehouses shall be concentrated in the smallest space, and that the best machinery be employed.

Straggling Condition of the Docks, Wharves, and Warehouses of London.

If examination now be made of the dock accommodation in the Port of London it will be found that we have a peculiar and straggling array of docks and wharves, and

warehouses and granaries, scattered along a distance of over 25 miles by the river from Tilbury to Blackfriars. Indeed, this does not properly represent the mileage covered. Many of the Atlantic boats now discharge cattle and cheese at Thames Haven, 10 miles below Tilbury, and much cargo is taken by lighters to numerous wharves as high up the river as Hammersmith, eight miles above Blackfriars. On either side of the river, along the whole of this distance, there are 10 groups of docks, about 250 wharves and 44 granaries. If we exclude the Tilbury Docks and the numerous small wharves above Blackfriars we then have 10 miles where the bulk of the work of the Port is carried on, from Blackfriars to North Woolwich, embracing the Albert Docks.

The first group of docks travelling eastwards is the London and St. Katherine's, situated a little below the Tower of London on the Middlesex or North side of the river. One mile and a quarter further east on the same side is the Regent's Canal Dock, under separate management. Half a mile further east, still on the north side, the West and South-West India group of docks is reached. Three-quarters of a mile further east by the river, and still on the north or Middlesex side, the Millwall Docks are reached, which docks are controlled by a separate management. Following on the winding course of the river for another three miles the East India Docks are reached, although they are only about half a mile distant from the eastern end of the West India Dock (Import). Another three-quarters of a mile eastward by the river the entrance to the Victoria Dock is reached. Beyond this again is the Royal Albert, all on the north side of the river. Then a skip of 15 miles is made by the river before the Tilbury Docks are reached, which are also on the north side, in Essex.

Between London Bridge and the West India Docks some of the principal coasting wharves are situated, each under separate management. In some instances piers are built into the river alongside of which the vessels run for discharging, but many vessels are discharged while moored in the stream, the cargo being put into lighters* or barges, and taken thence to wharves or docks.

The six coasting wharves that conduct the Scotch trade are situated at or near Wapping. The green fruit vessels from the Continent run chiefly to several wharves adjacent to Billingsgate Fish Market, immediately below London Bridge.

The only group of docks on the south or Surrey side of the river is the Surrey Commercial group, which covers a very large area because of the extensive timber-ponds required, this group of docks being devoted almost exclusively to timber and grain, and under a separate management.

Many of the principal wharves are on the south side of the river, some of them doing a very large trade, especially in teas, and getting their supplies mainly from the docks by lighters; that is, the vessels discharge in the docks, and about 50 per cent. of the cargo is landed on quay for sorting and put into craft (that is lighters or barges), or put into craft direct from the ship, its destination being one or other of the wharves or dock warehouses. Another 25 per cent. of the cargo is landed and re-delivered to railways or vans, only a portion of which goes direct to customers, much of it going to wharves and warehouses, leaving only 25 per cent. to be warehoused by the docks.

These numerous operations are very expensive, cause very serious delays and consequently handicap the Port against all other ports whose accommodation is adequate to present requirements. It is mainly due to the fact that imported and exported goods are in many instances handled several times over by loading into barges, then taken a few miles along the river and again discharged, or loaded from the docks into vans to be taken to some more convenient dock or warehouse, that the cost of work in the Port of London runs up so high, and that rapidity of despatch is seriously hampered.

Thus if a ship enters the Royal Albert Dock and discharges there, 50 per cent. of the cargo will be discharged overside, that is, put out of the ship into barges, or it will be placed on the quay and sorted, and then put into barges, and conveyed to various wharves or docks. When the goods have been placed on the dock quay it costs about 9*d.* per ton to re-deliver these goods into barges. It costs on the average an additional 1*s.* 4*d.* per ton for lighterage, *i.e.*, for conveyance by barge from the dock to the wharves, and it again costs 9*d.* per ton for landing, *i.e.*, to discharge the goods from the barge on to the wharf. This is rendered necessary at present because the docks are not capable of receiving, working, and warehousing the cargo brought

* The only difference between a barge and a lighter is that the barge has a flat bottom and the lighter is oval-shaped, having a keel.

into the Port; and so inconveniently situated are the docks and warehouses of the London and India Docks Joint Committee, for instance, that an enormous expenditure is incurred by cartage and lighterage from the docks to the warehouses under the same company. Thus produce is brought to the Albert Dock, but there are no warehouses at this dock, only transit sheds; so the produce is then taken by the company's vans or sent by rail or barge from the Dock to the Up-town warehouses at an additional cost in some instance of 5*s.* or 6*s.* per ton, all of which adds to the cost of the work of the Port, and tends to increase considerably the labour difficulties that arise.

To illustrate the inadequacy of the present dock accommodation of the Port through want of compactness and through their peculiar construction, it will be necessary to make use of figures dealing with the tonnage entered, and noting what becomes of it. The following figures apply to the trade of 1889, those for 1890 not being obtainable at the time of writing.

Entered at the Port of London in the year 1889 :—

Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.
Sailing vessels (3,010)	1,192,656
Sailing vessels carry 50 per cent. more than registered tonnage	596,328
	1,788,984
Steamers (7,720)	6,357,465
	8,146,449

This does not include the coasting trade, which brings the total tonnage inwards to about 13,000,000 tons per annum, and the tonnage outwards to 8,000,000 tons.

*Of this 8,146,449 tons, 2,488,102 are continental, and go to the wharves as distinct from the docks	8,146,449	
Deducting this amount from the total	2,488,102	
We have left as tonnage from Foreign Countries and British Possessions, but exclusive of coasting trade	5,658,347	
Of which the Joint Committee have worked or delivered, as per dock account	3,273,267	
Leaving for other docks and wharves	2,385,080	
	£	£
Of the 3,273,000 entering the Joint Committee's Docks, about 840,000 tons are warehoused by them, but to get this amount to their warehouses from the docks by lighterage or other means, the committee actually paid	81,341	
An expense that would not be incurred if the warehouse accommodation was all that is required.		
Of the remaining 2,433,000 about 1,600,000 are conveyed by lighters to other docks or wharves, and the approximate cost of this, which ought not to be necessary, will be as follows :—		
First unnecessary operation—that of putting from dock quay into lighter at 9*d.* per ton	60,000	
Second—average cost of lighterage, 1*s.* 4*d.*	106,666	
Third unnecessary operation—discharging from lighter to wharf or dock at 9*d.* per ton	60,000	

* A few Continental boats run to Tilbury, but their tonnage does not materially affect the generalisation here given.

	£	£
The remaining 833,000 would be delivered to railways and customers' vans, but I am not able to fix the amount handled a second time by cartage to railways through not having direct connection, and therefore leave it out, but so far we have an estimated total expenditure that ought to be wholly unnecessary on the imported cargo received by the docks under the Joint Committee of 308,007*l.*		308,007
On export cargo, which is nearly as large in tonnage, the same difficulties present themselves, though not to the same extent, and the expenditure is estimated at	100,000	100,000
Making a total, on import and export cargo in the docks under the Joint Commiteee, of 408,007*l*		408,007
We have now to deal with the Continental trade the greater part of which is discharged in midstream. The total inward cargo from the Continent is 2,488,102 tons.		
At least one-half of this is taken by lighters to wharves and docks, incurring a cost for lighterage at an average of 1*s.* 4*d.* per ton	82,930	
And a landing cost for discharging from lighter to dock or wharf of at least 9*d.* per ton	46,650	
Or an unnecessary expenditure on import cargo from the continent of 129,580*l.*		129,580
The continental outward cargo is equal to the inward, *i.e.*, 2,488,102 tons, and as nearly the whole of this is taken from docks or wharves by lighters to the vessel, an unnecessary expenditure on lighterage is incurred upon, say, 2,000,000 tons, at 1*s.* 4*d.* per ton	133,000	
And the same tonnage to be lifted out of lighters into ship at a cost of 9*d.* per ton	75,000	
Thus showing an unnecessary expenditure on continental outward cargo of 208,000*l.*		208,000
Or continental inward and outward, 337,580*l.*		
This added to the estimated excessive expenditure under Joint Committee of 408,007*l.* gives a total of		745,587*

This estimate is certainly considerably under the actual excess of expenditure, but it will serve to indicate the causes that contribute to high rates in the Port of London, and which in turn contribute to the numerous labour difficulties that take place there.

As previously stated, if the work of the Port is to be done efficiently, we require not only compact and ample dock and warehouse accommodation conveniently situated to the centre of distribution, but the best machinery should also be used if economy with efficiency is to be secured. It has been shown that in London we have not compact docks and warehouses; on the contrary, they are distributed over a very large and unworkable area, and instead of having uniform control over the Port, we have at least 300 different sets of employers to deal with, each with their sectional interests and peculiar methods.

* This total affects only that cargo that goes to the Docks under the Joint Committee and to the wharves, leaving that which goes to Milwall, Surrey Commercial, and Regent's Canal Docks.

Now, if we look for first-class machinery we find that whilst much of that in use is good, there is much of it quite obsolete, and in many instances an entire lack of any machinery whatever.

Thus, if one stands on London Bridge and looks eastward when the fruit-boats are being discharged, it will be seen that the packages are taken from the ship into the adjacent warehouses, and the method adopted is positively staggering. Exactly the same method is made use of now as must have obtained a century ago; a more primitive method could not be used, and it would be impossible to find less evidence of mechanical engineering in the interior of Africa or China than obtains in the City of London in connection with the discharge of fruit. There will be seen hundreds of men running to and from the ship to the warehouse carrying on their shoulders the boxes of fruit one at a time. Much of this is taken up narrow winding stairs to the various warehouse floors, a long row of men following each other along alleys, streets, and staircases as though hydraulic lifts and mechanical appliances were unknown in England. With proper warehouse accommodation and mechanical appliances instead of scores of men pottering about with packages on their heads, the hydraulic elevator should be at work lifting a dozen packages at once, and landing them on the warehouse floor ready for delivery, thus facilitating despatch and economising expenditure. Going lower down the river we find corn-porters at work discharging grain in far too primitive a style to admit of rapid and economical despatch. One cannot traverse the docks and wharves of the Port without being struck with the fact that an entire change of method is requisite if satisfactory results are to be obtained.

It may seem strange that I of all persons should emphasize the necessity for improved accommodation and mechanical appliances in connection with the docks and warehouses of the Port, representing as I do the interests of the men rather than that of the employers. If more machinery and better accommodation are applied, it will mean a diminution in the number of men employed; that certainly would be the case, and such experience as I have had causes me to think that it would be best for all that there should be less men finding employment there, and that those men should be permanently employed.

The evils arising from intermittent employment such as that obtained by a large proportion of those engaged in the docks and wharves in London have been laid before the Commission by the men themselves, and verification of those statements is easily obtainable by anyone willing to devote a few days to personal investigation.

From time to time one or other group of employers announce their intention to increase their permanent staff, but I say, as one who claims to know something of the nature of the employment in the Port of London, that with the numerous sectional interests involved in the work of the Port, and the scattered condition of the dock and warehouse accommodation, it is impossible to have more than 50 per cent. of the labourers employed under a permanency; the remaining 50 per cent. are required more or less casually, and every wharfinger and Dock Company stands in need of such available extra labour in accordance with the fluctuations of the trade at the particular departments under their control: if it was not available they could not carry on the business. This is due in part to certain trades being virtually monopolised to a limited number of wharves or docks, so far apart from each other that it is impossible to dovetail the interests of one section with those of the other sections, and in part to the sectional interests of the employers. Consequently unless there is a great change made in the direction of concentration of the dock and warehouse accommodation for the Port, and an approach to uniformity of interests, it is impossible to make the labour in the Port steady and effective; but, given uniformity of interests, and concentration of accommodation, the dock and river work of the Port of London could be done by a well-paid permanent staff, and done at much less cost and with better despatch than it is done at present. It would, however, mean making it impossible for several thousand men who now get a very poor existence at the docks and wharves to get any existence at all, and therefore a suggestion, coming from me, as to greater efficiency must also be accompanied by proposals to meet the requirements of those who would be debarred from employment, and this I hope to do, but the particular information wanted now is, how to apply practical business principles to the Port of London so as to conduct the trade with the requisite degree of efficiency. This I now propose to show, and it is none of my business to deal with vested interests or to discuss compensation, &c. My task is to show that we can cater for the trade of the Port in such a way as to secure the best interests of the consumers and steady employment for the workers.

The Proposal.*

By directing attention to the map of the Thames, and looking first at St. Katherine's Dock, near the Tower, and running eastwards, passing the London Docks on to the West and South West India, then to the East India, next to the Victoria, then to the Royal Albert, and last to the Tilbury, it will be seen at a glance that we have the very opposite of concentration at present. Now, looking at that part of the river marked Limehouse Reach at the west end of the West India Dock, it will be seen that there is a horse-shoe bend in the river which runs around, coming up again near the eastern end of West India Dock, forming a loop 3½ miles in length, the two nearest points being only a mile apart. In consequence of these numerous bends in the river numerous mud banks are formed, because the tidal stream in passing from one reach to another, instead of bending round the intervening point, sets directly towards the shore immediately fronting it, and deposits a great deal of mud, and then sets off for the next bend, distributing its mud at each turn. If the river course were diverted by cutting a channel from Cuckolds Point near the entrance to the West India Dock in a straight line across to the opposite point, a distance of one mile, a saving of 2½ miles in the length of the river would be made, freedom from the mud banks would be secured, and the tide having a straight and shorter course would scour the waterway, and keep the channel clear: then the 3½ miles of river known now as Limehouse Reach, Greenwich Reach, and Blackwall Reach, could be "dockised," supplying a quay space of 3½ miles on the inside of the bend, and 4 miles on the outer side, or on that small space 7½ miles of quay space. Then, taking the proposed new channel, and using both sides, an additional two miles of quay space would be obtained, thus affording on that very small area at Poplar no less than 9½ miles of quay space. The quays would, of course, have to be made, but this could be done without the purchasing of land, as all requisite space could be supplied by building up the foreshore of this portion of the river it is proposed to "dockise," the western end of which is in Limehouse, and the eastern in Blackwall, that is, exactly at the spot where the County Council have decided to construct the Blackwall Tunnel, which would give easy and ample access north and south of the Thames.

If it was thought desirable to dispense entirely with the existing docks, that could be easily provided for by building abutment jetties into the "dockised" portion on either side, and by this means all the shipping of London could be provided for. But the present scheme, which I now submit, does not provide abutment jetties, as the requisite concentration of dock and warehouse accommodation is secured if the foreshore is reclaimed on either side of the horse-shoe bend as proposed, and the ships placed broadside to quay, as at the Albert Dock, retaining the Milwall Dock, which is embraced by the bend, and therefore immediately at hand, also retaining the West India Export Dock and South Dock, which are also embraced by the bend, and would lie inside the proposed new channel. Surrey Commercial being especially adapted for timber, and having its entrances running out of the proposed "dockised" portion, could also be retained with advantage, whilst London and St. Katherine's, being the highest Up-town docks, would serve well for green fruit instead of having it discharged, as at present, at Fresh and Nicholson's Wharves.

By these means concentration would be secured, and East India, Victoria, Royal Albert, and Tilbury Docks could all be dispensed with. The warehouses would require to be six floors high, and hydraulic cranes would be required at every convenient point; the reclaimed foreshore would provide, not only room for warehouses, but also room on either side for a dock railway.

This natural bend in the river lends itself splendidly for the purposes required; by making use of it as proposed the river is shortened by 2½ miles. By thus shortening and straightening the course of the river it would become its own cleaner, and by concentrating the docks and warehouses as proposed the value of the Blackwall Tunnel would be fully realised.

The advantage to workmen of concentrated docks and warehouses would soon be felt. The wool trade could run to its particular berth near the warehouse for its special reception, rendering it unnecessary to incur the expense of cartage inland, such as takes place at present. The tea ships could go direct to the cranes attached to the tea warehouses, and the tea lifted direct from the ship into the warehouse at one operation; grain vessels would go to their respective destination in a similar way, but they would

* This proposal was also submitted to the Commission in evidence (November 1892) before the Whole Commission, when a more detailed explanation was given by the aid of several maps and plans, showing the present position of the docks and warehouses and the changes it is suggested should be made.—G. D.

be discharged very differently from the method that now obtains. Thus having grain and timber, tea and wool, and general cargo all concentrated, the men could be employed permanently, and could be conveniently changed from one class of work to another when necessary.

On the south side of Blackwall Point there is practically an unlimited area upon which workmen's dwellings could be erected, and with the proposed dock railway any portion of the docks could be reached in ten minutes.

Fortunately this space is conveniently situated already to main lines on north and south sides; the London, Brighton, and South Coast, running from London Bridge, gives the requisite southern accommodation, and the Great Eastern from Fenchurch and Liverpool Streets, and thence to all main Northern lines, opens up the main routes on the north of the Thames.

The cost of carrying out this proposal is estimated at about four and a half millions, including reclaiming the necessary foreshore for warehouse, shed, and quay accommodation. But the financial part of the question I leave to others, my object having been to trace to their origin the main causes of labour difficulties in the Port of London, and to make a practical proposal for the removal of those difficulties. Fortunately the very means by which the men's interests can be best secured will serve also as the best means by which the interests of the public at large will be secured. It is well known that some of the most degrading sights known to civilization are to be witnessed by the clamour of labourers for work at the docks and wharves. If the proposal now made in a very crude form should be elaborated and acted upon, I believe it would prove a great advantage to Londoners generally, and to the waterside labourers in particular, by steadying work at the docks through the opportunity afforded of dovetailing trade with trade, and thus completely wiping out the casual system of dock and wharf labour which has had such baneful effects upon the labourers and their families, and has done no one any real good.

November 9th, 1891. TOM MANN.

APPENDIX VII.

(Drawn up by the Secretary.)

LABOUR DEPARTMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, THE COLONIES, AND ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

I.—ACTUAL FUNCTIONS.

The compilation of industrial statistics.

(i.) The idea of a labour department as an institution for the collection, arrangement, and publication of statistics relating to industrial subjects was first realised in the United States, and in every instance of such an agency in that country, this function has remained the primary, and as far as possible the only one undertaken. The first of such departments was the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labour, established in 1869. There are now similar bureaux in 31 other States, and a Federal Department of Labour at Washington, which was formed originally as an office under the Department of the Interior, and was constituted in 1888 as a separate department, dealing directly with Congress and the President. Its object, in the language of the Act which established it, is the acquisition and diffusion of "useful information on "subjects connected with labour in the most general and comprehensive sense of "the word, and especially upon its relation to capital, the hours of labour, the "earnings of labouring men and women, and the means of promoting their material "social, intellectual, and moral prosperity." The law obliges the chief of the department, who is called the Commissioner of Labour, to issue an annual report on any subject which in his judgment comes under this definition, and he may also issue special reports on particular subjects, either at his own discretion or at the request of Congress or the President. The annual reports hitherto issued have dealt with industrial depressions, convict labour, strikes and lock-outs, women's labour in large cities, railroad labour, and the cost of production in the United States and

abroad of certain dutiable commodities. Special inquiries have been made with regard to marriage and divorce statistics, technical education, and the labour laws of the United States. For this purpose special appropriations are made by Congress. The regular appropriation has risen from 25,000 dollars in 1884–85 to over 175,000 dollars in 1891–92.* Dr. Elgin Gould gave evidence with regard to it before the Commission. He pointed out the advantage of its position as an independent department, yet one, which, not being a cabinet office, is unaffected by party vicissitudes. The main principles on which its work is conducted are, he stated, the following;—to collect all information at first hand, through its own agents, independently of the State Bureaux or any other local statistical authority; to procure for this purpose the services of experts already acquainted with the subject in hand; and thirdly, to avoid drawing specific conclusions, but to confine itself strictly to the publication of facts.† According to the statement of the Commissioner of Labour, only original and positive data are accepted, and error is thus eliminated as far as possible. With regard to the method of collecting these data, he states that of the three alternatives, the issue of circular forms, the taking of evidence, and inquiry through special agents, the last has been found decidedly the most useful method. It has proved impossible to obtain sufficiently accurate returns by circular, except when statements from official sources are required, and the method of public hearing results in the collection of a "mass of incongruous statements not easily verified." By the system in use, the agents of the department fill up the schedules of inquiry themselves after personal investigation. If the accuracy of their information is called in question they are required to verify it.‡ The State Bureaux of Statistics are similar in constitution and method to the Department of Labour, except that in many of the States the Labour Commissioner holds office subject to the continuance in power of a political party. Though there is no intention to adopt a definite political platform in the reports, they are in some cases unmistakably coloured with certain views. In 11 States the Labour Bureaux have other than purely statistical functions. Their inquiries are conducted as far as possible on the same principle as those of the United States Department, but in many cases they cannot afford to send out agents. All their reports complain of lack of funds. The Massachusetts bureau, the first to be established, is one of the most successful in the preparation of reports. The New York Commissioner of Labour has power to subpœna witnesses and to examine them under oath. Refusal to answer questions or failure to state the truth is a misdemeanour. The Commissioner reports that this power has been of considerable advantage in collecting information. There is no organic relation between the State Bureaux or between them and the United States Department. The strength of the sentiment of State autonomy, according to Dr. Elgin Gould, renders it impossible to institute any such relation. An annual convention of the Labour Commissioners of the various States is nevertheless held for the discussion of matters of common interest.§ From the statement of Mr. Carroll Wright, and from the opinions usually expressed at these conventions, it appears that the United States Department, and the State Bureaux generally, have succeeded on the whole in gaining the confidence of employers and employed, and that unwillingness to furnish information is tending to decrease. This is attributed partly to the fact that care is taken to publish the statistics received in a form which prevents the identification of any individual firm or person. The State Bureaux were in every case established at the desire of the principal labour organisations, and though some of these bodies failed at first to show full confidence in statistical methods, their prejudices are apparently being to a great extent overcome.‖ The Royal Commission on Labour and Capital in Canada recommend the establishment of a bureau of labour statistics for the Dominion, on the ground of the success of such institutions in the United States. They were disposed, however, to regard local independence as an element of weakness, and advised that a federal bureau should work in conjunction with any similar provincial agencies, in order to avoid duplication of inquiries and waste of time. Consequently, on May 16, 1890, an Act was passed constituting a Bureau of Labour Statistics as a branch of the Department of Agriculture. The Minister of Agriculture is the Commissioner of Labour Statistics, and the Governor-in-Council is empowered to appoint

* Foreign Reports, Vol. I., p. 3.

† Whole Commission, Digest, p. 41.

‡ Foreign Reports, Vol. I., p. 3. "The Working of the Department of Labour," Carroll D. Wright. "The Growth and Purposes of Bureaus of Statistics of Labour," Carroll D. Wright.

§ Foreign Reports, Vol. I., pp. 3, 4. Whole Commission, Digest, pp. 41, 42.

‖ "The Working of the Department of Labour," and "The Value and Influence of Labour Statistics," Carroll D. Wright. Eighth National Convention of the Officers of Bureaus of Labour Statistics, pp. 30, 88, 119–26.

an Assistant-Commissioner of Labour Statistics to hold office during pleasure. The duties of these officers consist in the collection of statistics and the presentation of quarterly and annual reports to Parliament. For the purpose of collecting the required information the Commissioner may examine witnesses upon oath. A schedule attached to the Act classifies the information desired under the different groups of trades, and makes special mention of the investment of capital, the conditions of labour, the number and conditions of the unemployed, sanitation, the number and condition of the Chinese, prison labour, and labour organisations as proper subjects of investigation. The only provincial bureau existing at the present in the dominion are the Ontario Bureau of Industries, established in 1882, and one of more recent formation (1893) in British Columbia.* The Department of Labour in New Zealand resembles the American institution so far as its work includes the compilation of statistics, though its primary function is that of an administrative department. It was established in 1891 as a Bureau of Industries, under the control of the Minister of Justice and Education, who became Minister of Labour on its institution as a department. In the collection of industrial statistics it has hitherto made use of the circular system, and the reports for 1892 and 1893 complain of the onesided and imperfect results thus obtained, and point out that further statutory powers are essential to the usefulness of the department. The officers of the bureau, it is urged, should have power to enforce the proper filling in of returns, and agents should personally visit every part of the colony to make inquiries as to rates of wages and other details. The information desired is such as would form a basis for comparative statistical tables. The department, in addition to its annual report, publishes a monthly journal dealing with the state of trade and labour in the colony and the principal current events in the industrial history of other countries.† On the continent of Europe the only instance of a Government labour department with purely statistical functions is the French Office du Travail. This department was instituted in 1891 under the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, on the recommendation of the higher council of labour. That council, established in the same year, was intended "to furnish rapidly and correctly such information respecting labour questions "as had previously been obtained only after costly inquiries." The purely statistical part of their work, being separable from the other functions of the council, was delegated to the Office du Travail, which was specially charged with the collection of facts relating to wages, hours, organisations, relations between capital and labour, foreign labour legislation and other subjects. The department consists of a central and travelling section, under the management of a director. The total staff does not exceed 16 in number, and the annual grant for expenses is 6,000*l.* The office has already issued several valuable publications on labour questions, notwithstanding difficulties placed in its way by the socialist party through the medium of the Labour Exchange, which has persistently refused to furnish information to an institution which it regards as anti-democratic.‡

The Belgian higher council of labour, established in 1892, is somewhat on the model of that in France, but has not followed the precedent of instituting an office for statistical purposes. The functions of a statistical department are to some extent undertaken in Belgium by the local councils of industry and labour, which are public institutions in the sense that they are established by royal decree and are paid from the provincial exchequer.§ In the Swiss Department of Industry and Agriculture, which was formed in 1883, statistical work is altogether secondary, though carried on to some extent by an official called the Workmen's Secretary, who is connected with the Workmen's Federation.|| The statistical departments of other countries, as, for example, Germany, Italy, Norway, and Sweden, do not limit the sphere of their activity to labour statistics alone. The German Imperial Office of Statistics is the counterpart for the empire of the statistical offices, which exist in almost all the separate states. Prussia, and the larger states, such as Bavaria, Saxony, Würtemberg, Alsace Lorraine, and others have separate offices, but smaller principalities, like the Thüringian States, are frequently grouped together. The Imperial Office was instituted in 1872, and in 1892 a separate and independent Commission of Labour Statistics was appointed by an Order (Regulativ) of the Imperial Chancellor. There

* Foreign Reports, Vol. II., p. 13.

† Foreign Reports, Vol. II., p. 49. Reports of the Bureau of Industries, 1892. Report of the Department of Labour, 1893.

‡ Foreign Reports, Vol. VI., pp. 88, 89.

§ Foreign Reports, Vol. IV., pp. 21, 39.

|| Foreign Reports, Vol. VII., p. 21.

is no essential connection between the Statistical Office and the Commission other than the fact that one of the members of the Commission must be selected by the Chancellor from the staff of the Office. Both bodies are subject to the Chancellor's orders as to the inquiries which they shall undertake, and may be required to act in conjunction. Whilst, however, the Commission is obliged by the very terms of the Order appointing it to carry out all labour inquiries undertaken by the Office, the assistance of the Office in working up the material obtained needs special authorisation by the Chancellor. The Commission has no permanent clerical staff, but may receive help from the Department of the Interior. It consists of a president appointed by the Imperial Chancellor and 14 members, one an official from the Office of Statistics, six elected by the Federal Council, and seven by the Reichstag. The terms of its constitution empower it to summon employers and employed, in equal numbers, to assist at its deliberations; the exercise of this power may be made compulsory by an Order of the Chancellor or of the Federal Council. The estimates of the Ministry of the Interior include 39,000 marks for the Commission, 9,000 marks for the travelling expenses and salaries of members or agents, and 30,000 marks to defray the cost of collecting and publishing the statistics. The Office of Statistics now relegates the collection of all labour statistics to the Commission, and confines itself to statistics of trade, population, mining, agriculture, navigation, prices of retail products, sick insurance, and crime. Its staff for 1894–5 consists of a director, two heads of departments, 168 civil servants, and 84 assistants. The estimated expenses for the year are 882,380 marks in all, exclusive of the sums already given for labour statistics. The salaries of the staff amount to 750,340 marks, 55,320 are allowed for expenses of publication, and 76,720 for other expenses. The working up in the Office of Labour Statistics collected by the Commission cost in 1893–4 an additional 15,000 marks. Some of the material used by the Office of Statistics is obtained by independent inquiry, but much of it is received through the statistical offices of the several states or through officials of other departments of the Imperial Government. The Prussian Office of Statistics, founded in 1805, is controlled by the (Prussian) Ministry of the Interior, and is assisted by a Central Commission of Statistics, appointed in 1861, and re-organised in 1870. The Commission is a consultative body, and must give its approval to all proposed statistical inquiries. It consists of a president nominated by the Minister of the Interior, a delegate for each minister, the director, and one of the members of the Prussian Office of Statistics, three members from each of the Prussian Chambers, and three statistical experts nominated by the Minister. The expenses of the office for the financial year 1892–3 amounted to 438,807 marks, including 134,595 marks in salaries to the regular staff, 72,173 marks in salaries to temporary assistants, and 232,039 marks for other expenses. The Italian Office of Statistics forms part of the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce; it was instituted in 1861, but was re-modelled and enlarged in 1883, and again in 1887. It is assisted by a higher council and a permanent committee. The first consists of 18 members, nominated by royal decree, eight members *ex-officio*, and a delegate from each ministry. The 18 members are persons of known pre-eminence in economic and statistical science, and the *ex-officio* members include the Under Secretary of the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce, the Director-General of Statistics, the Director-General of Agriculture, the Directors of the sub-departments of Industry and Commerce, of Credit and Provident Societies, and of Customs duties, as well as the Registrar-General and the Inspector-General of Railways. This Council holds an annual session to decide upon the statistical programme for the year, and to inspect the results of the inquiries completed. It can hold extraordinary meetings at other times if specially summoned. The permanent committee is composed of the Director-General of Statistics, the Director-General of Agriculture, the Director of the sub-department of Industry and Commerce, four other members of the Higher Council, and the Secretary of the Council. There are special committees besides for certain kinds of statistics, as, for instance, those relating to judicial matters. In every province there is a small statistical committee, consisting of the prefect and eight members of the Provincial Council, whose duty it is to verify returns sent in by the local authorities, and in some cases to draw up monographs on the conditions of the province. Almost all the statistics required for every branch of the administration are prepared in the General Office of Statistics. They include statistics of population, and especially emigration statistics, to which Signor Bodio, the Director-General of Statistics, has devoted special attention. Amongst the vast number of administrative statistics collected and published annually are included wage statistics, statistics of prices, and strike statistics. A statistical year-book, including

the summarised results of all the statistics is issued every year. Details with regard to co-operation and credit societies, provident funds, and many other matters are published from time to time, and special inquiries are undertaken when authorised by a ministerial decree. The office is divided into two sections, one for administrative, judicial, and general statistics as well as statistics of population, and the other for economic and financial matters. The regular staff number 47, and their united salaries in the financial year 1891–2 amounted to 104,000 lire; 210,000 lire were paid to special agents, and the total working expenses amounted to 414,000 lire.*

The administration of certain laws.

(ii.) Among the administrative functions occasionally entrusted to a labour department, the most important is that of supervising the enforcement of laws relating to industrial establishments. In the United States, the control of mine and factory inspection is assigned to the labour bureau in seven States, namely, Illinois, Maine, Minnesota, Missouri, Rhode Island, Tennessee, and Wisconsin. In Idaho and New Mexico, the bureaux have certain duties relating to emigrants. The secretary of the New Zealand Labour Department is also Chief Inspector of Factories, and the annual reports of the department give considerable prominence to this part of its work, which is carried out almost entirely by the local police and other officials, and is said to be very efficiently performed. It is one of the principal functions of the department of industry and agriculture in Switzerland to conduct the work of inspection under the Factory Act, and to report to the Federal Assembly. Under certain circumstances it also issues circulars to the cantonal governments.

The consideration of legislative proposals.

(iii.) The primary object, however, of the institution of the Swiss Department as well as of the higher councils of labour in France and Belgium was, that they should act as consultative committees for the origination or criticism of proposed legislation affecting labour, a function practically the same as that undertaken in New Zealand by the labour bills committee, and unofficially in the United States by trade organisations. The Swiss Department of Industry and Agriculture considers all proposed labour legislation, and formulates schemes for discussion in the federal assembly. The higher council of labour in France was specially designed as an instrument for examining proposals and preparing recommendations on which Parliament might be required to pronounce, its function as an intelligence department being subsidiary to this purpose. In accordance with the decree which established it in January 1891, 50 members were appointed on the nomination of the Minister of Commerce, Industry and the Colonies, from among manufacturers, workmen members of the Conseils de Prud'hommes, and persons specially informed on economic and social questions. Certain State and municipal officials were to be ex-officio members. The council assembles on the invitation of the Minister of Commerce and Industry, who fixes the date, duration, and object of each session. He may also appoint a permanent commission from among the members, and temporary committees for the investigation of special subjects. The first work of the council was to appoint such committees for the consideration of certain pressing questions. These related to arbitration in labour disputes, to labour registries, to wages, and to the institution of a labour office. The resolutions of the council on the first and last subjects have been practically carried out, and bills on the subject of wage-contracts have been brought before both Houses of Parliament. With regard to labour registries a ministerial circular was issued in May 1893, with the object of partially regulating them pending legislation. It cannot, therefore, be said that the higher council of labour has so far failed of its object notwithstanding the opposition offered from the first by the socialistic labour party on account of the "anti-democratic" composition of the Council, which had only 16 workmen among its 50 members. A counter scheme was even drawn up at the Labour Exchange, for a Council of Labour which should consist of 80 workmen, 15 members of the Chamber, and 15 employers.† The Belgian Higher Council of Labour is even more definitely than the French a consultative body for the consideration of legislative schemes. Its powers extend further than those of a commission of inquiry, since they include the drafting of Bills for submission to the Legislature. Its conclusions are formed with the assistance of the councils of industry and labour which are occasionally convoked by Royal decree for the purpose. The Council is not an independent department, but is connected with the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry and Public Works. It consists of 48 members, chosen in equal numbers from workmen, employers, and specialists in economic science. The first members were appointed by the

* Bodio "Dell 'Ordinamento degli Uffici Centrali di Statistica," 1893.
† Foreign Reports, Vol. VI., pp. 88, 89.

Government and hold office for four years, but after that period the representatives of employers and employed are to be elected by the councils of industry and labour. The Council determines its own procedure, and has power to form committees for the investigation of particular subjects. The Council has already employed its powers for the amendment of the factory law of 1889. After consulting the councils of industry and labour, the Higher Council submitted its conclusions to the permanent provincial committees, which practically adopted them, and they were finally embodied in the Royal decrees of December 1892.*

The United States Department of Labour, it was explained by Dr. Gould, does not make recommendations to the Federal Government with regard to labour legislation, because the enactment of industrial codes, except in relation to labour employed by the Federal Government, is the prerogative of the separate States. The State Bureaux, therefore, frequently exercise this function in reporting to the State Government.†

Active intervention in matters affecting the interests of labour.

(iv.) It is only in a few instances that a labour department is empowered to take actual steps towards the solution of industrial problems, apart from the suggestion of legislation. Two of the American State bureaux, those of Colorado and North Dakota, are obliged however to intervene in trade disputes, through the Commissioner of Labour, on the request of fifteen of the workmen concerned. In Missouri the Commissioner must offer to mediate whether requested to do so or not. The New Zealand Labour Department was founded primarily for the purpose of controlling the movements of labour in accordance with the demand so as to meet the immediate difficulty caused by the congestion of unemployed workmen in the larger towns. This part of its province is simply that of a labour registry, and is therefore treated under another head.

II.—Proposed Functions.

(v.) With regard to the general question of the possible functions of a Labour Department, it appears to be very distinctly held by the best authorities on the subject in the United States that such functions should extend no further than the compilation of statistics. At the eighth national convention of the officers of labour bureaux, very strong opinions were expressed in favour of a complete separation between statistical and administrative functions. It was pointed out that to make the chief of the bureau also an inspector, with power to use the information supplied to him for the enforcement of the factory laws, would deprive it of the confidence of those from whom statistics have to be procured.‡ With regard to the recommendation of measures, it is stated emphatically by Mr. Carroll Wright that the advocacy of reform in any special direction is no part of the duty of a Labour Department. "It should be "remembered" he has urged more than once, "that a bureau of labour cannot solve "industrial or social problems. Its work must be classed among educational efforts." Labour organisations, he pointed out, at first expected the bureaux to advance schemes of legislation. "Labour now sees that it can be benefited most by a knowledge of exact "facts, whether such facts appear to favour it or not. It is only by the fearless "publication of facts that the Department of Labour can justify its continued existence." In Dr. Gould's opinion moreover, it is inadvisable for the head of such a department to be under any legal obligation to intervene in a trade dispute. In exceptional cases his mediation may be useful, but he should employ it at his own discretion, and should in no case have the power of adjudication, lest it should be abused for political purposes.

Results achieved by Labour Departments.

(vi.) Dr. Elgin Gould stated in evidence that the United States Department had been the means of substituting inquiry by a skilled permanent body for inquiry by committees of the Legislature, much to the general advantage. It had also provided the country with a body of trustworthy statistical information, in the absence of which the people would be certain to use statistics that were not trustworthy. Similarly Mr. Carroll Wright in a pamphlet recently published claimed for the Bureaux of Labour that they have corrected many prevalent false impressions, such as that the total amount of deposits in savings banks, are made by the working classes, or alarmist accounts of the extent of the mortgage indebtedness of real estate, or of the number of persons out of employment. Amongst measures for the improvement of the condition of the working classes due in a large measure to the publications of the Bureaux, he enumerates reform of the tenement house system in Massachusetts, reduction in the employment of young children, improved factory inspection, passage of the 10 hour law in Massachusetts,

* Foreign Reports, Vol. IV., pp. 22, 39. † Whole Commission, Digest, p. 42.
‡ Eighth National Convention of the Officers of Bureaux of Labour Statistics, pp. 25, 30.

reform in the law concerning employers' liability, restriction of the truck system, more frequent payment of wages, and exposure of the fraudulent practices of private registry offices for labour. All these measures are in his opinion "instances of the direct influence and value of bureaux of statistics of labour."*

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

* "The Value and Influence of Labour Statistics," Carroll Wright, Nov. 1893.

APPENDIX VIII.

MEMORANDUM by MR. GEORGE LIVESEY on the GREAT MIDLAND COAL DISPUTE of 1893, and the projected COAL TRUST of Sir GEORGE ELLIOTT.

A cheap and abundant supply of coal is essential to the national prosperity—fluctuations of price and stoppages of production from trade disputes, and other causes, are disastrous to the industrial welfare of the nation—the interests of the coalowners and the miners are antagonistic to the consumers, the former desiring high prices, the latter requiring cheap coal.

Is it possible to reconcile and identify these conflicting interests—can coal be supplied at a low and steady price, while the coalowners receive fair remuneration for their capital and management, and the miners are paid liberally for their labour, and concord and goodwill be made to displace antagonism and strife? In short can it be made to the interests of coalowners and miners to work unitedly for the benefit of the consumers, reducing the price of coal by all practicable means to the lowest possible point, and thus completely reversing the existing conditions.

Even if it were reasonable or practicable, the suggestion that the coal mines of the country should be nationalised would not accomplish the end in view. The political power of the miners would secure for them high wages and short hours, with a very moderate amount of work, but the State would lack the stimulus of self-interest that animates private employers, and the result would be dear coal, as neither the managers of the collieries nor the miners would have any inducement to do their best. In all probability the State authorities would say in regard to coal what many English local authorities owning gasworks say about gas, that such and such a price is "cheap enough," so long as it does not notably exceed the price charged by gas companies in adjacent towns, their object being to charge as high a price as they dare, in order to get a large contribution out of the consumers of gas in aid of the rates: thus, as gas consumption is by no means coincident with rateable value, compelling gas consumers to bear more than their share of public burdens. In like manner if the coal were owned by the State it would probably be a source of indirect taxation, thus handicapping the great coal-consuming and productive industries, and injuring the entire community who would have to pay dearer for everything, and handicapping still more the poor consumer who already pays the middleman far too high a price for the small quantities which he can afford to buy.

The projected Coal Trust of Sir George Elliott undoubtedly has good points. To give promise of ending the antagonism between coalowners and miners is worth very much, but the alliance between them which might result in what could better be described as a conspiracy to protect their interests at the cost of the consumers would perhaps be one effect of the proposed Trust. The consumers must have some better protection than the suggested control by the Board of Trade, of the price above a stated figure after dividends of from 10 to 15 per cent. have been paid, and certain profits shared with the miners, which will be found illusory and impracticable. A somewhat similar power given in 1868 to the Board of Trade to control increases in the price of gas in London failed so completely to protect the consumers when put into operation in 1873–4 that it was at once repealed, and the sliding-scale now in force was adopted. The proposed Trust only appears likely to benefit the consumers in some cases by the more economical working of the mines in groups instead of separately, and by a possible saving of waste in getting the coal, but these and any other advantages that may result from the Trust cannot be set for a moment against the inherent defect of trusts in general that have been formed for the purpose of keeping up prices, and are consequently detrimental to the public.

If, however, these apparently diverse interests could be united—the coalowner, th miner, and the consumer—by means of a trust it would be one of the most beneficial developments of industrial life that has ever been devised. In the "Western Mail" of October 10th inst., a correspondent, reporting the result of a discussion by some colliery proprietors of Sir George Elliott's scheme, said: "The first objection raised "was that the proposed syndicate seeks to unite interests which are directly opposed "to one another—the coalowner, the freighter or consumer, and the collier. It "would be the death-blow to the principle upon which all commercial transactions "are based were these interests assimilated.

This is a most extraordinary view of commercial relations, but its best answer is the fact that in one great industry a death-blow of this kind has been delivered with success and advantage all round. The gas companies and their consumers were for many years "directly opposed to one another" all over the country; their interests were diverse; they have now been assimilated by the sliding-scale. London may be taken as typical where dissatisfaction was chronic, and caused almost continual agitation. The panacea for many years was competition, and this failing, a monopoly regulated by Parliament took its place, with no better results. Agitations culminating in Parliamentary inquiries took place in 1858–9 and 1860, in 1866–7–8, and again in 1873–4–5, when the sliding-scale was adopted, and since then there has been absolute peace in London. The suggestion of the sliding-scale was made in the following words in the presidential address at the annual meeting of the British Association of Gas Managers in 1874: "It ought to be possible to frame a scheme "that should make the consumers in a sense partners in the gas company, whereby "both should participate in any improved or more economical working, giving the "companies a slightly increased dividend for every reduction in price below a certain "standard," who "would have to submit to a reduction of dividend if their price "exceeded the limit" or standard.

Such is the principle of the sliding-scale, as applied to gas companies; the form it has taken in practice is as follows: London is now supplied by three companies who came under its operation by their Acts of 1875 and 1876. In the case of two of them the standard price is fixed at 3*s.* 9*d.*, and for the third at 3*s.* 6*d.* per 1,000 feet, which at that time Parliament considered sufficient to enable the companies to pay their statutory dividends, and it is enacted that for every penny at which gas is sold in any year below the standard price the company may increase the dividend one quarter, or 5*s.* per cent., and, on the other hand, for every penny charged for gas above the standard price the dividend must be reduced one quarter, or 5*s.* per cent.; the shareholders, therefore, have the inducement of higher dividends if they reduce the price, but they must suffer the penalty of reduced dividends when the price of gas is increased. The officials and workmen, however, on whom good and economical working so greatly depends, have not been included in the partnership by Parliament, and to this serious extent the scheme is imperfect and incomplete, but in one case the directors of a large gas company have voluntarily included them with the best results. It is by a triple partnership of this kind alone that interests which at present "are "directly opposed to one another" can be united; the questions are, whether it can be applied to the coal trade, as a whole, on the lines of Sir George's gigantic Trust or to the different districts in sections, or whether the coal trade cannot be thus treated.

The newspapers throughout the country have freely discussed Sir George Elliott's scheme, with the result that in the majority of cases where an opinion is given it is condemned as being inimical to the consumers and users of coal; had it not been for this objection opinions would have been much more favourable; it is therefore desirable that, if possible, this objection should be removed, hence this memorandum. The writer has not sufficient knowledge of the coal trade to justify an opinion whether such a trust is practicable, but seeing that many practical men and large coalowners are reported to have given it their approval, the following suggestions to identify the three interests—the owner, the miner, and the consumer—are put forward with no little hesitation for consideration, and whether there be one vast trust or separate trusts for the different coal-fields, the plan is equally applicable.

Assuming that Sir George Elliott's scheme is practicable, either as a whole or in sections, it is suggested that the three interests may be identified by adopting the principle of the gas companies' sliding-scale, of which the essentials are good wages, a fair standard rate of dividend, a standard price for coal, and an increase of wages and dividend when coal is sold below the standard price, which should be fixed sufficiently high to cover all probable fluctuations in the cost of getting the coal in order to avoid the necessity of reducing wages or dividends below the standard rate.

Dealing first with wages, it is conceded on all hands that the miner is entitled to good wages; but what are good wages? They must bear some relation to the general value of labour; they cannot be arbitrarily fixed by either side, but are such as are sufficient to attract and retain from the ranks of labour generally as many capable men as may be required; if the wages offered are unnecessarily high they will attract, as is now the case, more men than can be permanently employed, thus glutting the market, necessitating short time, and possibly ending in such disastrous trade disputes as that now raging.

The next point is the standard rate of dividend, which, after providing out of profits for sinking and reserve funds, should be sufficient, but not more than sufficient to attract as much capital as may be required to efficiently work the business. As this standard rate is to be regarded as the minimum interest to be paid on the ordinary capital, it must necessarily be as low as possible, but as safe as it can be made, and entitled, like the wages of the men, to an increase when coal is sold below the standard price.

The third point is the standard average price for coal at the pit bank. Sir George Elliott proposes an average for the entire country, but should the diverse circumstances, conditions, and interests of the various coalfields render this impracticable, an average price for each or any district may be taken as the standard price for an independent trust for each or any district; the standard prices would then vary, as is the case with the gas companies, to which there is no objection—the gas standard prices range according to locality and circumstances from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* and more per 1,000 feet without causing any difficulty or confusion. In fixing the standard price of coal it is neither necessary nor advisable to endeavour to make an exact calculation or to strike an exact average over a number of years, because the standard price is not to be taken as the selling price, but only as a point at which the minimum dividend and simple or bare wages may be paid; it should therefore be fixed high enough to meet these charges under all probable circumstances, and as the main object of the system is to give coalowners, managers, officials, and miners an incentive in the shape of increased dividends and a share in profits to do their best for the consumers, the standard price should be fixed high enough to give them such a fair promise of additional profit as would be worth working for.

If the capital of the proposed Trust were divided as suggested by Sir George Elliott, viz., one-third debenture and two-thirds ordinary stock, the first charge on profits would of course be the interest on the debenture stock; next to this, provision should be made for a sinking fund to redeem exhausted capital; then the standard dividend on the ordinary stock would be paid, and the remaining profits would be appropriated as follows: In order to ensure the standard dividend on the ordinary stock, a small fixed percentage on the capital should be set aside to form a reserve fund until such fund amounted to, say, 10 per cent. on the capital, to make up possible deficiencies in bad years; the remaining profits would then be divided in the agreed proportions between capital and labour, provided coal had been sold below the standard rate.

It now only remains to give examples of the working of the system, but the figures below must not be taken as those which ought to be adopted—they are merely illustrative of the principle.

Let 10*s.* per ton at the pit bank be the average standard price, then for every 3*d.* per ton below 10*s.* at which, on the year's average, coal has been sold, the ordinary capital shall be entitled to 5*s.* (say five shillings) per cent. additional dividend beyond the standard rate, which may be 5 per cent., and the miners and others shall be entitled to 10*s.* (say ten shillings) per cent. bonus on their salaries and wages until their bonus equals the total dividend, when the further increment that may accrue to both may be equal, thus:—

Average Price of Coal.	Dividend,		Bonus on Salaries and Wages.
	Standard.	Extra.	
s. *d.*	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
10 0	5	Nil	Nil
9 9	5	¼	½
9 6	5	½	1
9 3	5	¾	1½
9 0	5	1	2
8 0	5	2	4
5 0	5	5	10
4 0	5	6	11

The average price at the pit bank in the above table is no doubt put too high; it is not likely that under any circumstances such a price would be necessary to pay the standard dividend and ordinary wages, neither is it at all likely that the average price will fall to 4*s.*; another table is therefore given as an illustration that may be more in accord with practical working, which shows that as far as the consumer is concerned, the relative height of the standard price is of very little consequence, its object being simply to ensure the standard dividend and normal wages:—

Average Price of Coal.	Dividend.		Bonus on Salaries and Wages.
	Standard.	Extra.	
s. *d.*	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
8 0	4	Nil	Nil
7 9	4	½	1
7 6	4	1	2
7 3	4	1½	3
7 0	4	2	4
6 9	4	2½	5
6 0	4	4	8
5 0	4	6	10

or any other convenient scale may be adopted, and different scales may be used in different districts for separate trusts.

Coupled with the scheme, which is essentially a partnership, there must be a partnership in management: the employed must have their representatives on the Board. On this point it seems to be agreed that where workmen are represented on any board of management it is necessary that their representatives shall have some pecuniary stake in the concern beyond being mere recipients of wages; they should, in fact, be men who have shown their confidence in the business by becoming shareholders. This can be easily accomplished by giving them the opportunity of investing their bonus annually in shares until it amounts to the necessary qualification, which must be fixed at a reasonably moderate figure, and any man or men who hold the qualification will then be eligible for election by the whole body of profit-sharers as their representatives on the board of management.

Sick, accident, and pension funds must form part of the scheme.

As to the third partner, the consumers, it is not necessary that they should be represented on the board, but there is no objection to it, and there are considerable advantages, as it would be the means of giving confidence that the business was fairly worked. The interests of the consumers, however, are safeguarded by the system itself without their active intervention; moreover, such a system must be carried out by Act of Parliament, which would have for its main object the protection of the interests of the consumers, as is done in the sliding-scale Acts of the gas companies.

Were such a system adopted it would need the loyal and active co-operation of the coalowners, managers, and miners, which, considering that their interests would be identical, might reasonably be expected. The difficulties are great, but it is worth a great effort to secure for the coalowner at least fair minimum interest on his capital and just remuneration for management, for the miner at least a fair minimum wage, and for the consumer an abundant supply of coal at the lowest practicable price free from such disastrous fluctuations of price as took place in 1872–5 and 1889–92. Then in place of the old maxim of "every man for himself," it would be "each for all and all for each" in the great coal industry.

GEORGE LIVESEY.

October 25, 1893.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

THE AGRICULTURAL LABOURER.

REVIEW OF THE INQUIRY

CARRIED OUT IN

ENGLAND AND WALES, SCOTLAND, AND IRELAND,

IN

1892 AND 1893,

AND OF THE

REPORTS

OF THE

ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS,

BY

WILLIAM C. LITTLE,
(SENIOR ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER.)

THE AGRICULTURAL LABOURER.

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THE AGRICULTURAL LABOURER.

To Geoffrey Drage, Esq.,
Secretary, Royal Commission on Labour.

Stags Holt, March,
April 12, 1894.

Sir,

I understand that, as I have been unable to complete my Report on the subject of the Inquiry which has been made, under the directions of the Commission, into the condition of the agricultural labourer in different parts of the United Kingdom, the Commission desire me to present to them a Summary Review of the work that has been done and of the results of the Inquiry. I have accordingly prepared the following Review, which I have now the honour to lay before the Commission. Introduction.

In my Report, which is not yet completed, I have adduced evidence from the Reports of my colleagues in support of the statements of fact and the conclusions at which I have arrived, and I have acknowledged the sources from which I have derived my information. In the following Summary Review it was impossible to refer in detail to the several Reports by Assistant Commissioners, which are no less than 104 in number. I trust, however, that it will not be thought improper for me to acknowledge my obligations to my colleagues, and to refer to the able, conscientious, and impartial manner in which these gentlemen have conducted their inquiries.

I desire also to take this opportunity of offering to you my hearty thanks for the assistance and valuable counsel which you have freely given during the whole period of my connection with the Commission. The courtesy and consideration with which I have always been treated by you have been a great encouragement and aid to me in carrying out the work entrusted to me by the Commission. Under your advice and guidance the great mass of material which has been collected has been arranged and presented in such a form as to be readily accessible to an inquirer. The order and systematic method of the Reports is mainly due to your suggestions.

In the Review which I now present I shall, after giving some general information as to the character and extent of the Inquiry, proceed to summarise the results of the Inquiry in separate sections, relating respectively to England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, dealing with the principal subjects of inquiry in the same order as was adopted in the Notes for Inquiry which formed the Instructions for the Assistant Commissioners, the following being the main heads of inquiry:— Arrangement of Subjects.

I.—The Supply of Labour.
II.—Conditions of Engagement.
III.—Wages and Earnings.
IV.—Cottage Accommodation.
V.—Gardens and Allotments.
VI.—Benefit Societies.
VII.—Trade Unions, Strikes, &c.
VIII.—General Relations between Employers and Employed.
IX.—The General Condition of the Agricultural Labourer.

Character and Scope of the Inquiry.

1. In the early part of the year 1892, the Commission resolved to carry out an inquiry into the condition of the agricultural labourer and the circumstances under which he lives and works in different parts of the United Kingdom, by means of Assistant Commissioners who should visit certain selected localities for the purpose of investigating on the spot, and with greater exactness than would be possible in any general survey, the position and environment of the labourer in each particular district of inquiry. Scheme of inquiry.

Time occupied.

2. A scheme of inquiry, with instructions to Assistant Commissioners as to the subjects to be investigated, having been submitted to Committee B. of the Commission, and approved by them, Assistant Commissioners were appointed. The work of inquiry was begun during the month of March 1892, and practically concluded in the month of June in the following year 1893, though some little delay occurred in the presentation of the final reports of some of the Assistant Commissioners.

Assistant Commissioners appointed.

The survey in England and Wales was carried out by seven Assistant Commissioners: Messrs. W. E. Bear, C. M. Chapman, A. Wilson Fox, R. C. Richards, Aubrey Spencer, E. Wilkinson, and D. Lleufer Thomas. In Ireland the greater part of the inquiry was conducted by two Assistant Commissioners, Mr. W. P. O'Brien, C.B., and Mr. R. M'Crea, but a portion of the country was visited by Mr. A. Wilson Fox and Mr. R. C. Richards, who had been previously engaged in the inquiry in England. In the case of Scotland two Assistant Commissioners, Mr. G. R. Gillespie and Mr. H. Rutherfurd, were originally appointed; on the death of Mr. Gillespie the vacancy was filled up by the appointment of Mr. R. Hunter Pringle, and eventually Mr. Wilkinson, one of the English Assistant Commissioners, surveyed and reported upon two groups of counties.

Districts of Inquiry.

3. The number of districts visited and reported upon was as follows:—In England, 38; in Wales, 8; in Scotland, 14; and in Ireland, 30; thus there were in all 90 districts of inquiry. Each of these districts was the subject of a separate report, and at the close of their inquiries the several Assistant Commissioners presented final reports summing up the results of their inquiries and the general conclusions at which they had arrived.

Reports give a contemporaneous and complete view of the situation.

4. The comparatively short space of time over which the inquiry was extended, may be regarded as giving that inquiry almost the character of a contemporaneous view of the agricultural labourer's position in every part of the United Kingdom; as in the course of 15 or 16 months no considerable change in the condition of the labourer could have taken place without leaving evidences of its having occurred.

Taken as a whole the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners, containing as they do the results of a minute and patient investigation, carried on by 11 able and impartial inquirers, acting independently of each other, and pursuing their inquiries in their own way, reporting the results as it were from day to day, cannot fail to give a fair presentment of the condition of the agricultural labourer at the time of the inquiry.

Arrangement of Reports of Assistant Commissioners.

5. The Reports collected under the names of the respective authors have been presented, and are published in four volumes: Vol. I. (in six parts) relating exclusively to England, Vol. II. to Wales, Vol. III. (in three parts) to Scotland, and Vol. IV. (in five parts) to Ireland. Under your directions an analytical index of the evidence on all the more important subjects of inquiry, and a general index of contents have been prepared for each of these volumes and appended to them.

Areas of Inquiry.

6. In England, Wales, and Ireland, the districts of inquiry are poor law union areas. In Scotland, where no similar area of local government exists, it was thought desirable to divide the country into 14 different districts, consisting of groups of contiguous counties, possessing somewhat similar agricultural characteristics. In this respect the survey of Scotland must be regarded as more extended and general in character than that of other parts of the kingdom, where the attention of the Assistant Commissioner was concentrated upon a comparatively small area of inquiry.

Selection of districts.

7. In the selection of districts for investigation, two main principles were kept in view; first, the fair distribution of them over the whole country, and next the inclusion of different types representing the varied conditions under which agriculture is pursued, and the circumstances which affect the position of the labourer. The pecuniary position of the labourer is most materially affected by the competition of other industries than agriculture; and his work will vary with the system of agriculture pursued, that system being to a great extent determined by soil and climate, modified, however, by such circumstances as the proximity or accessibility of towns, and the convenience of transport; his ethics will be influenced by the administration of the poor law; and his general well-being will depend to considerable extent upon the state of his home.

I think it may be fairly stated that in the series of districts of inquiry, examples of the best and worse conditions under which the agricultural labourer has to live and of many gradations which exist between the two extremes will be found.

Definition of agricultural labourer.

8. It seems necessary to offer some definition of an agricultural labourer, though it is by no means easy to use a term which is not either too comprehensive or too exclusive.

The term as commonly used would imply habitual employment in agricultural work for wages, and dependence upon that work for a living, but a great deal of the work in agriculture is done by those who would not be included in such a definition; for example, by casual labourers, who have other occupations and resources; by many small occupiers of land, who work occasionally for other farmers; and by members of the families of farmers who, more especially in Ireland, assist their parents in the work of the farm, and frequently work on the land of others.

Number of agricultural labourers.

9. Any estimate of the actual number of agricultural labourers must be based upon the Census Returns, but that estimate must be regarded as approximate only. Apart from the reasons which have been already given for accepting these returns with some reserve, it must be noted that there is a large class separately enumerated under the head of "general labourers." In Ireland almost universally, and in the rural parts of England, a large number of these are, in all probability, at some period of the year engaged in agriculture, but it would be unsafe, especially in the case of England, to count them as agricultural labourers, since they are generally most numerous where agriculture is least prominent. Thus, in Huntingdonshire, a purely agricultural county, there is not one general labourer to ten wage earners in agriculture, while in Lancashire and Cheshire they are greatly in excess of such wage earners, or at the rate of 245 to 100.

But under any circumstances the results of the census must be regarded as understating to, perhaps, a considerable extent, the numbers of those who might legimately be described as agricultural labourers.

Full and detailed statistics as to the absolute and relative numbers of the wage earners in agriculture at the present time and at former periods are contained in a memorandum on the subject which I have prepared, and which will be appended to my Report. The main results may be briefly summarised thus:—

The Census Returns for 1891 enumerate under the several descriptions of occupation which include the "wage earners"* in agriculture, about 1,200,000 persons, of whom less than 70,000, or approximately $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent., were females.

Distribution of agricultural wage earners.

10. Of the whole number about two-thirds were resident in England and Wales, nearly one-fourth in Ireland, and little more than one-tenth in Scotland.

Ratio of these wage earners to population.

11. In ratio to the total population, the class thus designated are little more than 3 per cent., taking the whole of the United Kingdom, $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. in England and Wales, 3 per cent. in Scotland, and less than 6 per cent. in Ireland.

A more correct idea of the relative importance of the class will, however, be conveyed by the statement that out of every 10,000 adult males, "wage earners" in agriculture are, for the United Kingdom, 841; for England and Wales, 750; for Scotland, 678; and for Ireland, 1,510.

Decrease of numbers.

12. During the last 20 years there has been a universal and continuous decline in the number of the class under consideration. In Great Britain this decrease has occurred in an increasing population. In Ireland, notwithstanding a decreasing population, the ratio of wage earners in agriculture to population has decreased in a greater degree than it has in Great Britain, as will be seen by the following figures:—

NUMBER of WAGE EARNERS in AGRICULTURE to every 10,000 of total POPULATION.

—	1871.	1881.	1891.
England and Wales -	434	343	275
Scotland - -	490	400	300
Ireland - -	942	650	595
Great Britain and Ireland -	531	394	318

* I have included among wage earners the following occupations:—(1) Farm bailiff; (2) agricultural labourer, farm servant; (3) shepherd; (4) horsekeeper, horseman, teamster, carter.

The rate of decrease in 20 years was about 20 per cent. in England and Wales, nearly 27 per cent. in Scotland, and 45 per cent. in Ireland. It ought to be stated that the Census Returns for 1871 included under the several occupations superannuated members of the class who were omitted from the returns for 1881 and 1891. If the figures are adjusted to allow for this difference on the estimate of the Census Commissioners the comparative results would not be materially altered.*

Females decreased more than males.

13. It is a noticeable fact that in every one of the three countries the female wage earners have decreased to a greater extent than the males. Thus in England and Wales they were, in 1871, 5·83 per cent. of the whole number, in 1891 they were only 3·02 per cent. In Scotland they were at the earlier period about 26 per cent. and they are now less than 19 per cent. In Ireland they were more than 12 per cent., and they are now less than 8 per cent. of the total number.

Ratio of wage earners to agriculturists.

14. In comparison with the whole number of persons engaged in agriculture wage earners are more numerous in England than in either of the two other countries. In England and Wales they are nearly three-fourths (73·1 per cent.) of those engaged in agriculture "in fields and pastures." In Scotland they are a little more than three-fifths (62·5 per cent.) and in Ireland they are less than one-third (30·7 per cent.) of the same class. It is apparent that in England a much larger part of the agricultural work is done by hired labourers than is the case in other parts of the kingdom.

Periods of age of wage earners.

15. With respect to the numbers of male wage earners at different periods of age, it appears that in England and Wales more than one-fourth of the whole number are under 20 years of age, nearly two-thirds are between the ages of 20 and 65, and about 8 per cent. are 65 years of age or more. In Scotland 30 per cent. are under 20 and 64 per cent. between 20 and 65 years, and only 4½ per cent. above that age. In Ireland the proportions at each of the three periods named are very similar to those of England and Wales.

Classification of wage earners.

16. The Census Returns give little assistance towards a classification of agricultural labourers in respect of their particular spheres of work, and the reports of Assistant Commissioners contain as a rule little information as to the proportionate number of workers whose occupations can be distinctly defined, the fact being that, while a limited number have their special functions and duties, a large proportion are engaged in a variety of work according to the seasons of the year. The only classes of wage earners who can be separately considered are the foremen, the shepherds, and the men in charge of horses or cattle.

As the general conditions affecting the agricultural labourer differ in some important particulars, it will be necessary to deal with England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland in separate sections.

* If 2 per cent. be deducted for superannuated labourers then the decrease in England and Wales in 20 years would be at the rate of 18·2 per cent. instead of 19·85 per cent.

Section A.—ENGLAND.

Typical districts selected.

17. It has been already stated that the districts of inquiry were distributed over the whole country, and that they had been chosen with a view to include various types of agriculture and of conditions affecting the agricultural labourer. I have in my Report, devoted a considerable space to a comparison of the characteristics distinguishing the several districts, as it is desirable to show conclusively that they are fairly representative. It will be sufficient to give in this place a general idea of the different types of districts represented.

Distribution of districts.

18. The 38 districts of inquiry in England extend into 38 different counties, only four counties being unrepresented. In respect of situation the number in each of the Agricultural Divisions which are adopted by the Board of Agriculture for statistical purposes is approximately equal, there being 10 in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd divisions or groups of counties, and 8 in the 4th division. The proportionate part of the whole number of wage earners in each of these divisions is approximately 30 per cent. in each of the first two groups, 21 per cent. in the 3rd, and 18 per cent. in the 4th division.

Characteristics of districts.

19. In selecting districts for inquiry as to the agricultural labourer, it seemed desirable that the greater number should be distinctly agricultural in character, while some representation of localities where other industries compete with agriculture for unskilled labour should be examined for the purposes of contrast and comparison.

In the absence of any recent statistics which would permit of a comparison being made between different districts in respect of either the proportionate value which land bears to other rateable property or the ratio of agriculturists to the whole population, recourse was had to Parliamentary Returns made in 1870 and 1871, by the aid of which the relative importance of agriculture in each of the Poor Law Unions of England and Wales was gauged, and this point was taken into consideration with other information which was obtained as to the particular system of agriculture pursued, and other circumstances which seemed material in making choice of districts of inquiry.

As regards "land value" in 15 selected districts in 1870, it formed four-fifths of the whole rateable property, and in 17 other districts it was upwards of two-thirds, the extreme range being from 94 per cent. in Glendale (Northumberland) to 52 per cent. in Godstone (Surrey).

In respect of the relative number of agriculturists no less than 20 of the selected districts had in 1871 more than 50 per cent. of the adult males classed as agriculturists, while in five of those districts less than 30 per cent. were included in that class. In those five districts other industries considerably outnumbered the agriculturists, while in the remaining 33 districts agriculture was the predominating occupation.

Changes in population in districts.

20. Another point which it seemed desirable to have in view in choosing districts of inquiry was the decrease in population. The depopulation of the rural districts which has been very general during the last 20 years has been by many persons attributed to the difficulty which the agricultural labourers have found in obtaining work, the low rate of their wages, the unsatisfactory character of their cottage accommodation, and to other causes affecting the life of the inhabitants of those districts.

The extent to which the several districts diminished in population and the causes of the migration from agricultural districts to the towns have been carefully investigated by the Assistant Commissioners.

In 28 out of 38 of the districts in England there has been since 1871 a decrease in the numbers of the inhabitants, but in two of those 28 that decrease was less than 1 per cent., and in only 21 was it more than than 5 per cent. In 15 districts, it was, however, more than 10 per cent. in 20 years. The highest instance is that of Woburn (Beds) where in 1871 only 52 per cent. of the adult males were agriculturists. The next in order is Truro, a district where the "industrial" class, as distinguished from the "agricultural" in the Census Returns for 1871, were half of the adult male population and nearly twice as numerous as the agriculturists. The distribution of the districts showing the greatest signs of depopulation is capricious. It is difficult to connect the exodus of the rural people with any particular condition of affairs. It is no doubt true that they go with the hope and object of bettering themselves, but this inquiry affords no proof that the migration is distinctly connected with the amount of the wages or earnings in particular localities.

Districts of high and low wages,

21. I have in my Report, divided the districts of inquiry into four classes in respect of the current rate of weekly wages in 1892. One district in the highest of these classes shows a greater decrease than nine out of the 10 districts which are included

compared with respect to decrease of population.

in the lowest class. In another table districts are arranged in the order of the computed average earnings of ordinary labourers, and Glendale, which stands first in this list, shows a decrease of population at the rate of 16·68 per cent. in 20 years, while Langport, which stands lowest in the scale of weekly earnings, shows a decrease of 17·42 per cent. in the same period, but Pershore, which is 37th, or last but one, on the list in respect of earnings, shows a decrease of only 8 per cent.

The mixture of urban and rural population in some of the districts of inquiry renders a general comparison of them in respect of decrease of population difficult, as the increase in even a small town may balance the decrease in many rural villages. This is shown by Mr. Bear and Mr. Spencer to be the case in Basingstoke and Dorchester. It may be taken for granted that the migration is, as a rule, greatest from purely agricultural districts (though it may be observed that in Truro and Monmouth, two out of the six industrial districts, the decrease has been upwards of 10 per cent. in 20 years) ; but that this migration does not appear to be distinctly connected with the rate of remuneration received by the labourer.

Agricultural characteristics of districts.

22. Of the whole number of districts investigated 14 may be classed as arable, not exclusively such, but having about twice as much arable as pasture land ; 17 as mixed arable and pastoral, and 7 as distinctly pastoral, with pasture twice as great in extent as the arable area ; 19 districts are pre-eminently corn-growing localities ; in seven, roots are a marked feature in the cropping. Potatoes, which demand a considerable amount of labour, are largely grown in five districts, and hops are cultivated in five districts.

Eight districts are conspicuous for the number of their Cattle, five of these being distinctly dairy districts. Sheep are more than usually numerous in nine districts, some of which are largely devoted to breeding, and others to grazing and feeding.

It will be seen that the districts of inquiry exhibit a great variety in their industrial and agricultural characteristics, and it may be said that they include types of almost every possible combination of circumstance to be found in this country.

I will now proceed to summarise the results of the Inquiry under the several heads already particularised.

I.—Supply of Labour.

Present supply of labour about sufficient

23. It would appear that very generally throughout the country the supply is fully equal to the present demand for labour, at any but the busiest times of the year. The demand has been considerably reduced by changes in the system of farming, which are to a great extent due to the low prices of cereals which have ruled for some years past. Labour has been economised by the use of machinery, and dispensed with in consequence of the fact that land has been laid down to grass ; and because many farmers are unwilling or unable to spend as much as they formerly did upon neat and trim farming.

Here and there complaints are recorded of the shortness of hands, although the subject of complaint is more generally as to the quality and the character of the labour than as to actual deficiency of supply.

Employment diminished.

The great rise of wages, which occurred between 1871 and 1876, may have had, there seems reason to believe, the effect of diminishing the employment of labourers. Farmers very largely decreased the area of those crops which required the most manual labour ; they substituted, wherever they could, machinery and horses for men, and most of them cut off all superfluous and unnecessary labour. The serious and continuous depression in agriculture, which has lasted since 1878, has compelled many farmers to leave much work undone which ought to have been done. The emigration of labourers from rural districts has balanced the reduced demand, and when the reports were written, few men were out of work in the districts of inquiry, but at the close of the survey, more than one of the Assistant Commissioners gave expression to an opinion that the result of the remarkable season of 1893 and the continued fall in prices of almost every description of agricultural produce must have the effect of throwing a large number of agricultural labourers out of employment.

Alterations in system of farming.

24. Though labour is nowhere very scarce, there can be little doubt that if farming were now carried on as it was 20 years ago, there would be considerable difficulty in at once finding the necessary hands.

The general tendency among farmers is to employ a regular staff of the minimum strength required to keep the farm going, and to rely upon casual labourers for help in

busy seasons. On the part of the labourers there is an increasing disposition to choose casual work at comparatively high wages, rather than regular and constant work at a lower rate of pay.

Withdrawal of women from field

25. The withdrawal of women from agricultural work is almost everywhere reported, and is by the labourers themselves acknowledged to be a consequence of the improved circumstances of their class. In a few districts where market gardening or the growth of certain root crops cause an urgent demand for labour such as women can accomplish, they still work regularly in the fields. In the hop gardens and fruit orchards they also continue to work.

In Northumberland the regular employment of women on the farm still remains a prominent feature of the agriculture. In that county the women are nearly one-fourth of the whole number of wage earners in agriculture. In by far the larger number of districts of inquiry women are very little employed.

Efficiency of labourers.

26. The efficiency of the labourers at the present time is, generally, but not universally, said to be less than it was in past days, and the result is attributed to the migration of the more active and intelligent labourers. Allowing for the natural habit of depreciating the present and exalting the past, it seems reasonable to suppose that if the class of agricultural labourers is continually drained of its best and most promising youths it must deteriorate in character. It is urged by some that by the system of payment which is usually adopted, too little discrimination is made between the good and bad workmen, and that farmers do not encourage skill and good work by extra payment. An examination of the reports of the Assistant Commissioners will, however, show that in many districts the earnings of a skilled labourer are so greatly in excess of those of the ordinary workman, that they have to be left out of account in estimating the average earnings of the class.

II.—Conditions of Engagement.

Hiring.

27. In the Glendale district all, and in the Dorchester district most of the labourers are hired for the year. The remaining districts may be divided into three nearly equal classes. In one class, comprising 11 districts, the men in charge of stock are cottagers engaged by the year while the other labourers are daily or weekly men. In another class, including 12 districts, weekly or daily engagements are the rule. In a third class, comprising 13 districts, the yearly servants are indoor men boarded and lodged either in the farmer's house or at the farmer's cost in the foreman's house, and the other labourers are cottagers engaged by the week.

It is observed that the common result of a yearly engagement is a frequent change of service, while men living in cottages with no condition as to their working on a particular farm attached to the occupation of them often continue to work for the same employer for a long period.

At the present time the farmer is more than ever anxious to secure by yearly hiring a certain staff necessary for the care of his stock; many of the labourers on the other hand have a natural desire for independence. The result of the two opposing forces will probably be to divide the labourers in the future, even more than they are now separated, into two classes. Those who will accept service will be retained by a comparatively high rate of pay and a good deal of consideration; those who prefer an independent life will not be sufferers if only they are willing and skilful labourers; while the class of loafers will, in all probability, increase.

Hours of work.

28. The hours of actual work and the hours of an ordinary labourer's absence from his home vary considerably. The former range from $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 12 hours, the latter from 10 to $13\frac{1}{2}$ hours in spring, summer, and autumn, the approximate average working time being 10 hours. This working time is, however, extended in cases where the labourers have a considerable distance to walk to their homes. Men in charge of stock have generally longer hours than ordinary labourers. There seems reason to suppose that the average length of the working day as stated above is slightly increased by including among the class of ordinary labourers the milkers in dairy districts where milk is sent away, and the work of milking begins early in the morning and is carried on until late in the evening. In the winter time, or for about three months, the hours of the ordinary labourer are generally only from light to dark, but in haytime and in harvest work is much prolonged, and it would be fair to reckon that the overtime during those busy periods would make up for the shorter hours of winter.

Wide difference in hours difficult to account for.

29. It is difficult to understand the wide difference which exists between the hours of work in districts which otherwise have much in common. The long hours of dairy districts are easily accounted for and where the ordinary labourer is a casual man called in to work side by side with an indoor farm servant, it is natural that his hours should be the same as those of the boarded servant, but these conditions, which operate in only a few districts, do not explain the fact that in one district of low wages the hours of work are $8\frac{1}{2}$, in four of the same class $9\frac{1}{2}$, in another 10, in two others $10\frac{1}{2}$, and in one $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

The Carters and others in charge of stock, unlike the ordinary labourers, have frequently longer hours of work in winter than in summer.

Sunday work.

30. In some districts, and particularly in the dairy counties, the Sunday work of stock-men is often heavy. On large farms there is frequently an arrangement by which some of the men are in turn set entirely at liberty on that day, and the work is by previous preparation diminished as far as possible, and the number of men employed is sufficient to despatch what must be done in the course of a few hours. On the smaller farms, the Sunday work often falls chiefly upon the farmer and his family, but on farms between these two grades, the Sunday work is often severe.

The proportionate number of labourers who have Sunday work to do is variously estimated; in some districts it is said that three-fourths have regular Sunday work, in others that not more than one-fifth are employed on that day, and that many of these are only engaged during the winter season.

Legal working day suggested.

31. The Assistant Commissioners do not report any demand or expression of a desire on the part of the labourers for a compulsory shortening of the hours of labour in agricultural work, and, indeed, those hours do not seem to have been generally the subject of serious complaint, but in one district (Nantwich) where the hours of work are reported as $11\frac{1}{2}$, and those of attendance as from $13\frac{1}{2}$ to 14, the labourers suggested

Richards, B. VI., 25.

"a legal working day, say, from 6 to 6, with $1\frac{1}{2}$ hour for meals, with a half-

Half-holidays.

"holiday on Saturday; any time which they might be required to give beyond these "limits should be paid for as overtime."

Chapman, A. 69, 139. Fox, A. 14.

The granting of a half-holiday either weekly or occasionally is also recommended by Mr. Chapman and Mr. Wilson Fox.

III.—Wages and Earnings.

Wages distinguished from earnings.

32. The reports of the Assistant Commissioners contain very full information as to the rates of payment for different classes of labourers in the several districts. It is important to distinguish between the term *wages* which expresses the rate of pay, and that of *earnings* which is used to cover all the receipts of a labourer in money or allowances of any description subject to necessary deductions for lost time.

Current rate of weekly wages.

33. The current rate of weekly wages is the standard of payment for ordinary labourers given and taken in the absence of any agreement. This rate varies often by as much as 2*s.* a week in the same neighbourhood, and frequently by 1*s.* a week in the same parish.

At the time of the inquiry this rate varied from 10*s.* a week in Bromyard,* Cirencester,* Dorchester, Langport,* Pewsey and Wantage,* to 18*s.* in Garstang and Wigton, the average of the 38 estimates of the mean rates for all districts being 13*s.* 5*d.* a week.

I have in my Report divided the districts of inquiry into into four classes according to the rate of wages.

Classification of districts.

In the first class having the highest rates of wages, viz., 16*s.* a week and upwards, there are six districts, which are situate in Derbyshire, Staffordshire, Yorks (W.R.), Lancashire, Cumberland, and Northumberland.

In the second class (with wages between 14*s.* and 16*s.* a week), there are 12 districts, viz., in Yorks (2), Lincolnshire (2), Notts, Leicester, Northampton, Salop, and Cheshire, with outlying districts in Kent, Surrey, and Cornwall.

The third class (with wages 12*s.* to 14*s.* a week), includes 10 districts, somewhat irregularly distributed in Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambs, Hunts, Beds, Oxon, Worcester, Monmouth, Devon, and Sussex.

The lowest class (with wages under 12*s.* a week), includes 10 districts, in Essex, Herts, Berks, Hants, Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, Gloucester, Warwick, and Hereford.

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* In these districts 10*s.* was the lower of two rates of wages given as prevailing at the time. In Dorchester and Pewsey it is the sum given as the common rate at the time.

Rates of wages in 1879–81.

34. If the rates reported as current in the several districts at the time of the inquiry are compared with the rates current in the several counties at the time of the inquiry under the Richmond Commission (1879–1881), there is an apparent decrease on the average. It must be remembered however that the former was an extended survey which took into account the high wages as well as the low wages of each county, while the present selection of districts for the most part of a purely agricultural character, may in some cases give a lower average than would be obtained if the whole of each county had been included. Be that as it may the result of a comparison shows an average of 13*s.* 5*d.* in 1892, as compared with 13*s.* 9*d.* in 1879–81.

The average rate of weekly wages at the period of the inquiry by "the Commission on the Employment of Children, &c., 1867–70," is estimated by me, on grounds which are stated in my Report, at 12*s.* 3*d.* a week.

Additions to wages.

35. The wages of labourers are however very generally augmented to a greater or less extent by opportunities of earning extra money at piece-work, or at certain seasons; by various allowances such as a cottage and garden rent free; by gratuities as rewards or encouragements; by refreshment of meat or drink; by the provision of fuel, and in many other ways—and all these additions must be taken into account in estimating earnings.

Earnings.

36. The result of a careful investigation of all the evidence on the subject, leads me to estimate the average earnings of the ordinary labourer as 15*s.* 11*d.* a week, with a maximum of 20*s.* 9*d.* a week in Glendale (Northumberland) and a minimum of 12*s.* 6*d.* a week in Langport (Somerset).

The earnings of shepherds are estimated to range from 23*s.* 6*d.* in Glendale to 14*s.* in Langport, and those of carters, cattlemen, and others in charge of stock from 20*s.* 9*d.* in Glendale to 14*s.* in Langport.

These estimated earnings of ordinary labourers are those of average men who work regularly and diligently throughout the year. In many districts where piece-work is common there is little doubt that a first-class labourer can earn considerably more than the estimated sums.

Classification of districts in respect of earnings.

37. A classification of the districts in respect of earnings does not differ greatly from that in respect of wages. Three districts have estimated average earnings of 19*s.* a week and upwards. In six districts the estimated average earnings are from 17*s.* to 19*s.*, in 19 they are from 15*s.* to 17*s.*, and in 10 they are under 15*s.* a week.

The materials for a general comparison of the earnings at the present time with those of any former period are not available. In fact there is some reason to suppose that wages and earnings have sometimes been regarded in the past as equivalent terms, and that in consequence wages have, hitherto, been over-estimated in some cases. I have laid before the Commission some estimates compiled from the reports of "the Royal Commission on the Employment of Children, &c." of the estimated average weekly earnings in certain counties in 1867–1870. A comparison of those estimates with those of the present time shows a considerable increase in some parts of the country and an actual decrease in others. The estimates are not, perhaps, fairly comparable in detail, but they tend to confirm a view supported by a comparison of wages at different periods, that earnings have increased more in the pastoral districts than in the corn-growing counties. The most marked increase is observable in the south and south-western counties where the rate of wages was the lowest 20 years ago, and it is in the arable districts that the tendency to a decline is most apparent.

Wages and earnings compared.

38. It is manifest from a comparison of the current rate of wages with the estimate of average earnings that wages are augmented by various extra payments and allowances to a much greater degree where the rate is low, than where it is comparatively high.

I have in my Report compared the weekly wages and earnings of ordinary labourers in each of the four classes of districts already described (paragraph 33) and on the average in the first class (that of highest wages) earnings are 11·4 per cent. above wages, in the second class they are 12·4 per cent. in excess, in the third class they exceed wages by 21·8 per cent., and in the fourth class, comprising the low wage districts, earnings are 33·4 per cent. in excess of wages.

Two extreme instances of the ratio of wages to earnings in different districts may be quoted in illustration of this point. In Uttoxeter, wages are 16*s.* a week, and earnings are estimated at 17*s.* The ratio of wages to earnings is therefore as 100 to 106·25. In Pewsey, wages are 10*s.* a week, and estimated earnings are 14*s.* 9*d.*; here the ratio of wages to earnings is as 100 to 147·6.

The rate of current weekly wages does not therefore represent the actual receipts within the reach of the labourer, nor does it supply the basis for the comparison of the position of the agricultural labourer in different parts of the country or at different periods of time.

Wages of women and boys.

39. The wages and earnings of women in districts where they still work in the field have increased very considerably of late years, and boys earn very much more than they did 20 years ago.

Family earnings.

40. The united earnings of a family of workers frequently amount to a considerable sum, instances being given in the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners of as much as 200*l.* a year being received by one family, living together and clubbing their resources. This family, of course, included more than one adult male. These may be exceptional cases, but numerous instances of family earnings of 100*l.* to 130*l.* a year are reported.

Supplementary employment.

41. In several districts, the disengaged agricultural labourers are not entirely dependent upon farm work. Some supplementary industries are open to them. Among the most important of these may be mentioned woods and underwoods, which in some districts employ a large number of labourers at a period of the year when farm work is slack.

Competing industries.

42. Very generally, industries such as mines, iron-works, &c., which compete with agriculture for labour, have an injurious effect upon the character of agricultural labour of a district.

The fitful demand of these industries, at one time absorbing all the strongest and most capable men, and at other times throwing upon the labour market a large number of their least competent workmen, thus glutting the market with unskilled labour, has the effect of disorganising the labour of the farm.

IV.—Cottage Accommodation.

Supply of cottages.

43. The subject of the housing of the agricultural labourers has been investigated very thoroughly by the Assistant Commissioners.

The evidence collected shows that as a rule cottages are sufficient in number for the present population, but that they are unevenly distributed and consequently too numerous in some places and scarce in others.

Where a deficiency is complained of it is sometimes stated that cottages on farms are required, while, on the other hand, several instances are reported where good cottages on farms are uninhabited because residence in a village is preferred. In most parts of the country a large proportion of the labourers live in villages, and where these are numerous and widely scattered little inconvenience is experienced on account of the distance from work, but generally, wherever large tracts of land have been reclaimed and brought into cultivation, and villages are distant from each other, a considerable addition is made to the burden of a day's work by the labourer having to walk some miles night and morning. In one district (Glendale) where a large proportion of the land has been brought into cultivation in modern times, a full supply (in number) of cottages has been provided on the farms for all the labourers regularly employed, but in no other part of England than Northumberland is this arrangement completely carried out, though in several of the districts of inquiry a good deal has been done towards housing a portion of the farm staff on the farms. On the whole, however, village life is the rule with agricultural labourers, who have a great and increasing objection to the isolation of a farm cottage.

Close and open villages.

44. In villages which are owned, chiefly or entirely, by one landlord, or where cottages have been provided as part of the equipment of a landed estate for the housing of those who work on that estate, the cottages are almost invariably superior in character to those in open villages, or wherever they are held apart from land, and of owners who depend to some extent upon cottage rents for their living.

Standard of comparison in different localities.

45. The standard of excellence or defect by which the house accommodation is measured by different observers and in different localities is a purely relative standard. A cottage which by reason of its superiority to the average of a district is classed as good would, if transferred to another district where a higher level has been reached, be looked upon as a second rate dwelling, and what is considered a bad cottage in one country would rank as far superior to the average in another country.

In England, generally a higher style of accommodation in respect of the number of rooms and out-houses, the fittings and conveniences, and the surroundings of the

dwellings of the agricultural labourers is required to qualify them for commendation than is the case in Scotland, while Wales ranks below the latter country in this respect. In Ireland a still lower average condition prevails, and, with a few exceptions which may be made in favour of those on some demesnes, the best cottages, which would be characterised as good by comparison, would be ranked by anyone familiar with English cottages, as very inferior; and those of the lowest class, which are very numerous, are far below the worst representatives of the class in England.

There is evidence that in all the three countries there has been some progress in public opinion as to what are the absolutely necessary requirements and the minimum of accommodation which ought to be given. A comparison of the plans and descriptions of houses which were deemed superior and even excellent 40, 30, or 20 years ago will show what a considerable advance has been made in this direction.

In England and Scotland the improvement and the recognition of a higher ideal are in a great measure due to the example which has been set by a number of landowners, who have for many years pursued a consistent policy of bettering the condition of the labourers on their estates. In many cases these landowners have kept in advance of the wishes and demands of the labourers by building better cottages than they can at present appreciate.

In Ireland such improvement as there has been may be attributed to the building which has been carried out under the Labourers Acts. Though the houses which have been built under these Acts would not be conspicuous in England, they are very superior to the ordinary dwellings of the labourers in Ireland.

Progressive improvement.

46. The Assistant Commissioners frequently report that an improvement in the character of the accommodation has taken place, and is still in progress, but that very great improvements are required, and there is abundant evidence to show that a large proportion of the cottages inhabited by labourers are below a proper standard of what is required for decency and comfort, while a considerable number of them are vile and deplorably wretched dwellings.

Census returns as to small tenements.

47. The Census Returns for 1891 contain statistics as to the number, in each sanitary district, of tenements which have less than five rooms. An examination of these statistics with reference to the several districts of inquiry, shows that in respect of small tenements and the number of rooms which they contain, and the population resident in such habitations, the districts of higher wages show no superiority over those of low wages, but on the contrary, the district (Glendale) where the labourer is, perhaps, taking all things into consideration, the most prosperous, is pre-eminent for its one and two-roomed cottages, and for over-crowding.

Defects of cottages.

48. The Reports of the Assistant Commissioners contain descriptions, based upon their own observation, and strengthened by reports of officials of the local sanitary authorities, of the prevailing defects of cottages as regards their original construction, their state of repair, the sanitary condition, and drainage, the provision or want of sanitary conveniences, the insufficient water supply. It is difficult to condense or abridge these statements without exaggerating or diminishing the effect of the evidence. But it is impossible to read these reports without experiencing a painful feeling that too frequently, and too commonly, the agricultural labourer lives under conditions which are, both physically and morally, unwholesome and offensive.

Action of sanitary authorities.

49. It appears that in many places the sanitary authorities have been active in their efforts to improve the sanitary condition of villages and cottages, but it is alleged that the work of reform is impeded by various obstructions.

In the initial stage of discovering and disclosing insanitary dwellings, it is said that too often the medical officer of health is not in a position of sufficient independence to enable him to disregard the consequences of the very active prosecution of his duties. He holds his office at the will of those who, either as cottage owners or ratepayers, may resent his action, and he is generally paid such a salary for his duties as leaves him dependent upon his private practice for his livelihood, and he may sometimes have to consider whether he can afford to offend his clients.

Another and formidable obstacle in his path is this. He has too frequently to deal with cottage inhabitants who are indifferent, if not actually hostile, to improvement.

But the action of the sanitary authority desirous to discharge its duties is rendered difficult by the knowledge that the owners of cottage property are frequently unable to make the alterations which are necessary, and the authorities have to choose between closing the houses and turning the inhabitants into the street, or the adoption of

a half-hearted and palliative treatment of the evils which they recognise. And further, these authorities shrink from incurring any expenditure which will add to the rates in districts where the rural ratepayers, who are mostly farmers, are little able to bear increased burdens.

Ownership and tenure.

50. The owners of cottages may be divided into four classes:—

1. Estate owners who provide cottages for some of those who work on their estates.
2. Private owners who let their cottages at the best rent they can obtain.
3 Leaseholders or lifeholders.
4. Occupying owners.

A few instances occur where the parish or the trustees of a charity own cottages.

Estate cottages are sometimes, and, on the larger estates generally, let by the owner directly to the labourer, with or without condition as to his working on the estate of the owner; but they are in many cases held by the nominee of a tenant farmer. The tenure of these cottages is generally for a definite period, with short notice to quit. Where they are situate on farms they are generally let to the farmer, and the labourer either holds the cottage as part of his remuneration, or he pays a small rent, but in either case they are held subject to continuance in the employment of the farmer.

The labourer has a very strong preference for the direct tenancy from the estate owner. The farmer on the other hand generally demands, as a condition of his holding a farm, that a certain number of cottages shall be placed at his disposal, as in the case of an outlying farm he might be left without the necessary assistance for feeding his stock, if the cottages on his farm were occupied by those who no longer worked for him.

Private owner's cottages are generally held directly from the owner, though in some districts where farm cottages are not provided for the estate, the farmer hires and sublets some of them. Where held from the owner a month's notice is very common, but every possible term, from a week to a year, is to be found.

Leasehold or lifehold cottages are mostly of the worst type and in the worst condition.

Cottages owned by *bonâ fide* agricultural labourers are rare.

Rents.

51. The rents of cottages range from 9*d.* to 7*s.* a week, the most usual sum charged being either 1*s.* 6*d.* a week or 4*l.* a year. Estate cottages are almost always let at a cheaper rate than others. Those in the hands of farmers are either given rent free as part of the labourers' wages, or they are let at a nominal rent. The amount of rent has no relation to the character of the cottage, the accommodation supplied, its state of repair, its sanitary condition, or even the financial position of the occupant. It is, apparently, as high in the low wage districts as it is in those of the largest earnings.

Cost of building.

52. The cost of building decent cottages is variously estimated in different localities at from 100*l.* to 200*l.*, including the value of the land on which it stands and the area of a small garden. The cost of the most economically constructed cottage may be put at 130*l.* Even a customary rent of 4*l.* a year, out of which the landlord pays rates, repairs, and insurance, would give the owner a very low rate of interest on a perishable security, and the building of good cottages is not directly remunerative.

I venture to express my conviction that no great and general improvement of cottage property can be anticipated until some means are devised for making cottage property more directly remunerative as an investment.

Possible adjustment of outlay and return.

53. There would seem to be four methods by which it might be possible to effect a more satisfactory adjustment of outlay and return—

(1.) The reduction of the original cost of building, by the adoption of the best plans for economising space, and by the use of materials locally available.

Loans for cottage building.

(2.) Government loans to landowners at such a rate of interest as would secure the State from loss, might diminish the difficulty which many proprietors experience in keeping down the interest on loans for cottage building. It is found possible to lend to local authorities in Ireland, upon terms which involve an annual charge of 4·825*l.* per cent. for repayment of a loan with interest, if the period of repayment is 35 years, while, if that term is extended to 50 years, the annual instalment of principal and interest is reduced to 4·46*l.* per cent.

(3.) The payment of an increased rent by the labourer would, however, facilitate the provision of new and better cottages more than anything else. Increased rents.

Where estate cottages are let at a rent which is much below their commercial value the landowner or the farmer, or both conjointly, pay the labourer more than he believes that he is receiving; the low rent is a bonus on wages, but it is not so regarded by the labourer who unfortunately prefers to pay a high rent for a bad cottage in a village rather than a low rent for a good cottage on a farm.

Some of the Assistant Commissioners think that the labourer does appreciate and would pay a higher rent for additional and better accommodation, but the evidence on this point is not very conclusive and will scarcely weigh against these facts that the highest paid districts of inquiry are sometimes those where the labourers' cottages contain the least accommodation; that good cottages on farms are deserted for bad ones in villages; and that increased accommodation is too frequently unused or misused. In view of these facts it seems impossible to acquit the labourers of some share in the blame for the present condition of the cottages which they inhabit.

(4.) The provision of a good garden, where land is available, may be made the means of obtaining for the cottage and garden combined something like a remunerative return for outlay. I should recommend that wherever it can be done a garden of 40 perches should be attached to the cottages of ordinary labourers. In many villages it would, however, be impossible to do this. Larger gardens.

54. It appears that as a rule cottages which are let by estate owners to labourers are let free of rates, but that it is not unusual for independent owners to let subject to the payment of rates by the occupier. A few instances are noted in the reports where landowners insist upon their cottage tenants paying rates directly, thus giving those tenants a direct interest in the proper administration of local rates. Rates on cottages.

55. Summarising the evidence contained in the reports, I beg to submit the following conclusions with regard to cottage accommodation:— Recapitulation and summary conclusions.

The supply of cottages is not now generally defective in respect of numbers, owing partly to the decrease in the rural population, and partly to the large number of cottages which have been built by large landowners and others who can afford to build without an expectation of a profitable return for their outlay.

The distribution of cottages is irregular, and their situation often very inconvenient for the inhabitants.

The accommodation provided in respect of the number, size, and comfort of the rooms, the sanitary condition, and the water supply is lamentably deficient generally and requires amendment.

The action of the local sanitary authority, though vigorous in some districts, is in many places ineffective, and it is everywhere impeded, and sometimes arrested by the knowledge that the owners of insanitary dwellings have not the means to remedy the defects, and that the consequences of closing such dwellings would be to make the present inhabitants homeless.

The rent which is received for cottage property in rural districts is not sufficient to make the building of good cottages directly profitable; and this rent has generally no relation to the size of the cottage, the cost of its construction, the accommodation which it affords, its condition as regards repair or sanitary arrangements, or to the earnings of the occupier, and finally that the subject is one which deserves the gravest consideration, with a view to the suggestion of remedial action.

56. Suggestions as to amendments of the sanitary laws have been made by the Assistant Commissioners, or reported by them as proceeding from other persons, but it does not seem to be fresh legislation that is required, so much as exercise of their existing powers by the sanitary authorities. Recommendations.

57. There is, in addition to a general indifference and indisposition to reform, a very prevalent want of knowledge on the subject, and the powers of sanitary authorities are often latent and unused, because so few people are acquainted with the existence of them. The powers which rural sanitary authorities possess, either absolutely or potentially, with regard to cottages, their structure, accommodation, sanitary condition, and arrangements may be briefly described in the following terms. General want of knowledge as to powers of sanitary authorities.

58. Under the Public Health Act of 1875 the Local Government Board may, upon an application from a rural sanitary authority (or from a certain number of ratepayers representing a definite proportion of the rateable property), invest that authority with Public Health Act, 1875.

the powers which urban authorities possess with regard to the building of houses; and many rural sanitary authorities have availed themselves of the opportunity of acquiring such powers.

Public Health Act, 1890.

59. The Public Health Acts Amendment Act, 1890, gives to all rural sanitary authorities, *if they choose to adopt so much of Part III. of the Act as is made applicable to rural districts*, powers with respect to new buildings, but with this condition: "If the authorities adopt at all, they must adopt all the sections thus made applicable. "They cannot adopt some of these sections without adopting the others, nor can they "adopt for a portion of their district only."

Circular letter to rural sanitary authorities by Local Government Board, 12th November 1890. No. 43, App. A., Report 1890, 1891.

Under this part of the Act, if adopted, a rural sanitary authority is enabled to make byelaws—

(*a.*) with respect to the structure of walls and foundations of new buildings for purposes of health;

(*b.*) with respect to the sufficiency of the space about buildings to secure a free circulation of air, and with respect to the ventilation of buildings;

(*c.*) with respect to the drainage of buildings, to waterclosets, earth closets, privies, ash-pits, and cesspools, in connexion with buildings, and to the closing of buildings or parts of buildings unfit for human habitation, and to prohibition of their use for such habitation;

(*d.*) with respect to the structure of floors, and the height of rooms to be used for human habitation; and

(*e.*) with respect to the keeping waterclosets supplied with sufficient water for flushing.

The byelaws thus indicated apply to new or reconstructed buildings only, but byelaws relating to the drainage of buildings, and to waterclosets, earth closets, privies, ashpits, and cesspools, &c. may be made so as to affect buildings erected before the Act was put into operation.

Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890.

60. The Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890, enables the Rural sanitary authority to close insanitary dwellings, to compensate the occupier, at the expense of the owner, for compulsory disturbance, and in the event of the defects not being remedied, to demolish the building without any further compensation to the owner than the proceeds from the sale of the materials, minus the expenses of demolition and removal.

Powers of County Council in default of sanitary authority; may sanction scheme for building cottages.

61. If the rural sanitary authority are remiss in their duty after complaint or representation, the County Council may themselves take the necessary proceedings with the object of closing and demolishing insanitary dwellings.

Under the same Act a Rural sanitary authority desiring to adopt Part III. of the Act, which authorises the building of houses for the working classes, may apply to the County Council, who after public inquiry, may issue a certificate, after which the Rural sanitary authority may put in force the powers conferred by the Act. It is under the provisions of this Act that the West Suffolk County Council have sanctioned the action of the rural sanitary authority of Thingoe in building cottages at Ixworth, reference to which is made by Mr. Wilson Fox in his Report on that district.

Fox, B.I. 76.

Implied condition in letting habitations for working classes.

62. One provision in Part III. of the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890, may be specially noticed. By section 75 it is provided that "in any contract made "after the 14th August 1885 for letting for habitation, by persons of the working "classes, a house or part of a house, there shall be implied a condition that the house "is, at the commencement of the holding, in all respects reasonably fit for human "habitation." *

It would appear, then, that even the Rural sanitary authorities may exercise very considerable powers with regard to the construction, accommodation, and arrangements of new buildings, that they can absolutely close insanitary dwellings, and that they can acquire powers to deal with drainage and the sanitary conveniences of existing houses.

Annual return as to cottages desirable.

63. I thoroughly concur with a suggestion made by Mr. Wilson Fox that the owners of all houses let at a rental of less than 10*l.* a year should make a return to

* The expression letting for habitation by persons of the working classes, means the letting for habitation of a house or part of a house at a rent not exceeding, in England, the sum named (8*l.*) as the limit for the composition of rates by section 3 of the Poor Rate Assessment and Collection Act, 1869, and, in Scotland or Ireland, 4*l.*

the sanitary authority every year, stating the number of persons in each cottage, their sex and age, whether the house is provided with a proper water supply and a closet, and whether the premises are in good repair.

Medical Officer of Health, appointment, duties.

64. I desire also to endorse a recommendation made by several of my colleagues that the medical officer of health should not be engaged in private practice, that he should give up his whole time to the duties of his office, and that he should not be removable without the consent of the Local Government Board. In order to secure a properly qualified man under these conditions it would be necessary to offer such a salary as would be a heavy tax upon many small sanitary districts—while such districts would not afford sufficient work to occupy the whole time of the officer; but this difficulty would be overcome by combining two or more sanitary districts, and the independence of the officer would be increased if he were appointed by the county council, subject to the approval of the Local Government Board.

Loans for cottages to landowners.

65. I think that under the circumstances which have been described, it is desirable that loans should be advanced to landowners, at the lowest rate of interest which would secure the State from loss, for the purpose of building cottages. Such loans might be made subject to express conditions as to the character of the cottages and the arrangements, the provision of attached gardens, and the maximum rent to be charged.

Reasons for not recommending action similar to that taken in Ireland.

66. It may be asked why, with the example of the Labourers Acts, Ireland, in view, I do not propose the adoption of similar means for providing adequate and proper house accommodation for agricultural labourers in England.

In the first place I would urge that any general application of the principle of providing house accommodation by popularly elected local bodies would open the door to an unlimited amount of jobbery, favouritism, and corruption which might find scope in the choice of sites, the allocation of houses, the rents charged and enforced. And for these reasons it is only as an ultimate resort, and after the failure of all other possible means of supplying decent accommodation, that recourse should be had to a system of building largely by local authorities. It must also be observed that the adoption of the system would put a stop to all private enterprise in supplying cottages unless the rents charged were such as to secure the ratepayers from loss. It is clear from the evidence with respect to the working of the Labourers Acts in Ireland that every house which is built under the provisions of these Acts is the cause of a considerable annual loss to the ratepayers, even if the rents are regularly collected, which is not the case. The knowledge of this fact, and the objection to increasing the burdens of the ratepayers, have prevented a large number of local authorities in Ireland from taking any action in the matter, and a demand is now made that these authorities shall be compelled to exercise the powers which they possess.

But, further, it seems very doubtful whether local authorities are capable of judging dispassionately whether it is desirable, or even possible, to retain the present number of inhabitants in the rural districts. If corn prices remain at the level which they have now reached, it is certain that large tracts of land will go out of cultivation, and employment will be much more restricted than it is now. If good houses had been sufficiently supplied in all the rural districts 20 years ago, many of them would now be unoccupied.

And, lastly, any action by a local authority in the way of purchasing land and building cottages must, in the interest both of the ratepayers who have to bear the risk, and also of those individuals who might be injured by the action of that authority, be subject to such an amount of control and formality that the cost of the work accomplished must be materially increased.

Comparative simplicity and safety of loans to individuals.

67. On the other hand if a loan be made to a landowner, the executive of the State has only to consider whether the property to be charged is a sufficient security for the advance. The applicant acts upon his own judgment as to the number of cottages which are required, and what is the best situation for them. If he makes a mistake, he or his successors are the only sufferers. The security being sufficient, the comparative simplicity of the process of dealing with an individual instead of a representative body is obvious.

No great improvement until labourers desire better houses.

68. I must also express my firm conviction that no great and lasting improvement will be effected in the housing of the agricultural labourer until his sense of self-respect, and his regard for his family impel him to demand better cottages, and inspire him to make some sacrifice in order to obtain them.

V.—Gardens, Allotments, and Land held by Labourers.

Gardens.

69. As a rule, estate cottages whether on farms or in villages are provided with gardens. In open villages, if gardens exist, they are generally too small to be of much service. In the North and also in some of the dairy districts there is little demand for gardens, but in some of the low wage districts the position of the labourer is considerably ameliorated by the possession of a good garden, and this is particularly the case where the soil and climate are suitable for fruit growing, either in the shape of standard orchard trees or bush fruit. Instances of the rent of the cottage and garden being paid by the sale of fruit are not very uncommon. Invariably where gardens are attached or contiguous to cottages, the rent of the cottage includes that of the garden. It is computed from the Reports of two of the Assistant Commissioners, Mr. Fox and Mr. Spencer, who have given particulars as to gardens attached to cottages personally inspected by them, that out of 331 cottages, 250 have gardens, 43 have none, for the remainder particulars are wanting. Only 13 per cent. are absolutely stated to be without gardens, but 20 per cent. of the whole number have less than five perches each.

Allotments.

70. With regard to allotments, the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners contain very little evidence of an unsatisfied demand. As to seven districts out of the whole number, it is stated that more are required, and in one other district an insufficiency is complained of. Of 15 districts out of the whole 38, it is said that there is little or no demand for them; in nine of these the reason for this want of demand is that good gardens are provided, and in four of the nine, potato grounds are provided in addition to gardens. In three districts, Belper, Bromyard, and Nantwich, the expressed desire is for small holdings rather than for allotments. In one district (Garstang) the system of boarding the labourers in the farmhouses is said to diminish the desire for allotments. In another (Glendale), the system of hiring with an agreement to provide the labourers with a definite quantity of potatoes, makes them indifferent as to acquiring any land. With regard to three districts, it is reported that the supply is in excess of the demand, or that allotments have been given up.

Supply.

71. The supply of allotments is said by Mr. Spencer to be most ample where the rate of earnings is lowest, and certainly where the higher rates of wages prevail there is the least demand for them. Attention has been drawn to the tendency of the labourers to prefer independence and irregular employment to a definite engagement and regular work. It may be a debatable question whether the increased opportunity for obtaining allotments has reconciled the labourer to casual work for wages, or, on the other hand, whether the increase in the number of labourers who are not in constant work has produced the demand for land. It is certain that an allotment is a great advantage to an industrious man who is from any cause unable, or unwilling, to undertake constant work under one employer; but a natural consequence of large allotments and disengagement must be that the farmer will only employ the casual labourer when he wants him.

Size.

72. The size of allotments appears to vary from $\frac{1}{48}$th part of an acre, or $3\frac{1}{3}$ perches up to five acres. The general size would appear to be from 20 perches to half an acre, but in 13 districts they are said to run up to one acre or more.

Rent.

73. The rents also vary to an extraordinary degree, viz., from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 9*l.* 12*s.* an acre, but the last-named rent is charged upon small plots of 100 square yards close to a town (Melton Mowbray). In 10 districts the maximum rent exceeds 4*l.* an acre, but in all of these there are minimum rents given.

It is a matter of general complaint by labourers that allotments are let at a much higher rate than the rent paid by farmers. Those who complain do not always take into consideration that situation, accessibility from a good road, proximity to a village, enormously enhance the value of land which is at all suitable for spade cultivation; that the farmer's rent is generally for a quantity of land varying in quality and much of it not advantageously situated; and that it is exclusive of rates, while the allotment rent usually includes all outgoings; and that letting in small plots, like selling goods by retail, justifies a somewhat higher charge; but when all that can be urged has been said, it remains a fact that in many cases the rents of allotments are apparently very high.

Allotment syndicate.

74. In some places syndicates or associations have been formed and land has been let by landowners to these bodies who manage the allotments, subletting the land to the tenants and covenanting with them and the landlord. Mr. Richards' report on the

Brixworth district contains full particulars of the terms upon which one of these syndicates holds and lets land. Richards, B. II., 85.

75. Cow gates or pastures in which labourers graze their cows in common, with apportioned lots of mowing grass, are numerous in Driffield and Easingwold; they are also noticed in the reports upon Brixworth and Nantwich. In the last-named district, and also in Atcham, small holdings of grass are attached to cottages which are occupied by labourers. These arrangements for enabling a labourer to keep a cow are said to be a great boon to thrifty men with industrious wives. In North Witchford, the grass sides of the highways and byeways are let annually by the surveyors of highways, and hired by companies of labourers, who club together to pay the rent and the wages of a herdsman. Cow pastures.

VI.—Benefit Societies.

76. In no less than 34 districts out of the 38, a large proportion of the labourers are said to belong to some benefit society, and this is particularly the case with the younger men. Very frequently the older men, who are not now members of such a society, have formerly belonged to some club which was founded upon an unsound financial basis and has been broken up. Local or village clubs are still numerous, but the younger men have a distinct preference for the larger societies, such as the Oddfellows, Foresters, &c., which have branches or affiliated lodges generally distributed over the country. County societies are noticed in the reports upon Basingstoke, Dorchester, Maldon, Pewsey, and Wantage. Large proportion of labourers members.

In Glendale, which seems to occupy in every respect an exceptional position, there are no benefit societies insuring a labourer payment in sickness, for the simple reason that the men being hired for a year are paid wages whether at work or sick.

In Melton Mowbray, Monmouth, and Truro the labourers are said to be less inclined to become members of a club than elsewhere, but no explanation of the fact is offered. The usual objects of the clubs or benefit societies are to secure a certain weekly payment during sickness, to provide for medical attendance during illness, and to insure a certain payment for burial at death. Not infrequently, the funeral expenses of the member's wife are covered; but medical attendance on the wife and family of the member is not provided for. Distinct family medical clubs, however, exist in many districts. One instance is reported of a club for securing a pension or annuity after the age of 65, in addition to a weekly allowance in case of sickness. This club has been in operation in Hertfordshire ever since 1832, but since 1871 the practice of insuring for annuities has entirely ceased. In a few instances, notice is taken of labourers insuring their own and their children's lives; coal and clothing clubs for banking periodical deposits and adding a substantial bonus at the end of the year to the sum saved are very general. Old age pension. Chapman, B. vii., 95. Wilkinson, A. 96.

With respect to the registration of benefit clubs, it may be stated, as a general rule, that the public-house clubs, dividing clubs, and the smaller local clubs are unregistered, while the larger societies and those which have extended operations are registered.

VII.—Trades Unions, Strikes, &c.

77. There are only six districts in which the Assistant Commissioners found any evidence of a trades union of agricultural labourers. Those districts are Hollingbourn, Langport, Maldon, Stratford-on-Avon, Swaffham, and Thingoe. The two last named are the only ones where the organisation seems to be particularly strong, and the power of the union considerable. In Swaffham the National Agricultural Labourers' Union, and in the Thingoe district the Eastern Counties Federation claim to have enrolled a large number of labourers. No strike of any importance is reported to have occurred in recent years. In Norfolk a federation of farmers has been formed for the purpose of defence. Districts where trade unions exist.

VIII.—Relations between Employers and Employed.

78. The relations at present existing between the farmers and the labourers are said by the Assistant Commissioners to be as a rule less friendly than they formerly were; without being distinctly hostile the two classes have less cordial feelings towards each other. The labourer has become more independent and less satisfied, and he has been by circumstances placed in a position to enforce his demands. The farmers complain of the labourers' indifference and want of pride in their work. The bond between the two Less friendly without being hostile.

has become a commercial one, or to quote an expression used by Canon Bury "merely a cash *nexus*." But if the Assistant Commissioners have recorded several expressions of distrust and bad feeling on the part of the labourers, and some complaints of the farmers as to the inefficiency and remissness of the labourers, their reports also give evidence of fairly friendly feeling widely spread. In 13 out of the 38 district reports, the relations are said to be "good" or "satisfactory." In 17 the expression is modified, and they are described in some such terms as "fair," "amicable," "not unfriendly," but in eight districts the report is less favourable. Mr. Spencer says that such ill-feeling as was shown in the districts which he visited was "rather more marked in districts "such as Kent, Surrey, and Essex, where the rate of pay is comparatively high, than "in the lower paid districts of Wilts and Dorset."

Richards, A. 29.

Spencer, A. 53.

IX.—General Condition of the Agricultural Labourer.

Improvement universal.

79. Upon one point there is an almost unanimous opinion expressed by the Assistant Commissioners and by every class of persons from whom they received evidence, and that is as to the great improvement which has taken place in the labourer's condition during the last 20 years. If in some parts of the country wages are now lower than they were 10 years ago, they are certainly higher than at any period previous to 1873–4, and there is reason to believe that the average earnings within the reach of a willing and capable worker are in most districts considerable in excess of what they were 20 years ago. Any comparison of the present conditions with those prevailing 30 and 40 years ago would be still more favourable to the present period. Machinery has relieved the labourer of much of the hardest work. The hours of labour have been sensibly diminished. Regular employment is not difficult to obtain by those who are willing to engage themselves. The acquisition of allotments has been facilitated. Before the passing of the Elementary Education Act, 1870, it was very generally believed that the labourer could not dispense with the earnings of his young children. That difficulty was, however, surmounted, and at the same time the wives of the labourers very generally withdrew from field work and the family became dependent in many cases upon the single wage earner for its maintenance. Notwithstanding these changes the evidence is conclusive as to the labourers and their families being better fed and better clothed than formerly. If the state of the cottages is still far from what is desirable, it cannot be denied that the average condition of the dwellings of the poor is better, and that the standard of comfort is higher than it was.

Cheapness of necessaries of life.

80. The most effective agent in bringing about the improved condition of the agricultural labourer has undoubtedly been the cheapness of all the prime necessaries of life. His wages will purchase more bread, meat, butter, cheese, sugar, tea, and clothing than could have been bought for the same money 20 years ago, and it is probably no exaggeration to state that 16*s*. will buy as much of the principal commodities which a labourer consumes in the proportions in which he requires them as could have been bought for a sovereign in 1871–2.

Moral improvement.

81. Several gentlemen who were placed in a position to enable them to take a dispassionate view of the circumstances have expressed to the Assistant Commissioners their opinion that it is not only the material condition of the labourer that has improved, but that there has been a moral advance, and that he is more sober, more provident, and less dependent upon charity or poor law relief.

Wants of labourers.

82. The wants and wishes of the labourers vary with the particular conditions under which they live. While some desire continuous engagements and the payment of wages during "wet and dry," others desire complete independence and freedom to work on their own allotments when it suits their purpose; houses held without any condition as to their working for a particular employer. Some wish for more piece-work, others for a steady wage. Naturally all desire higher wages and shorter hours of work; occasional holidays and opportunities for rational recreation; and the means of rising by a gradation of small holdings to a higher social position.

Those outside the ranks of the labourers desire for them better cottages, larger gardens, improved sanitary arrangements, more thrifty habits, and facilities for securing old age pensions.

Notwithstanding the improvement which has unquestionably taken place in every part of the country there are, it is to be feared, too many of the class under consideration who partly by their own fault and partly by misfortune are in a chronic state of poverty and distress, but in this respect the agricultural labourers will probably compare

favourably with those of any other class, and the lot of the least fortunate is in many respects better than that of many dwellers in town.

Future prospects.

83. Whether the progress which has been made can be maintained, seems at the present moment doubtful. It is hopeless to expect that wages can rise above their present level in the districts of lower wages while the prices of produce remain what they now are. Everything seems to point to less employment of labour, and unless the rural population be further reduced in numbers, it is difficult to see how they can be employed upon the land. On the other hand, if in the future greater encouragement should be given to farmers by an increase of prices, a great demand for labour would arise, and the depopulation of the rural districts might be arrested, though there is little probability of the recall of those who have abandoned agriculture for other pursuits.

Section B.—WALES.

Position of the Welsh labourer.

84. The position of the agricultural labourer in Wales differs in some respects from that of his fellow labourers in England. The agriculture is much more pastoral in character, and crops requiring a considerable amount of labour are much less grown. A large proportion of the farmers are working men, who are little removed in social position from those whom they employ. Members of the small farmers' families not uncommonly take service under others of the same class, and the daughter of a farmer will, without losing caste, marry a labourer who hopes to become a farmer, and who occupies the same position as her father, perhaps, once held. The labourer is often himself a small holder, and thus the distinction between labourers and farmers is less marked than is generally the case in England.

Number and proportion of wage earners.

85. Taking the whole of Wales, the agricultural population is relatively larger than in England, but those who can be described as wage earners in agriculture are in ratio to the population very slightly in excess of those in England. In Wales they are less than one-half of the agriculturists; in England they are more than three-fourths of that class. The total number of wage earners in agriculture in Wales, which was in 1891 44,448 persons, has decreased by 6·3 per cent. since 1881, but in a group of North-western counties—Anglesey, Merioneth, and Carnarvon—it has increased by 11½, 5, and 2½ per cent. respectively.

In ratio to the area of cultivated land wage earners are about half as numerous in Wales as they are in England.

Females are more engaged in agriculture than in England generally, but not to the same extent as in Northumberland and some other Northern counties.

Classes of labourers.

86. In consequence of the agricultural conditions, and the prevalence of small farms, the labourers have not generally any specially defined work, and foremen, shepherds, carters, and stockmen are less distinct classes of labourers, though in some parts of the country, where larger farms are found, there are grades and separate classes of labourers as in England.

Decrease of population.

87. The population of the purely agricultural counties of Wales shows the same signs, though somewhat exaggerated in degree, of the great and continuous decrease observable in English counties of a similar character. The movement of population has some peculiar features. There has been a considerable emigration to foreign countries, but the principal cause of decrease, where it has occurred, has been the migration of the rural population to the coal fields and the "works" of South Wales, and to English towns and industrial districts. But in the agricultural districts of South Wales, on the other hand, there has been a considerable influx of labourers from the Southern and Western counties of England in order to supply the place of the native population who have gone away. It is said that these new comers are after a while drawn into the vortex of other industries, and their places have in turn to be filled by fresh drafts of labourers from England.

Districts of inquiry.

88. The districts of inquiry in Wales have been selected on the same principles as those adopted in the case of England.

There are eight of these districts, seven of which were visited and reported upon by Mr. D. Lleufer Thomas, after whose retirement Mr. Cecil Chapman surveyed the district of Builth. The reports upon the several districts, and the final report by Mr. Thomas,

with analytical and general indexes, form Vol. II. of the series relating to the agricultural labourer.

Of the eight districts reported upon, three are in South Wales, and five in North Wales. They extend into 10 counties out of the 12, and they comprise nearly one-fifth of the cultivated area of Wales, and more than that proportion of the arable land, of the corn crops, and the cattle.

Three of the eight districts of inquiry may be classed as distinctly agricultural in character, viz., Builth (S.W.), Ruthin, and Llanfyllin (N.W.). In four districts, Anglesey, Dolgelly, and Pwllheli (N.W.), and Narberth (S.W.), though agriculture is the largest interest, the industrial characteristics are mixed. In one district (Bridgend and Cowbridge (S.W.)), the industrial class (as distinguished in the census returns) was 20 years ago twice as numerous as the agriculturists, and no doubt this disproportion has greatly increased since that period. But within and adjacent to this industrial district lies a rather noted agricultural tract of fertile land known as the Vale of Glamorgan.

In all these districts, except Bridgend, the population has decreased during the last 10 years, and in five of them the decrease has been continuous for a longer period. That decrease has been most marked in Ruthin, and Llanfyllin, two purely agricultural districts, where it has been 16 per cent. and 14·8 per cent. respectively in 20 years.

I.—Supply of Labour.

Supply generally insufficient.

89. In no part of Wales does there seem to be a superabundance of labour, and in some districts a decided scarcity is reported. This is most noticeable in the district of Bridgend already described as industrial, and next to it in this respect is the Union of Builth, which is purely agricultural in character. In other parts of the country the deficiency is only felt at particular seasons; but everywhere the difficulty of obtaining female farm servants for dairy and domestic work is spoken of.

Alleged causes of decrease.

90. The decrease in the supply of labourers, which is complained of very generally, is attributed by Mr. Thomas partly to changes in the system of agriculture, such as the substitution of stock grazing for arable cultivation, the use of labour-saving machinery, the enlargement of farms, the want of confidence between landlords and tenants, and the employment of younger farm servants in the place of older and more experienced hands. This argument seems to me rather an inverted one which puts the effect in the place of the cause. A great increase of the cost of labour was the consequence of the migration of the labourers to the mines and works of South Wales; the farmer was compelled by the scarcity and dearness of labour to adopt additional machinery, to reduce the area of cultivation, to accept the service of raw lads in the place of seasoned men, and to submit to a reduction of the hours of work. The fall in the prices of agricultural products has forced him still further to reduce his labour bill; he cannot reduce wages where there is not a man unemployed, and he therefore reduces his staff.

Thomas, A. 12.

It is stated in Mr. Thomas's final report that in no part of Wales is there at "any time or season of the year any appreciable number of agricultural labourers "out of employment if they are willing to work at all."

With the exception of the importation of labourers from England into South Wales, there appears to be no immigration of workers. In some parts of the country there are men who move temporarily from one district to another at busy seasons, and those who have left agriculture for the "works" frequently return to their former homes for the harvest.

Efficiency of labourers. Chapman, B. VIII. 40, 41.

91. A want of efficiency on the part of the present labourers is by some alleged, but Mr. Thomas is of opinion that the complaint is not well founded, and Mr. Chapman speaks in terms of high commendation of the work done by the farm labourers in Builth.

II.—Conditions of Engagement.

Engagements.

92. The farm workers in Wales may be divided into two classes: the farm servants who are boarded and lodged on the farm, and the married labourers. Farm servants are hired and engaged for a half-yearly or yearly period. Married men are generally engaged and paid by the week; in many districts they receive their food on week days though they have their separate homes. For all who desire it employment is said to be continuous; but some labourers prefer catch work, and they, of course, lose time in wet weather and in winter.

93. The hiring, which used formerly to be accomplished at a "hiring fair," is now frequently a private arrangement, and this is said to give opportunities for underhand dealings, and to lead to frequent breaches of agreement, for which the employer has no remedy. It is urged that the law of contract between farm servants and masters requires some amendment or modification. Hiring.

Mr. Thomas says upon this point:— Thomas, A. 25.

"The agreement is always a verbal one, but a small sum of money, 1*s.* or 2*s.*, is given as 'earnest' of the contract. In the Narberth Union the practice of disregarding the engagement by not entering on service if anything unsatisfactory is heard of the character of the new place has of late become deplorably common. In such cases the 'earnest' money is generally returned, and there is no legal remedy for the breach of the contract, as it does not satisfy the requirements of the Statute of Frauds. Legal effect of ordinary agreement. Narberth (B.II.18,19). Breaches of contract.

"Neither party to the contract has an optional right to determine the engagement by a month's notice, unless it be by *mutual* consent. If an agricultural servant or labourer, however, leaves his employment before the end of the term and without notice he cannot, it appears, recover any of his wages, as the contract of service for a period is one and indivisible, and the principle of *quantum meruit* is not applicable. Anglesey labourers suggested that their half-yearly engagement should be terminable at a month's notice, though they did not wish to make this applicable to harvest-time. If a servant left without notice, they suggested that only one month's wages should be forfeited. On the other hand it appears that employers have no remedy against servants who leave their service in the middle of the year. At all events it is so held by the county magistrates, and it was mentioned to me as a grievance, especially in the Narberth Union, where such breaches of contract are of frequent occurrence." Thomas, A. 28.

94. It appears that the normal day for ordinary labourers, exclusive of meal hours, ranges from 10½ to 11½ hours, except in winter, when it is from sunrise to sunset. The hours are shortest in districts which are near to large centres of active industry, and where wages are highest. Hours of work.

The working hours are said to have been curtailed during the last 20 years.

Indoor servants and those in charge of stock have 12½ to 13½ hours of attendance, inclusive of meals. Maids have the longest hours of all those who are engaged about the farm. Sunday work in winter is said to occupy the stockman the whole day. A. 20.

III.—Wages and Earnings.

95. A large number of the farm labourers are paid partly by food, and it would seem that the character and value of the food provided must vary considerably, as Mr. Thomas estimates the weekly value in one district (Narberth) as between 3*s.* and 5*s.*, in another (Dolgelly) at 4*s.* 6*d.*, and in a third (Pwllheli) at 6*s.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* Many labourers boarded; cost of board.

96. The rate of wages where food is provided is said to range from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* a week, the lowest rate being paid in Narberth (Pembroke and Carmarthen), and the highest in Dolgelly (Anglesey), and Pwllheli (Carnarvon). Where the labourer finds his own food the rate of wages ranges from 12*s.* in some parts of Narberth to 18*s.* in the district of Bridgend, which is in an adjoining county to the former district, the two extremes being thus found within a distance of 50 miles. The average of the mean rates in the eight districts is 14*s.* 10*d.* a week. Rate of wages.

The wages of labourers are not generally much augmented by piece-work or by payments for overtime or extra work. A number of casual labourers let themselves for the harvest; and a few stockmen and shepherds have allowances. In Builth there are, however, considerable allowances, many labourers receiving them in one or more of the following forms, viz., house and garden free, potatoes, skim milk, firewood, butter, keep of an ewe and lamb. In Narberth the labourers are some of them retained by the possession of a small holding, which is sublet by the farmer with the condition that the occupier shall work for the farmer. Chapman, B. VIII. 62, 63.

97. Upon the *data* supplied by the reports the total earnings of labourers may be estimated to range from 14*s.* a week in Llanfyllin to 18*s.* 6*d.* a week in Builth, both of which are purely agricultural districts. These estimates apply to ordinary labourers. Estimated earnings.

Indoor servants' wages are said to be from 18*l.* to 36*l.* a year in addition to their board and lodging, the highest rate given being in the district of Anglesey. A peculiar system of payment for labourers in this class is found in Narberth where some of the unmarried farm servants are partly paid by the pasturage of a sheep.

Dairymaids, wages range from 11*l.* to 28*l.* or even 30*l.* a year, the latter rate being reported from Anglesey, the usual range appears to be from 11*l.* to 16*l.*

Wages, 1870.

98. In 1870 the rate of wages in certain counties, which include seven of the present districts of inquiry, appears to have been on an average about 12*s.* 6*d.*; there has thus, it would seem, been a rise of about 20 per cent. in 20 years; but as compared with 1879 there has been a fall in the weekly wages.

IV.—Cottage Accommodation.

Thomas, A. 47.

Cottages unsatisfactory.

99. On the subject of cottages Mr. Thomas reports in the following terms:—

"There are very few districts, if any, of those visited where the cottages are satisfactory from the point of view of condition and construction. Their worst feature, common to all parts of the country, is the want of separate bedroom accommodation. Structural and sanitary defects are also most common."

Accommodation.

100. It appears that one type to which many of the older cottages conform contains only one room, in which the whole family have to live and cook, wash and sleep; this room, though undivided by partitions, is in some degree separated into compartments by box-beds. A better and newer type of cottage has two rooms downstairs and a loft in the roof above. A third and still more modern type has from four to five rooms. In a very large proportion of the cottages there is no opportunity for males and females to occupy separate rooms. In the Reports of Assistant Commissioners upon the English districts there are few which do not record some efforts of landowners to improve the condition of cottages upon their estates. The Welsh Reports contain few notices of similar conduct. It is said that too frequently no attempt is made to keep up existing cottages or to supply new in the place of old ones. Mr. Thomas states that "some landlords are known to have adopted a consistent policy of never repairing a "cottage, but to allow all that tend to get out of repair to fall into ruins."

A. 43.

Sanitary defects.

101. The drainage and sanitary accommodation of cottages are described as being very generally defective or unsatisfactory, and overcrowded dwelling-houses unprovided with privies, refuse heaps in close proximity to dwellings, surface drainage, and an impure water supply seem to be the characteristics of almost every village described.

Thomas, A. 49.

Action of Sanitary authorities.

102. With regard to the sanitary authorities Mr. Thomas reports in these terms:—

"Several county councils have lately taken an important step forward in appointing one medical officer of health for the whole county, as the system of subdividing areas among ordinary practitioners has not proved very satisfactory. The next necessity appears to be a trained staff of sanitary inspectors. I am not aware that the inspector of a single union visited by me had received any special training in sanitary matters. Turning to poor law guardians, I did not, as a rule, find them taking any great interest in sanitation, and I was assured that in many unions, when the board resolves itself into a sanitary authority, it is the general practice of most of the guardians to withdraw themselves, and in some cases the periodical reports of the medical officers of health are read in the presence of the Chairman and Vice-Chairman only."

And he recommends the publication of these Reports with the annual or half-yearly accounts of the union.

Thomas, B. III., 48.

Overcrowding.

103. On the subject of overcrowding, Mr. Thomas says in his report on Llanfyllin, "there is seldom but one bedroom for the use of the whole family, having no sub-"division so as to admit of the separation of the sexes; overcrowding is the un-"enviable result, and to remedy or prevent it, the local authority is utterly helpless, "for *a rigid application of sanitary principles would at once render more than half the "cottages in the union tenantless.*"

Insufficient number of cottages.

104. Frequent complaints are made of the insufficient number of cottages, notwithstanding the decrease of the rural population. Old houses have gone to decay, and they have not been replaced. Farm cottages appear to be as distasteful to the farmers as they are to the labourers, and, as in England, there is a strong preference on the part of the labourers for village life.

Thomas, B. III., 43. B. II., 32.

Mr. Thomas thinks that the chief cause for the labourers congregating in villages is the owner's inability or unwillingness to repair cottages dispersed on farms; but he admits that "there is a growing tendency to congregate together so as to live near the "school-house and the chapel, while proximity to the village shop is undoubtedly a "consideration for the labourer's wife." Between the farmer who does not want to

have the labourer's family housed on his farm, and the labourer who prefers to live in the village, the landowner may well find an excuse for not repairing farm cottages.

Deserted cottages.

105. Mr. Chapman reports deserted outlying cottages in Builth as "quite habitable, "but there is nobody to occupy them." In one district, Pwllheli, the deficiency of cottages is so great as to be productive of much hardship. Married men work at such a distance from their homes that they prefer to sleep on the farm premises, returning home only once a week. Possibly the custom of feeding the workmen at the farmhouse makes the men more indifferent on the subject of their homes than they would otherwise be. It would seem that bad as the cottage accommodation is in some parts of England, it is far worse in Wales. The general standard of accommodation is lower, and there is much less evidence of progress and improvement.

Chapman, B. VIII., 66.

Farmhouse accommodation.

106. But if the cottages in Wales are far from satisfactory the accommodation provided for the farm servants, either in the farmhouses or in the farm buildings, is apparently still worse. A large number of farm servants are boarded and lodged by the farmer. In some districts the men are quartered over a stable or cow house, in a compartment which is often only partially separated from the rest of the loft. Even at the present day, the bed is perhaps only the body of an old cart filled with straw; and where beds are provided, the bed-clothes are sometimes washed only once in six months; no sanitary utensils are supplied; and the men often go to bed in their working clothes, without taking even their boots off.

Thomas, B. II., 30. B. VI., 38.

Where a different system prevails and the farm servants occupy rooms in the farmhouse, the accommodation is said to be very limited, many complaints having been made as to the want of proper partitions for effectually separating the sexes, the approach to the men's bedrooms being frequently through the sleeping apartments of the women servants. Contrasting the two systems of out-door and in-door lodging of men servants, Mr. Thomas makes the following observation "*whether the absolute freedom of "the out-door system, or the semi-promiscuous crowding of the indoor system is the worst "appears difficult to decide.*"

Thomas, B. IV., 41.

Ownership.

107. Cottages which are not situated in villages belong generally to owners of estates. In four of the districts of inquiry, they are mostly let with the farms and held by the labourers, subject to the condition of working on the farm. In the remaining four they are generally let directly to the labourers by the owners. In villages, the cottages chiefly belong to independent owners. There are few instances of cottages owned by labourers, and these are generally cottages of the lowest possible type, some of them being without chimney, fireplace, or ceiling. Cottages belonging to the parish, or to Charity trustees, are mentioned in one or two cases as very bad in character.

Thomas, B. III., 50. B. VI., 36.

Rents.

108. Rents of cottages range from 6*d.* a week to 7*l.* or 8*l.* a year; the latter rate being paid for those in villages or small towns.

Rates.

109. Rates on cottages held under a farmer and rented by him with his farm are almost always paid by the farmer, but where the labourer hires directly from the owner he not uncommonly pays rates.

V.—Gardens, Allotments, &c.

Gardens, &c.

110. Gardens are very commonly attached to cottages, except in large villages. The size varies extremely, but the estimated average extent is 20 perches.

In South Wales the gardens are said to be particularly well cultivated; but in Anglesey they are described as having a neglected appearance. Where village cottages have no attached gardens they have sometimes allotment gardens of small size on the outskirts of the village. The demand for these is not great, and in default of labourers occupying them they are taken by small tradesmen, and an instance is given of one being held by a Member of Parliament. The rents of these plots are sometimes very high, being at the rate of 6*l.* 8*s.* to 10*l.* an acre, and this fact may partly account for the indifference of the labourers with regard to them.

Allotments.

Thomas, A. 52.

Mr. Thomas reports that "Allotments are not popular in Wales, nor can it be said "that there is much demand for them."

In the Union of Bridgend a number of pieces of land have been set out under various inclosure awards for allotment grounds; where these are conveniently situated and the soil admits of cultivation, they are occupied and well cultivated, but in many instances they are too far distant from the village to be of any use as allotments, and it would seem desirable, if possible, to exchange them for a smaller area of suitable land more conveniently situated.

Potato grounds are to be found everywhere, though held under very different conditions. In some places the ground is given in return for manure from the labourer's pig; in others it is understood to be a payment for the work of the labourer's wife in harvest; in one district a charge is made for the land simply; in another the farmer finds seed, labour, and manure, and makes a corresponding deduction from the labourer's wages.

Cows, pigs, and poultry.

111. Cows are kept in many districts by those who have small holdings, and work for wages, and the system is said to be of great benefit to the labourer and his family, but the successful or unsuccessful result depends almost entirely on the industry and cleanliness of the labourer's wife. The custom seems to be most common in the districts of Dolgelly and Pwllheli. In Builth several farmers find cows for the use of their labourers, charging them 3*s.* a week.

In a few instances, sheep are kept by labourers, either on a common or with the employer's flock. In Builth farm servants and labourers buy sheep, and the farmer keeps them for one-half share of the wool and lambs produced. Pigs are kept to a considerable extent, except by those who live in villages, where pigstyes have been condemned as nuisances. Poultry are largely kept by labourers in Ruthin and Anglesey, and very generally by those who are small holders of land.

VI.—Benefit Societies, &c.

Clubs.

112. In Bridgend, Llanfyllin, and Builth, a considerable number of labourers are enrolled as members of friendly societies, but in other districts this does not seem to be the case. This result is attributed by Mr. Thomas to the mismanagement and failures of such societies in the past, to the dishonesty of members in drawing upon their sick funds when they could very well follow their employment, and to the fact that in some parts of the country the parish is regarded as the natural provision for the labouring class in sickness or old age. Some employers expect their labourers to join a benefit society, and they then add to the sick pay so much as is required to make up a sum equal to a week's wages.

A. 62.
B. III. 59.

VIII. 92.

The practice of holding the meetings of such societies at public-houses is generally condemned.

Mr. Thomas reports suggestions that Government should be far more stringent in seeing that none but the soundest actuarial tables should be adopted by any societies, that their accounts should be subject to periodical audit by a Government auditor, and that rules should be laid down as to the classes of securities in which the funds could be invested.

VII.—Trade Unions.

Trade unions do not exist.
Thomas, A. 64.

113. "There is a total absence of any organisation of the nature of a trade union among the agricultural labourers of Wales. Some combinations have from time to time been attempted, but the most successful have had only a short-lived career. With one exception these combinations have aimed almost solely at the reduction of the hours of labour, and a slight concession has, as a rule, been followed by the collapse of the movement."

B. VII. 48.

In one instance an object aimed at by the promoters of a labourers' union was to secure the improvement of the sleeping accommodation, but "the labourers stopped short of paying any subscriptions."

VIII.—Relations between Employers and Employed.

A. 65, 66.
Varying from sour feeling to exceptionally good.

114. Mr. Thomas reports that in some districts "a certain sourness of feelings" and "an absence of good will" are to be found, while in others, as in Dolgelly and Narberth, where holdings of all sizes are intermixed, and the son of a farmer is often employed as a servant on a neighbouring farm, a much better feeling prevails; but everywhere men are more independent, and "the indoor servants often cause an "immense trouble to their employers. The two great causes of discontent and "disaffection are the food and accommodation, and in both respects . . . there is in "most cases much room for improvement."

Chapman, B. VIII. 98.

Mr. Chapman says of Builth that the relations there are exceptionally good—"the "class distinction between the two is very slight, and they meet each other more "as partners than as masters and servants."

115. The accommodation of the indoor servants has been already noticed. Diet of boarded labourers.

The diet of farmers and their servants boarded with them is very inferior to that of farm labourers in England generally. In the Narberth Report the following table is given of the ordinary diet in a farmhouse :—

1. Breakfast.—Coffee, bread and butter.
2. Dinner.—*Winter*—Broth, salt meat, and potatoes.
   Summer—Flummery, milk, bread and cheese.
3. Supper.—Broth, bread and cheese.

The bread is generally made of wheat and barley, though sometimes oats are added. The cheese is made from skim milk and is said to be tough and leathery. The meat is bacon. In some districts a fourth meal of tea and bread and butter is interposed, but nowhere is it the custom to give meat more than once a day.

It is curious to note that in Builth, which is more or less of an English-speaking district, the labourers will have nothing but the finest and whitest of wheat flour.

IX.—General Condition of the Agricultural Labourer.

116. The labourer of South Wales is said to be "in a better position than he has "even been before, while in North Wales he was slightly better off, perhaps, about "1879, though his condition at present is fairly satisfactory. The total amount of "wages is not the only element to be taken into account: allowances or gifts in kind "were more frequent in former years than at present. The tendency to leave farm "cottages for villages has also affected the position of the labourers; in the latter case "they pay a higher rent and probably find that they cannot keep a pig or poultry. "On the other hand all necessaries of life are cheaper than formerly, though this can "scarcely be said of clothes, as those bought at present, though of less price, are more "shoddy and do not last so long. School fees have also been abolished, but the "opportunities for members of the family other than the husband to earn money have "greatly diminished." In South Wales better than ever before. In North Wales slightly improved. Thomas, A. 67.

But with all the qualifications which can be suggested, it seems impossible to doubt that a great advance has been made in the past 20 years. If wages of outdoor labourers have increased by 20 per cent., and those of indoor servants by 30 to 50 per cent., and if the purchasing power of money has increased by 20 per cent., as it probably has done, there is a considerable margin for expenditure on other than the bare necessaries of life.

It is admitted that the hours of labour have been reduced, while the more arduous toil has been relieved by the use of machinery. If the expenditure in rent has increased the social advantages and the convenience of village life must be regarded as giving the labourer some return for his money. The withdrawal of women from field work is a consequence of the labourer's improved position, as he can afford to dispense with the earnings of his wife and daughters. The district Reports contain evidence of the opportunities which indoor servants at least enjoy of saving money, and strictures upon the improvidence of this class of labourers. The married labourer is, perhaps, in a worse position than the farm servant, because he receives so large a part of his wages in food. He consumes in six days of the week from 30 to 40 per cent. of his earnings, and the other members of his family suffer from this system of payment. Mr. Chapman's report on Builth states that the labourers generally acknowledge that their position has improved, but they make it a subject of complaint that land was more easily procurable in the old days, and some say that the extra money at harvest time was "then more commonly paid than now." B. I., 20. Chapman, B. VIII., 102.

Employers in the same district are unanimously of opinion that there has been a steady improvement in the condition of the labourer, who is in many respects better off than the small farmer. "In education, in dress, and in manners, the agricultural "labourer of to-day is superior to the average farmer of a few years ago." Chapman, B. VIII., 101.

117. Mr. Thomas, at the conclusion of his report, makes a number of suggestions for improving the condition of the agricultural labourer, and establishing his relations with his employer on a more satisfactory footing. Many of these deserve attention as social reforms, to be effected voluntarily under the pressure of an enlightened public opinion. They do not—with the exception of those which refer to hiring agreements and the stricter Government supervision of benefit societies, both of which have been already noticed—seem to require any legislative sanction. Suggestions for improving condition.

As in the case of England, the housing of the labourer seems to be the most pressing subject for reform. There seems to be little evidence of a disposition to build

improved cottages, and where the population is continuously decreasing, there is little inducement to build with a view to profit. If, as the labourers desire, cottages are to be held independently of employment, and subject to no restrictive conditions as to work, landowners will have little inducement to build cottages on their estates for the proper housing of the labourers who are required for the cultivation of the land.

If the sanitary authorities are in many cases supine, they are often powerless to compel an improvement without resorting to the extreme measures of closing insanitary dwellings and demolishing them, and the result of energetic action on their part would be in many places to make a large number of families homeless.

I am of opinion that the evidence from Wales strongly supports the suggestion made by Assistant Commissioners for England, that the Medical Officer of Health should be placed in a position of greater independence; that he should devote his whole time to the work of his office, and that, in order to carry out this object without pressing too heavily upon the ratepayers of the smaller sanitary districts, the area of his duties should be enlarged.

Section C.—SCOTLAND.

Wage earners in agriculture in ratio to population.

118. The wage earners in agriculture in Scotland are a larger proportion of the total population in Scotland than they are in England and Wales. Out of every *ten thousand* persons 300 in Scotland are in this class, while in England and Wales there are 275 only. The agriculturists are also relatively more numerous in Scotland than in England, but a larger proportion of them are farmers and farmers relatives and consequently a smaller proportion of them are wage earners in Scotland than in England and Wales. The relative proportions of the wage earners to the agriculturists are about 73 per cent. in the latter and about 62 per cent. in the former country.

Decrease in number.

119. As is the case in England, Wales, and Ireland, the number of wage earners has considerably decreased in recent years. In 1871 they were 165,096, in 1881 they were 149,765, and in 1891 they had been reduced to 120,770. Admitting for reasons stated previously, that the figures for 1871 and 1891 are not strictly comparable, those for 1881 and 1891 are practically made up on the same system and they show a decrease during the last census decade of 19·4 per cent. which is at a far greater rate than the decrease in England and Wales during the same period, which was 10·25 per cent.

Wage earners in ratio to agriculturists.

120. The ratio of wage earners to agriculturists varies from $92\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. in East Lothian to 33·64 per cent. in Sutherland. In a group of seven counties which extend from Fife to the English border, including besides that county, East and Mid Lothian, Berwick, Roxburgh, Peebles and Selkirk, they average 85 per cent., while in the seven northern and western counties, from Caithness to Bute, the wage earners are only one-half of the agriculturists.

Large proportion of females.

121. The proportionate numbers of females in the ranks of wage earners is and has always been very large in Scotland as compared with the other two countries, though the number of them has enormously diminished. In 1871, females were 25·9 per cent., in 1881 29·5 per cent., and in 1891 18·3 per cent. of agricultural wage earners. In England and Wales they were in 1871 only 5·8 per cent., and in 1891 only 3·0 per cent. of the class. It may be observed that in England a decrease of 40 per cent. on the number of those who represented only 5 per cent. of the wage earners is small in comparison with a decrease of more than 50 per cent. in Scotland where it affects more than one-eighth of the whole class.

The number of female wage earners shows some curious fluctuations. It increased positively as well as relatively from 1871 to 1881, since which time it has fallen from 44,172 to 22,055, or at the rate of more than 50 per cent. In the same period, male wage earners decreased from 105,593 to 98,718, or at the rate of 6·5 per cent. The diminution of the workers in agriculture by nearly 30,000 persons must have had a powerful effect upon the agriculture of the country.

The alterations in the boundaries of counties in Scotland have been so considerable since the census of 1881, that it would not be safe to draw any conclusions from the figures relating to counties taken singly, but speaking broadly it may be said that the decrease has been the greatest in the pastoral counties of the north and west, and least in the east and south.

Ages of wage earners.

122. It is worthy of notice that among male wage earners the numbers of those under 15 years increased between 1881 and 1891, while the greatest decrease occurred in those over 65 years and after them in those between the ages of 20 and 45. Among females in the class the greatest decrease was in those under 20 years of age among whom it was at the rate of 57 per cent., and it was least among those of 65 years and upwards.

Agriculture of Scotland.

123. The agriculture of Scotland, widely as it varies in character as the result of the physical features and climate of the country, is more distinctly divisible into arable and pastoral districts than that of England, where it is as a rule of a mixed arable and pastoral character while in Scotland there are immense tracts of country entirely pastoral and other parts of the country where a very large proportion of the cultivated area is arable land. The arable portion of the country is mainly concentrated in a few groups of counties in the east and south of the country, while the whole of the northern and western counties, stretching from Cape Wrath to the Mull of Cantire, with two-fifths of the whole area of the country, have on an average less than $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of that area under the plough. On the other hand, in six of the north-eastern counties to the right of a line extending from Fort George to Dundee, and including Nairn, Elgin, Banff, Aberdeen, Kincardine, and Forfar, more than nine-tenths of the cultivated area is arable. Measured by the proportionate extent of the total area which is occupied in growing crops that require the largest amount of labour, namely, corn and green crops, the counties which have been just named are less conspicuous than those of Fife, Haddington, and Berwick; while Linlithgow, Edinburgh, Kinross, and Clackmannan rank with them in respect of these crops. In the 13 counties above named nearly one-half of the whole number of wage earners are employed.

Scheme of inquiry.

124. It has been already stated that it was found advisable to pursue in Scotland a somewhat different course, with regard to the inquiry under the Commission, to that which had been adopted in England and Ireland. In the absence of any well-defined local areas of administration the Assistant Commissioners were directed to pursue their inquiries in groups of counties, and the late Mr. G. R. Gillespie, an Assistant Commissioner, prepared a scheme of inquiry which, having been submitted to Committee B. and approved by them, has been carried out.

Groups of counties.

125. Under this scheme Scotland has been divided into 14 districts, of which 11 are agricultural and largely arable; one includes both arable and pastoral districts and the other two are mainly pastoral in character.

Assistant Commissioners' Reports.

126. Of these districts three were surveyed by Mr. Gillespie, five by Mr. H. Rutherfurd, four by Mr. Hunter Pringle, and two by Mr. E. Wilkinson, who had been previously engaged in England. The Reports upon the several districts form Parts I. and II. of Vol. III., and the Indexes to the Reports which were prepared on the same plan as those relating to Vols. I. and II., form the third part of the volume.

Conditions affecting labourer more uniform in Scotland than in England.

127. In some respects the conditions affecting the agricultural labourer in Scotland are far more uniform than is the case in England and Wales. It might be said that possibly the more general and extended character of the survey as compared with the minute survey of small districts in other parts of the country tended to obscure differences in detail, but whether this is so or not it is clear that in one very important particular the Scotch system is the same all over the country and that is in respect to the definite engagement of all the regular labourers whether married or single. Again, it is very common and usual to house the labourers on the farm, and villages are the exception, whereas in England they are the rule. And further, labour is much more organised in Scotland than it is generally in England. Each man of the regular staff has his special duty. The ploughmen have each of them two horses and no more under their care, they work this team and feed and tend them. These ploughmen may be graded as first or second ploughmen, but they have all of them the same duties. Even the women workers have for the most part definite and particular duties.

Dealing with the principal subjects in the order of the notes for inquiry, the first to be noticed is the—

I.—Supply of Labour.

Supply insufficient.

128. The complaint of an insufficient supply of labourers is very general. Bearing in mind the facts which have been already stated with regard to the decrease in the number of labourers, and especially in the number of women workers, it is evident

that if the system of farming formerly pursued had been still carried on, labourers must now be insufficient in number, or otherwise they must have been in former times much in excess of the demand. But there is no evidence of any great superfluity of hands at any period within recent times. The decreased supply has been met by a change of system in farming. Although the arable land remains about the same in extent as it was, a large proportion is left in rotation grasses, and crops requiring the greatest amount of labour have diminished in area by nearly 10 per cent.; by the use of machinery labour is economised, and a certain amount of work is left undone. Mr. Hunter Pringle does not "think that an alarming scarcity of labourers has yet arisen," and he regards it "as a healthy sign that there are no unemployed agricultural labourers, and no farms "without sufficient servants to perform the necessary work," that "there is no sur- "plus, but that there is nothing like a famine of labourers anywhere." These remarks apply only to the districts which he surveyed; but these were some of the most important agricultural districts in Scotland, including, as they did, East and Mid Lothian, and Fife.

Pringle, A. 15.

Rutherfurd, A. 19.

Mr. Rutherfurd found all over the districts which he visited in the north, west, and south-west of the country, that "in one class of labour or another, the supply of "hands required for agricultural operations was insufficient." In the northern counties the demand was urgent, and in the south, where the supply was sufficient, it was no more than sufficient, while the exodus of the people still continued. Mr. Gillespie reports a scarcity in two out of three districts which he reported upon, including Aberdeen, and a group of counties in the north-east. Mr. Wilkinson says that in the pastoral districts of Peebles, Selkirk, and Dumfries, no difficulty was experienced in getting shepherds, though ploughmen were short. In Berwick and Roxburgh the supply of men was about equal to the demand. Very generally women workers, and particularly dairymaids, were difficult to obtain.

A. 21.

Wilkinson, B. V. 9. B. VI. 12.

Immigrants.

129. The immigration of Irish labourers, though greatly diminished, is still considerable in those counties where potatoes and corn are largely grown, and some girls from Skye and the Hebrides migrate annually though in decreasing numbers. In the neighbourhood of towns and seaboard villages a large amount of casual labour is obtained at busy seasons of the year.

Efficiency of labourers.

130. Complaints as to inefficiency of the present race of labourers were frequently made; but these were chiefly in districts where competing industries absorbed many of the better labourers and exerted an unsettling influence upon others. Generally the complaint was that the labourers were less willing and less industrious than formerly but not that skill or capacity were wanting.

II.—Conditions of Engagement.

Yearly hiring general.

131. Throughout the whole country the regular practice of farmers is to hire shepherds, cattlemen, and married labourers by the year. The single men who are lodged on the farms, whether they are boarded or not, are hired by the half year. This universal custom of engaging all the regular staff of workmen by the year distinguishes the Scotch system from the English—under it the labourer receives regular wages throughout the year; he loses no time on account of weather, and if he is sick and unable to work his wages are paid, at least for a period, which seems to have become fixed by custom at six weeks. A few extra labourers are taken on when required by the day or week, and the immigrants, whether Irish or others, who are employed at special work, have no hiring; but these are exceptions to the general rule. In some districts women workers are engaged by the half year, in others the hired cottager undertakes to find a woman worker (generally a member of his own family), when her services are required, for a definite sum per day, or per week.

Method and terms of hiring.

132. The engagement with the labourers is usually made at hiring markets, the commencement of the term being either Whitsuntide (26th May), or Martinmas (Nov. 28th). Very commonly the engagement is a verbal one only. It is supposed to be rendered binding by the acceptance of earnest money or "arles," but of late years great and general complaints have been made of a growing practice among the labourers to repudiate engagements, in many cases without notice to the farmer, who expects the hired servants to come at the term-time, and has no opportunity of filling the vacant place when disappointed by the failure of the hired servant to keep his engagement. The farmer's remedy, which is to sue for damages, is not very effective, and an amendment of the law is suggested by Mr. Hunter Pringle, who appends to his report on the Fife district a legal opinion which he obtained upon the subject of the

Desertion of service.

Pringle, B. I. 206.

farmer's means of redress, and the amendment which might be effected in the law as to breaches of contract.

133. The difficulty appears to arise in the first instance from the engagement being generally verbal and not written. If, however, the farmer sues, and is awarded damages, he can only recover by seizing or by arrestment of wages, if these exceed 20*s.* a week. The complaint appears to be that up to 1875 there was power to imprison the defaulter if he did not pay the damages awarded or find caution for the fulfilment of his contract, but the effect of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act of 1875, and of the Employers and Workmens Act, 1875, has been to make the master's only remedy a claim for damages which can only be recovered in the ordinary way. The remedy suggested is that written contracts only should be recognised, and that upon a breach of such contract the sheriff should have power to order the respondent to find caution for performance, and in default to order imprisonment for a period not exceeding 14 days.

Agreements generally verbal.

Pringle, B. I. App. B. 3. Suggested amendment of the law.

Mr. Gillespie reporting on the subject of desertion of service, including failure to begin a term of service according to engagement, which he says had been found common of late years, contented himself with suggesting a milder form of remedy by the arrest of wages in execution of a sheriff's decree for any damages that might be incurred by desertion.

Such an amendment of the law as Mr. Gillespie suggested could not be regarded as unfair to the servant; while imprisonment for any but a flagrant offence or for contempt of court would be regarded by many as too severe a punishment for the offence.

Gillespie, B. VII. 22.

134. One result of the hiring system is, strange to say, the frequent change of situation by labourers both married and single. It seems as though the fixing of a definite term operated to encourage men to move. Very generally the restless disposition, the fashion of flitting year after year is spoken of and deplored by the employers as not merely inconvenient and wasteful, but as tending to destroy the labourer's interest in his home or his work, and to prevent the growth of any feelings of attachment between him and his employer. The habit is said to be much encouraged by the neglect of many farmers to make inquiries as to the antecedents of the men before hiring them.

Frequent changes of service.

135. Various suggestions have been made with a view to the mitigation of this habit of constant change. In his Moray, Aberdeen, and Forfar reports Mr. Gillespie notices one suggestion which was pressed upon his attention very frequently, and it was that of indefinite engagements terminable by a short period of warning as a month or a fortnight. Without expressing any very decided opinion as regards the single men who are farm servants, Mr. Gillespie expresses "grave doubts whether "the system could be applied to married men, at all events while houses are so scarce "as they are."

Indefinite contracts suggested.

Gillespie, B. VI. 11, VII. 13, VIII. 15.

Mr. Rutherfurd found both masters and men divided in opinion upon this point.

Rutherfurd, A. 34.

Mr. Hunter Pringle directs attention to a system adopted on one farm of paying a bonus in respect of each year's service after two years have been completed. The plan is said to have proved successful, and if continuity of service can be promoted by the payment of a bonus that only amounts to 5*s.* after two years' service and to 20*s.* on entering the eighth year of service the system would be a cheap remedy for an acknowledged and growing evil.

136. There is less variation in the hours of labour and the hours of attendance in Scotland than in England, though the time for commencement and leaving off, and the meal hours differ somewhat. Horsemen, and a considerable proportion of all male workmen are included under that term, have about 14 hours from start to finish, but out of these they take half an hour for breakfast and two hours for dinner. The hours of work in the fields (except in winter) are from 9 to 9½ hours, the journey to the field from the stable being counted in the time, but not the journey home. Unlike a large number of the English labourers the homes of these horsemen are near the stables, and they are able to take their mid-day meal as well as breakfast at home.

Hours of work.

In some districts, or rather upon some farms, the horsemen are required to visit the stables at 8 p.m., and this is everywhere considered a grievance, and the objection has been met in many instances by imposing the duty upon the men in rotation or by the farmer personally or by his deputy, the "grieve," undertaking it.

The hours of stockmen vary more than those of ploughmen. In some districts they are extended to 13 hours of attendance, or where milking at dairy farms is carried on they may be further prolonged.

Ordinary labourers, as understood in England, few in number.

137. The ordinary labourer as understood in England does not exist in Scotland. In estimating the hours of labour in the former country it was thought the safer plan to fix the hours of this class and to add to those hours more or less to make up the hours of work of carters and stockmen, but in the case of Scotland it is only by reference to the hours of the horsemen that the working hours of the casual men and the women workers can be ascertained in many instances. It appears to be the rule that "orra" or casual men, women workers, and boys work the same hours as the teams in the fields, that is, 9 to 9½ hours.

Sunday work.

138. Horsemen very generally divide the Sunday work, all of them attending in the morning, after which the work is attended to by one man out of four or five, the rest being set at liberty.

Cattlemen during the winter season have very frequently a full day's work, and Sunday brings them no relief. In summer, except in the dairy districts, they have little to do on that day.

Obligation to find woman worker less common than formerly.

139. In former days it was a very usual condition in engaging hinds or married labourers that the man should find a woman worker, at such times as the farmer might require her services, at an agreed wage *per diem*. Although this system is noticed as still prevailing in some parts of the country, it appears to be much less common than it was when the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners and the Royal Commission on the Employment of Children, &c., were written (1867–70). At the present time it is said to be expected of the man that he will find the worker, and in a few districts he is bound to do so. In others the man who has members of his family prepared to undertake field work has a decided advantage in the "feeing" or hiring market inasmuch as every farmer is anxious to secure the contingent advantages of his residence on his farm.

Obligation a grievance.

140. Where the obligation to supply a worker exists, it is looked upon as a grievance by the labourers. In some counties the wives of labourers are required to undertake the work of milking night and morning, and this is much complained of.

III.—Wages and Earnings.

Earnings.

141. In dealing with the subject of the remuneration received by labourers in England it was found necessary to insist upon the fact that *wages*, meaning by that term the weekly sum paid to ordinary labourers, very inadequately represented the possible receipts or total earnings of capable men willing to work, and that such wages afforded no safe basis for the comparison between different districts or different parishes. In that part of the kingdom the weekly wages are simply the minimum rate of payment for a time bargain; they are augmented not only by perquisites but frequently by opportunities of earning extra sums or by an increase of the rate at special seasons. In the case of Scotland it is equally necessary to disregard mere money wages as a standard of payment, though the reason for doing this is not exactly the same.

Wages constant and regular.

142. The wages in Scotland are constant and regular throughout the year; but in many districts the earnings are largely made up of perquisites and allowances and to a still greater extent by payments in kind.

Payments in kind.

143. The last-named form of payment, though less common now than it was 20 years ago, is still sufficiently widespread to make it impossible to form any idea of the actual receipts of the labourers in many parts of the country without putting a value upon the kind payments. This subject has been examined by the Assistant Commissioners with great care, and the Reports of Mr. Hunter Pringle, Mr. Rutherfurd, and Mr. Wilkinson contain a great number of examples showing in detail all the items which have to be brought into account with the value which may fairly be attached to them, while Mr. Gillespie's Reports supply the materials for a comparison between the three districts which he surveyed and other parts of the country, though his premature death deprived the Commission of the advantages of receiving from him a summary estimate of the comparative results.

No materials for estimating earnings of

144. It is not possible in the case of Scotland to make the wages and earnings of the ordinary labourer the basis of comparison for the simple reason that in many districts there are not a sufficient number of that class to supply an estimate. The ordinary

married ploughman will best represent a type which will be found in all the agricultural districts, and it may be considered that his earnings will serve to gauge pretty accurately those of other classes, excepting the shepherds. ordinary labourers.

145. A comparison of the mean rates of a large number of estimated weekly earnings shows rates ranging from 13*s.* 10*d.* in Orkney and Caithness to nearly 23*s.* in Lanark, with an approximate average of 18*s.* 9*d.* Commencing with the north, where the minimum rate is found, there is a gradual increase to about 17*s.* 3*d.* a week in the Moray and Aberdeen groups of counties, with a further rise to about 19*s.* 3*d.* in Forfar, Fife, and the Lothians. In the central counties of Stirling, Dumbarton, Renfrew, and Lanark the highest level of 22*s.* to 23*s.* is reached. Ayr, Bute, and South Argyle are about on a level with the Lothians. Berwick appears to be slightly below these, and in the three counties in the extreme south-west the rate declines to about 17*s.* Comparative rates of average weekly earnings.

146. The lowest rate of earnings prevails where the payment is most largely in kind and least in cash. Thus, in Caithness, it would appear that little more than one-third of the receipts of a ploughman are in money, while in Lanark, where a much higher rate prevails, the payment is chiefly in cash, the only additions being the house rent, and the carriage of coals. Again, in the Report on Berwick, some instances are given where less than 30 per cent. of the earnings are paid in cash. At the present value of meal the earnings of labourers paid largely in that commodity will naturally be depressed in comparison with those where money is paid, but so long as the payment in kind is made only in such commodities as can be fully consumed, and are required for the sustenance of the labourer's family, the fluctuations in value make no sensible difference to the receiver. Lowest rates where payments in kind form largest proportion of total.

147. The compulsory abolition of payments in kind has been one of the planks in the platform of agrarian reform. The evidence contained in the reports leads to the conclusion that the change is pressed by outsiders rather than by labourers, and that a large majority of the labourers, at least of those who are married, prefer the present system, while some of the farmers are quite willing to substitute money for produce. One theoretical objection to the system, namely, that the farmer supplies the labourer with produce of an inferior quality, meets with absolutely no support. Payment in kind less common than 20 years ago.

148. With regard to milk, which is a very usual allowance in kind, the substitution of money for that article would practically result in depriving the labourer's family of any opportunity of obtaining it. Allowance of milk common.

149. The payment of shepherds exhibits considerable variety. In many of the arable districts the class is unimportant if not unknown, but in the purely pastoral districts they are almost the only agricultural labourers. Mr. Pringle gives a range of earnings in his districts of inquiry from 16*s.* 6*d.* to 29*s.* 3*d.* a week. These earnings in many districts are made up partly by the keeping of one or two cows with their followers, partly by other perquisites, the cash payment being only a small part of the whole. The system of payment by a shepherd's pack; that is by the keep of a certain number of sheep with the master's flock, once very common, has been largely discontinued, but it still exists in Peebles and Selkirk. In consequence of the great fall in the value of wool and also of the lambs and ewes, the shepherds who are thus paid have suffered considerably. In one instance, given by Mr. Wilkinson, the proceeds of the shepherd's pack decreased in the years from 1889 to 1892 by 19*l.* 13*s.* or 7*s.* 6*d.* a week. Shepherds.

150. Young unmarried ploughmen who are boarded and lodged, receive as wages from 12*l.* to 18*l.* per half year, the highest rate being reported from North Lanark. As a general rule, these labourers are not now boarded, they receive wages and allowances on the same scale as the married men if fully competent, and in some districts, a large number of them are lodged in bothies. Young men and "halflins."

151. Women receive from 1*s.* to 2*s.* a day at ordinary work, and in some places 3*s.* or 3*s.* 6*d.* a day in harvest, the wage varies according to the demand for them for particular descriptions of work. In Berwickshire where they are much employed, they earn from 25*l.* to 28*l.* a year, and instances are given by Mr. Wilkinson of as much as 32*l.* being earned by a woman worker, but this included the rent of a house. Dairymaids get from 20*l.* to 30*l.* wages besides board in the dairying districts. Boys, until they can manage a team of horses, get about the same wages as women. Women. Wilkinson, B. II. 31.

152. Comparing the present rate of earnings with those reported to the Duke of Richmond's Commission on Agriculture, 1879–1882, it would appear from an abstract Present earnings

compared with those of former periods. 1879–82.

of the evidence given before that Commission which I have prepared for the use of this Commission that in the most important agricultural counties, the earnings of the ploughmen are very similar in amount. In Aberdeen, the estimates for the two periods are precisely the same in both cases. In Forfar, they are now 19*s.* 4*d.* against 18*s.* 5*d.* formerly. In East and Mid Lothian, they are 19*s.* 1*d.*, and they were 19*s.* in 1880. In Berwick they are 18*s.* 6*d.* against 18*s.* 3*d.* In the Moray district, they have apparently risen from 14*s.* 10*d.* to 17*s.* 3*d.*, and in Ayr from 16*s.* 6*d.* to 19*s.* 3*d.*

1867–70.

153. As compared with the earnings of 20 years ago, those of the present day are considerably higher. An abstract of the evidence collected by the Commission on the Employment of Children, &c. in Agriculture (1867–70), which I have laid before the Commission, shows a rise in Aberdeen from 12*s.* 8*d.* to 17*s.* 3*d.* In Fife from 14*s.* 11*d.* to 19*s.* 3*d.* In the Lothians from 15*s.* 4*d.* to 19*s.* 1*d.* In Berwick from 15*s.* 8*d.* to 18*s.* 6*d.* In Ayrshire from 14*s.* 8*d.* to 19*s.* 3*d.*, and in Stirling from 15*s.* 4*d.* to 22*s.* Taking these as typical counties, the increase of earnings would be at the rate of 30 per cent.

IV.—The Housing of the Labourer.

Farm cottages.

154. The system of housing the agricultural labourers in Scotland differs in some essential features from that which commonly prevails in England. The married labourers instead of being for the most part located in villages occupy farm cottages, the supply of a sufficient number of dwellings for the regular staff of the farm being considered as much a part of the proper equipment of a farm as the supply of stables, barns, or byres.

Farm kitchen and bothy systems.

155. But in many parts of the country a large proportion of the hired labourers are unmarried, and they require no house of their own; their accommodation is provided for in one of two ways, which are distinguished as the "farm kitchen" system and the "bothy" system. Under the "farm kitchen" plan the men servants are boarded and lodged in the farmhouse, or upon the farm premises; under the "bothy" system lodging is found for them in barracks on the farm, but they make their own arrangements as to meals. Formerly, the hired servants were inmates of the house and members of the household, but very frequently where the practice of boarding the men is still kept up, the men sleep in barracks on the farm, while they take their meals in the farmhouse.

In the Lothians, Berwick, and Roxburgh the farm cottage system appears to be the rule. The bothy system is extensively developed in Fife, Clackmannan, Kinross, Perth, Forfar, Kincardine, Moray, and Nairn; it is also found in Inverness, Ross, Sutherland, Caithness, and Orkney. The farm kitchen system prevails in Aberdeen and Banff, and in all the Midland and South-western Counties.

Supply of cottages.

156. With regard to cottages, it appears from the reports of the Assistant Commissioners that there are few counties where at present there is any great complaint as to the number of cottages available for labourers under the existing circumstances, but the continued survival of the bothy system in certain districts must be regarded as an indication of an insufficient number of houses in those districts, and in those counties where it prevails extensively, a deficiency of cottages is reported.

Progress made.

157. Generally it is stated that great improvements have been made in recent years both by building new cottages and improving existing ones. But the impression which is conveyed by the reports and the evidence which they contain is that very much remains to be accomplished to render the existing cottages fit habitations. With the decrease of population the worst class of houses is being abandoned, while, on the other hand, new cottages of a better class are being continually added. The county councils, who are the sanitary authorities and their medical officers of health, have in many counties been very active, and under their orders extensive repairs and improvements have been effected.

Accommodation.

158. In respect of accommodation the average cottage in Scotland is far inferior to that of England; but the building is generally more substantially constructed than in the latter country. The great defect noticed in almost every locality is the dampness of the cottages owing to the low level of the floors, the situation in contact with a bank of earth, and the absence of drainage. The number of rooms in rural cottages is very generally two, with, perhaps, the addition of a closet. The older houses have only one room divided by means of the furniture into two compartments. The Census Returns as to the number of families and inhabitants in different classes of accommodation for

1891, though they exhibit a considerable advance since 1881, show that more than one-half of the families and nearly one-half of the population of the rural districts of Scotland live in tenements with not more than two rooms, and fully 10 per cent. of them in tenements of one room, whereas in England little more than 6 per cent. of the population in similar districts have to put up with such limited accommodation as two rooms. Many of the modern houses are single storeyed, and where bedrooms upon an upper floor have been supplied they are not liked by the inhabitants, who prefer to make the kitchen the sleeping place. Upon some estates cottages equal to the better English type have been built, but the average of cottages in Scotland must be considered inferior, and the people seem to have even less appreciation of the necessity for separate sleeping apartments for persons of different sexes than those of the same class in England.

Census returns as to house accommodation.

159. In the matter of sanitary conveniences Scotland is also far behind England. In some districts privies are said to be "conspicuous by their absence," or, if present, by their non-use for the purpose for which they are intended. In one report from a medical officer of health, 73 out of 95 cottages are said to have no accommodation of the kind, while 11 only have a satisfactory provision.

Sanitary conveniences.

Pringle, B.I., App. C.

160. The bothies in which the unmarried men are quartered are described by Mr. Hunter Pringle in his report on Fife and the adjoining counties, and also by Dr. Nasmyth, Medical Officer of Health for Fife and Clackmannan, in most unfavourable terms, as "the most inferior of all houses," conspicuous in discomfort, filthy and disgusting in character, and demoralising to the young men who occupy such quarters; and Mr. Gillespie speaks in very similar terms of those which came under his observation.

Bothies.

Under this system from two to four men occupy a building of one or two rooms. The men cook for themselves. The rooms may be occasionally visited by a woman for cleansing purposes, but these visits are irregular and uncertain. The men and young lads are under no restraint, and they become accustomed and inured to discomfort and dirt.

161. Although the farm kitchen system is still common in many counties of Scotland it is for the most part in a modified form, the men sleeping in barracks which resemble bothies in character, except that no cooking has to be done there. The nature of the accommodation provided for these farm servants is described by Mr. Rutherfurd as being frequently above or alongside a stable, and the medical officer of health for Dumfries-shire states that they are "occasionally even over swine." The furniture is said to be generally scanty. Some of these places are spoken of as deplorably uncomfortable, others as fairly convenient and roomy.

Farm kitchen system.

Rutherfurd, A. 73.

162. The county councils have not confined their attention to cottages alone; they have caused in some counties at least an inspection of bothies and sleeping-places to be made, condemning those that were found to be unsatisfactory.

Action of county councils.

In Aberdeenshire they have appointed a committee to consider the best plan for a model sleeping-place in order that they may let proprietors know what the council are prepared to recommend and insist upon.

Gillespie, B. XII. 32.

163. Throughout the whole of Scotland, farm cottages, which comprise a very large proportion of those occupied by farm labourers, are let with the farms and are held by the occupants rent free. Mr. Hunter Pringle, in estimating the addition to wages represented by the provision of a house and garden rent free, puts the value of these at from 2*l.* to 6*l.* per annum, according to the age and condition of the house, but he says the largest proportion occupy houses of the class which he considers worth 4*l.* per annum.

Ownership and tenure of cottages.

The tenure of the farm cottages is for one year, the period for which the men are hired, and the condition upon which they are held is that of the servant working for the farmer who has hired his services.

V.—Gardens, Allotments, &c.

164. Cottages are universally provided with gardens which are, however, in most districts small, 200 square yards (6–7 perches) being a usual size; they do not appear to be generally well cultivated, or to be much desired. The common custom of allowing a hired labourer a certain quantity of potatoes, which is enough for the consumption of his family, makes him indifferent to the possession of a large garden, and his habit of changing his situation so frequently prevents his taking any interest in the surroundings of his home.

Gardens.

Allotments.

165. The same remarks apply to allotments which are, as far as the agricultural labourers are concerned, unknown and undesired. Potato grounds are provided in some districts, but as a rule a definite quantity of potatoes is provided as part of the wages agreed upon.

V*a*.—Cows and Cow-runs, &c.

Cows kept by labourers.

166. It appears that cows are much less kept by labourers than was the case formerly. In the pastoral districts the keep of one or two cows with their "followers" is a very usual form of payment. In the more agricultural districts the hinds and ordinary labourers seldom possess cows of their own, except in the counties of Berwick, Roxburgh, and the Lothians. Where they are found the farmer keeps the cow, summer and winter, for an agreed sum of 2*s*. or 3*s*. a week, or 8*l*. a year. The diminution in the number of cows kept in this way is regretted by many employers and others. By the labourers, it is said to be caused by their inability to provide the money for the purchase of the cow, but it is clear that this difficulty was overcome in past days when wages were lower than they are now. While some farmers object to keeping cows for their labourers, others are so convinced of their being an advantage to them and their families that they have advanced the money required for the purchase of the animal. In several counties where wages are not paid entirely in cash a daily allowance of new milk (two to three imperial pints) forms a part of the payment in kind.

Pigs.

Pigs are not largely kept by farm labourers, many employers having a feeling that labourers, being in close proximity to the farmyard, might be tempted to dishonesty if they were allowed to keep them.

VI.—Benefit Societies.

Benefit clubs not numerous.

167. The regular and continuous employment at fixed wages with the security that those wages will be paid during sickness makes the labourers in Scotland very generally indifferent to benefit societies such as those in England, which are mainly patronised by those who desire to provide against a total loss of income by sickness or disablement. In a few localities, however, membership of a benefit society is common, and in others men insure against accident or to provide for their funeral expenses, and in the extreme north a certain number are said to insure with the object of receiving a fund at the end of a fixed term of years.

Rutherfurd, B. I. 55.

VII.—Trade Unions, Strikes, &c.

Strikes unknown.

168. There is not in the Reports of the Agricultural Commission any record of a strike among agricultural labourers, except an unsuccessful attempt by women in Stirlingshire. The Scottish Ploughmen's Federal Union has a considerable number of members (said to be 6,000) widely distributed, and a few local organisations, like that of the Farm Servants' Union of Aberdeenshire, are spoken of in the Reports. The objects of the Federal Union are to obtain weekly payments and money wages, weekly half-holidays, and a suitable number of whole free days, a week's work of 56 hours, with 6*d*. an hour for overtime, the abolition of feeing (or hiring) markets; better housing and bothy accommodation. The union has also for its objects to provide a sick benefit and funeral society, and a superannuation fund for aged members.

Gillespie, B. VIII., App. 35.

VIII.—Relations between Employers and Employed.

Relations fairly good.

169. While the general effect of the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners is that the relations between the two classes, the employers and employed, are fairly good, there is evidence that, in some parts of the country, there is a want of good feeling and sympathy. The masters complain of the restless spirit which leads men to change their situations frequently, of the breach of agreements, and desertion of service. On the other hand, the men complain of long hours; they desire to have holidays and half-holidays secured to them; they would many of them prefer short and indefinite engagements to a yearly hiring. It does not appear that there was much complaint as to the amount of earnings (except with regard to women's wages), or the form of payment, the demand for money instead of kind payments, meeting with little support from the men themselves, and being apparently entirely pressed by outsiders; the farmers are said to be less averse to the change in this system than the men themselves. Mr. Pringle says the relations are most strained where the land is inferior, and the farmers

Pringle, A. 61.

are "small men," and that wherever bad bothies, bad cottages, and proximity to mining villages and manufacturing towns occurred, the relations were anything but cordial.

Proposed board of conciliation. Pringle, A. 72.

170. Mr. Hunter Pringle proposes a board of conciliation which should authoritatively decide questions submitted to it by persons, employers or employed, having a grievance in any matter not directly connected with the value of labour.

The subjects upon which the proposed board might adjudicate are not particularised. It would be difficult, perhaps, to find any in which the value of labour is not more or less involved, *e.g.*, hours of labour, half-holidays, &c. It may be that an arbitration between individual parties upon some disputed point might lead to more definite agreements as to the conditions of service, but it is not probable that a decision of such a board would be accepted as unconditionally binding upon others than the parties applying or concerned. If a large proportion of the labourers on one side, and of the farmers on the other side, were combined together in different trade associations, which could agree to submit matters in dispute to such a board with a binding engagement to accept its decision, it might be worth while to establish such a body, but a decision between two individuals would scarcely be accepted generally as a precedent to govern all similar cases.

IX.—General Condition of the Agricultural Labourer.

Improved condition.

171. The unanimous expression of opinion by all the Assistant Commissioners, an opinion which is confirmed by the evidence of a large majority of witnesses, is that the material condition of the labourers has immensely improved of late years. Wages have increased, the hours of work are shorter, the work is easier; the average condition of cottages has improved. Mr. Hunter Pringle states that in all his travels he never heard of any person willing to work who had failed to get it; and he adds "the "surroundings of the labourer's home are cheerful; that all traces of care and want "are gone, and the thoughts of the labourer are now directed to the improvement of "his position in other respects." Pringle, A. 75.

Mr. Rutherfurd is equally of opinion that in means and comfort the position of the agricultural labourer has greatly improved, and that his condition is good "even when "compared with that of working men with higher wages." Rutherfurd, A. 93.

England and Scotland compared.

172. Mr. Wilkinson, whose districts of inquiry in England lay chiefly where the earnings of the labourers are decidedly above the average of that country, compares the condition of the labourers there with that of those in the border counties of Berwick and Roxburgh, and the adjoining pastoral counties, Peebles and Selkirk, and he concludes that "the farm servant is at present better off in Scotland than in "England. Whether paid all in cash or partly in kind, or by way of allowances, his "wages are, as a rule, somewhat higher, and, being sure of them whether well or ill, "he is released from any great anxiety as to the future as well as from the necessity "of making provision for that future by subscribing to clubs to the diminution of his "income." Wilkinson, A. I. 10.

Moral condition improved.

173. It is said that as the labourer's material condition has improved there has been a corresponding progress in his moral condition, that he is more temperate, and that illegitimacy, though still a great stain upon the morality of the rural classes, has steadily and largely decreased, and, further, that very few of the paupers of Scotland are drawn from the ranks of the agricultural labourers. Rutherfurd, B. III., App. B.

Labourers less thrifty.

174. On the other hand there is some reason to believe that the present race of labourers is less thrifty and less inclined to save than its predecessors—that the opportunity of accumulating money which the unmarried farm servants undoubtedly enjoy is too much neglected, and that domestic economy is much less practised than formerly. At the same time the reports record many instances where considerable savings have been made by labourers, and notices of men who commencing as farm labourers have risen to be capitalist farmers or professional men.

Want of object for saving. Gillespie, B. VII. 24.

175. The absence of a strong inducement to save is put forward as one of the reasons why men do not oftener lay by money; and the general decay and disappearance of crofts in some districts, and the paucity of small holdings in others, are subjects of regret, because the encouragement which such holdings might give to thrift is wanting. Various opinions are expressed as to the possibility of crofters and small holders succeeding, but there is evidence to show that where the occupation of small holdings can be combined with other work they are advantageous, not only because they offer

Gillespie, B. VII. 40.

to the farm servant a palpable object for saving, but also because they form "a useful "reservoir and nursery of labour." The children of the crofters are said to be "trained to be the best class of farm servants."

Improvement of dwellings desirable.

Pringle, A. 83.

176. It would appear that, as is the case in England, the cottage accommodation is the principal matter in which something may be done to improve the condition of the agricultural labourer, and I agree with Mr. Pringle and others in suggesting that State loans should be made to landlords upon easy terms with the object of promoting the supply of better cottages. An increased supply of cottages would diminish the number of bothies, and thus effect a great improvement in those counties where the bothy system still exists. The administration of the various Acts relating to public health must result in great benefit to the occupants of inferior and insanitary dwellings. The policy of the Board of Supervision in refusing to sanction schemes by which medical officers of health for counties, or chief medical officers of districts, are permitted to engage in private practice, and the efforts which the Board, in conjunction with the various county councils, have made to establish a more efficient sanitary organisation, supply an example of what might be accomplished, and has already been suggested as desirable, in England.

Amendment of law of master and servant.

177. It seems desirable to make such an amendment of the law of master and servant as would enable either party to obtain, by a process of summary jurisdiction, damages sustained in consequence of a wilful breach of contract.

Section D.—IRELAND.

Number of wage earners in agriculture.

178. The number of wage earners in agriculture in Ireland, included in the Census Returns under the occupations of (1) agricultural labourers, cottagers; (2) shepherds; and (3) farm servants, probably falls far below the number of those who work for wages on farms in that country, not only because of the large numbers of those who are enumerated as "General Labourers," and who work on farms at some time or other, but also on account of the large number of persons included under the designation of farmers, and farmers' male relatives without a specified occupation. These farmers and farmers' sons, &c. are generally little, if at all, above the position of agricultural labourers, and many of them work for wages on the farms of others when they have an opportunity of doing so. The total number of the wage earners in agriculture was in 1891 280,086, while that of the general labourers was 118,980 persons. At the same time, farmers numbered 417,003 and farmers' sons, &c. were 212,731. The gross total of those included under the four occupations mentioned was 1,028,800, or nearly 22 per cent. of the whole population of Ireland.

Paramount importance of agriculture in Ireland.

179. The paramount importance of the agricultural industry in Ireland is shown by the fact that nearly one-fifth of the whole population is classed among agriculturists, while in England and Wales that class forms less than 4 per cent., and in Scotland less than 5 per cent., of the whole population. Of the whole number of adult males in Ireland 54 per cent. are agriculturists. Among the agriculturists, as a class, the wage earners are less important in respect of numbers than in England and Wales or Scotland, inasmuch as they are only about 30 per cent. of that class in Ireland, while they are more than 73 per cent. in England and Wales, and 62½ per cent. in Scotland.

Decrease in number of labourers.

180. It has been already pointed out that agricultural labourers have decreased more rapidly than the whole population of Ireland. This decrease was much more noticeable in the case of females than in that of males, the former having diminished at the rate of 38 per cent., and the males by about 14 per cent. between 1881 and 1891, so that whereas the female wage earners were in 1881 10·7 per cent., in 1891 they were only 7·9 per cent. of the whole number.

Periods of age.

181. The number of wage earners under the age of 15 years has sensibly diminished since 1881, and it is now less than 5 per cent., while all those whose age does not exceed 20 years form 26 per cent., and those between 20 and 65 years are about 66 per cent. of the whole number.

Distribution of labourers and agriculturists.

182. Taking the four provinces of Ireland separately the wage earners are most numerous in ratio to population in Munster, while agriculturists form the largest proportionate part of the whole population in Connaught, but wage earners in ratio to

agriculturists are most numerous in Leinster. The relative importance of the agriculturists and wage earners in the four provinces in 1891 is shown by the following table:—

—	Connaught.	Leinster.	Munster.	Ulster.	Ireland.
Agriculturists in ratio to population - -	26·57	15·57	19·36	19·09	19·42
Wage earners in ratio to population - -	5·02	6·27	7·11	5·29	5·95
Wage earners in ratio to agriculturists - -	18·91	40·30	36·73	27·74	30·65

But within the provinces, taking the counties separately, there is a wide variation, as is shown by a memorandum on the Irish Census Returns, which I have prepared for the Commission.

Districts of inquiry.

183. It has already been stated that the inquiry in Ireland was carried out in 30 different districts. By the courtesy of the Local Government Board (Ireland), a series of short minutes by the different Local Government inspectors, as to the characteristics of the different poor law unions in the country, was furnished to the Commission, and these proved of great assistance in determining the selection of fitting districts for inquiry. In these minutes the population of the several unions was broadly classed as "agricultural," "mixed industrial," and "migratory."

The districts which were selected extend into every county in Ireland. Owing to the overlapping of union and county boundaries, several counties are represented by more than one district of inquiry. Five of the districts are situate wholly or partly in Connaught, ten in Leinster, eight in Munster, and nine in Ulster. According to the classification adopted in the minutes of the Local Government Board formerly mentioned, nineteen of the districts have a population which is mainly "agricultural," ten have a "mixed industrial," and one a "migratory" population. The thirty districts include one-fifth of the whole area, and nearly one-eighth of the population and the agriculturists of the whole country.

Characteristics of districts.

184. These selected districts exhibit great variety in respect of density of population, distribution of the population upon agricultural holdings, size and value of holdings, agriculture, and live stock. In every district there was between 1881 and 1891 a decrease in the population varying from 17½ per cent. in Castleblayney (Monaghan and Armagh) to 7⅓ per cent. in Naas (Kildare and Wicklow). The two districts just named as exhibiting the maximum and minimum decrease in population, happen also to be those which have respectively the greatest and the least proportionate part of their population engaged in agriculture. In Castleblayney 76 per cent., and in Naas only 38 per cent., of the whole population are agriculturists. But it would not be safe to infer from these two examples that the decrease in population has generally been greatest where the agriculturists are most numerous.

Characteristics of Irish agriculture.

185. The character of Irish agriculture differs in some important respects from that of England and Scotland. The holdings are generally much smaller in extent and in value, and the crops which require most labour occupy a much smaller portion of the total area and also of the cultivated area. Thus more than two-thirds of the agricultural holdings do not exceed 15*l.* in annual value, and nearly one-third of the total area is in holdings of less than that value. The area of crops of all kinds including hay is less than one-fourth, whereas in England it is about 45 per cent., of the whole area. In Ireland only about 18 per cent. of the cultivated area is in Corn or Green crops or Flax, while in England more than 35 per cent. of that area is under those crops. These facts have a very important bearing upon the employment of the agricultural labourer. Small farmers can rarely find continuous employment for hired labourers. If they require more labour than their family can supply it is only during a busy season such as hay or harvest, and at other periods of the year they frequently become competitors with the labourers for employment.

Size of holdings as affecting employment.

186. In some of the districts of inquiry the statistics as to holdings of different classes show a remarkable prevalence of small holdings. Thus, in Westport and Castlerea, more than 90 per cent. in number of the agricultural holdings do not exceed 15*l.* in annual value, and in nine districts of inquiry three-fourths of the whole number of holdings are in the same category. In Kenmare nearly 70 per cent. of the total area is in holdings of the same class, and in six other districts, more than one-half of the land is in holdings of this description. Again, in respect of cultivation, in Westport

less than one-tenth of the cultivated area is in corn or roots; in Castlerea these crops are only 15 per cent., and in Kenmare they are little more than 6 per cent. of that area. It is true that these are extreme instances; but there are not a few districts where the circumstances are somewhat similar, and even in some of those districts which represent the other extreme of comparatively large holdings, the prospects of the continuous employment of labourers are not encouraging, Thus, in Kilmallock (Cork), where little more than one-third of the holdings and only 7 per cent. of the area are in the class not exceeding 15*l.* annual value, while nearly 40 per cent. in number and about the same proportion of the area are in holdings of 100*l.* value and upwards, the corn and green crops are only 6½ per cent. of the cultivated area.

Circumstances do not favour continuous employment.

187. The dependence of so large a part of the population upon agriculture, the nature of the holdings and the character of the farming largely influence the condition of the labourer. Very generally throughout the country the circumstances are not such as to require the continuous or constant employment of labourers.

No general classification of labourers.

188. Except in the north-eastern counties and a few districts in other parts of the country where large farms are to be found, the agricultural labourers have not, as a rule, definite occupation, Carters and Stockmen are not distinguished from others, and "the care of the horses and animals falls to the lot of the ordinary labourers." The labourers may be divided into (i) ordinary labourers, (ii) indoor farm servants, and (iii) herds or shepherds; and in the Census Returns they are enumerated under those heads, about 56 per cent. of the wage earners being classed as "Agricultural labourers or cottagers," about 42 per cent. as "Farm servants," and 2 per cent. as "Shepherds." Nearly 11 per cent. of the indoor farm servants and nearly 6 per cent. of the agricultural labourers (of the Census Returns) are females.

I.—Supply of Labour.

Present supply.

189. It appears that in 15 out of 30 of the districts of inquiry there is, at some period of the year, more or less prolonged, an insufficient supply of labourers, but that in most of these districts there are, at times, too many labourers for the work to be done. In only one district, Downpatrick, is there an alleged general and decided scarcity. In two districts, Bailieboro' and Westport, the supply of labourers is said to be in excess of the demand. In nine districts, supply and demand appear to be balanced, but in some cases the balance is obtained by there being almost no labourers and almost no employers, as for instance in Kenmare, where the labourers are said to be few in number, and in places almost extinct, employment is casual and intermittent, the farms are too small, and the farmers too poor to employ hired labour. In other districts, as in Balrothery, the supply and demand are about upon a par, and employment is regular and continuous. As an instance of an excess of labourers, relatively to the work to be done, the district of Bailieboro' may be noticed; there the demand is said to be of a fitful and precarious character, a few weeks potato planting and a few more weeks during harvest give employment, but those who are not hired farm servants cannot rely upon more than four months' work on the farm in the course of the year, notwithstanding the fact that the decrease in the population of this union has been at the rate of 15¾ per cent. since 1881, and of 24 per cent. since 1871. In Downpatrick, where a balance between supply and demand has been established, the decrease has been not much less than in Bailieboro', as it was 12 per cent. between 1881 and 1891, and 21 per cent. between 1871 and 1891.

O'Brien, B. I. 33, 38.

Richards, B. III. 8, 12.

Richards, B.IV. 12, 13.

Decreased demand.

190. Concurrently with a general decrease of population throughout the country there has been a decreased demand for labourers.

Immigration.

191. In eight districts there is some immigration of workers at busy seasons of the year, the most notable instance being Kilmallock (Cork) to which district a number of young men and women go regularly from the adjoining county of Kerry. These immigrants, 300 and probably more, are hired by the dairy farmers as indoor servants for about nine months in the year (March to December), after the expiration of which period they return to their homes. Into Letterkenny and Limavady there is a constant stream of male and female farm servants from West Donegal, and a few other instances of an influx of workers from the mountainous and uncultivated districts into cultivated parts in harvest time and at other busy periods are mentioned in the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners.

Migration.

192. From nine districts migration to England and Scotland for a portion of the year regularly takes place. The most conspicuous example of this migratory population

among the districts of inquiry is Westport, from which it is said that 32·7 per 1,000 of the population migrate regularly in search of work. This proportion is, however, far exceeded in another union in the same county (Swineford) where 80·6 per 1,000 of the population are regular migrants.

Emigration.

193. Emigration of the younger and more active people has been very considerable in the past from a large majority of the districts and still continues from at least one-half of them, and it does not appear to be less noticeable in the districts where the conditions affecting the labourer's life are more favourable than in those where they are worst.

Alleged inefficiency of labourers.

194. There is a very general complaint of the inefficiency of the labourers and of their inferiority as compared with those of past days, and they are said to be less hard working. The alleged inferiority is attributed to the emigration of the more able and intelligent of the class—the decrease of tillage gives less opportunity for skilled workers, and the increase of education creates an indisposition and dislike to farm work—while a deterioration in physical power is by some persons ascribed to modern diet, white bread and tea having very generally replaced oatmeal stirabout, and milk.

Fox, A. 31.

II.—Conditions of Engagement.

For farm servants and shepherds continuous, for others casual.

195. It has been already stated that about 42 per cent. of the wage earners are farm servants, and a little more than 2 per cent. shepherds. For both these classes work is regular and continuous. With regard to the agricultural labourers it seems that in 10 districts work is fairly constant. In eight other districts the employment is described as in part regular and continuous and in part casual and intermittent. In 12 districts work is said to be intermittent and in some cases of a most casual character. Labourers assert in some districts that they are idle from one quarter to one half of the year. Of the 12 districts where employment is least regular, five are on the seaboard of the Atlantic, one is in Ulster, and three are in Leinster.

O'Brien, B. XI. 24.

From any general statements as to irregularity of employment labourers on home or demesne farms must be omitted. It is stated distinctly that on large farms, and in those districts where the greatest amount of tillage is to be found, the employment is most regular. On the other hand, the small farmers, who depend to a considerable extent upon wages earned on the land of others, are less likely to be regularly engaged than ordinary labourers.

Hiring periods.

196. Farm servants, herds, and shepherds are hired by the quarter, half year, or year. For ordinary labourers the engagement is generally by the week or day—subject to some exceptions in respect of large farms and home farms, and also of a few districts in Ulster where cottagers are engaged for the year or half year. In the case of immigrants who go annually from Kerry to Kilmallock, and, perhaps, other districts in Cork, they are usually hired into the farmhouses for nine months of the year, and they return to their homes as winter quarters.

Hours of work.

197. The normal hours of attendance by labourers in Ireland are from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. in summer and from 8 a.m. to dark in winter, though instances are reported where men begin work at 6 a.m and leave off at 7 p.m., having had an interval of only one hour for meals. From the usual hours of attendance a deduction of 1½ to 2 hours may be made for meals, leaving the average working time from 10 to 10½ hours in the summer and about 8 hours in winter. In about one-third of the whole number of districts the working hours are reported as averaging 10 hours, in another third as 10¼ hours, and in the remainder as 10½ hours, with one exception, Bailieboro' where the hours are said to be from 11 to 11½. Horsemen and cattlemen, where these are distinct classes, have longer working hours, particularly in winter. Farm servants, herds, or shepherds have no fixed hours of labour. The irregularity of employment and the general absence of organisation seem in some districts to lead to unpunctuality, men who are supposed to begin the working day at 6 a.m. arriving at 7 or even as late as 8 o'clock.

Fox, A. 38.

Sunday work.

198. Men in charge of horses and cattle have Sunday work, feeding and watering the stock. This duty generally falls to the hired indoor servants. In a few districts the proportionate number of men having Sunday work is said to be considerable. The work is heaviest in dairy districts, and next where roots are largely grown and consumed by cattle; where the animals are fed on hay in winter there is the least to be done. In Balrothery the proportionate number of Sunday workers is said to range from one-half of the labourers on some farms to one-tenth on others.

Women.

199. Women very generally are indisposed to work in the fields except on their own holdings. A limited number take part in hay and harvest, and in the flax-growing districts they are in demand. In some dairy districts females form a large proportion of the indoor servants. In Kilmallock, according to the Census Returns for 1891, females are more than 27 per cent. of the farm servants, 5½ per cent. of the agricultural labourers, and 13 per cent. of the wage earners.

In Castleblayney, which is a flax-growing district, females are 15½ per cent. of the outdoor labourers, nearly 12 per cent. of the indoor servants, and 13·7 per cent. of all wage earners in agriculture; the average proportions for Ireland being 7·87 per cent. of the wage earners, 5·88 per cent. of labourers, and 10·83 per cent. of indoor servants.

III.—Wages and Earnings.

Weekly or daily wages.

200. It is very difficult to fix upon any definite sum as the current rate of weekly wages in a large number of the districts of inquiry in Ireland. Many of the labourers are very irregularly employed; they are engaged by the day in many districts, and paid partly by food which varies from one meal a day to complete board; partly by perquisites, including the grazing of cows and sheep; and there is in some cases a very wide difference between winter and summer wages. Variations of a similar character occur in different districts of England and Scotland, but in those countries the number of labourers receiving a weekly wage is usually sufficient to afford a definite basis of estimation; and in those parts of the country where allowances are made they are of a more uniform character, and are, therefore, more capable of appraisement than is the case in Ireland. It seems necessary, under the circumstances thus stated, to give some examples of different rates and forms of payment prevailing in certain districts. Mr. O'Brien reports generally as follows of the eleven districts which he visited, and which all lie in the south of Ireland, five of them being in Leinster, and six in Munster, that—

O'Brien, A. 14.

"The usual rates, where diet is not supplied by the employers . . . . range from "8*s.* to 12*s.* a week, but 9*s.* and 10*s.* constitute by far the most common scale in "the case of the ordinary labourer . . . Where the labourer is dieted, . . . the "usual practice amongst the smaller class of farmers, the scale is from 4*s.* to 7*s.* a "week, with either two or three meals, but 5*s.* and 6*s.*, with two meals, appears to "be the arrangement most commonly followed."

It appears from Mr. O'Brien's district reports that a weekly rate of 12*s.* is occasionally reached in Carlow, Ennistimon, Kanturk, Kenmare, Kilmallock, and Lismore.

Mr. McCrea, who pursued inquiries in eleven districts, one of which is in Leinster, eight are in Ulster, one in Connaught, and one partly in Connaught and partly in Leinster, gives rates of wages, without food or perquisites, ranging from a minimum of 6*s.* to 8*s.* in Dromore West (Connaught) to a maximum of 10*s.* to 12*s.* in Downpatrick (Ulster). Where a cottage and garden are provided, the rates range from a minimum 7*s.* or 8*s.* in Ardee, to a maximum of 9*s.* or 10*s.* in Ballymena and Limavady; where board is given the rates of money wages range from 5*s.* to 8*s.* a week.

Mr. Wilson Fox, reporting on four districts, two of which are in Connaught, one in Leinster, and one in Munster, gives rates ranging from 7*s.* to 8*s.* in winter, and 9*s.* to 10*s.* in summer, in Delvin (Leinster), to 9*s.* or 10*s.* all the year round in Castlerea (Connaught).

Richards, B. I. 17. B. II. 16. B. III. 16. B. IV. 22.

Mr. Richards, whose four districts extended into as many provinces, one being wholly in Leinster, another in Connaught, a third in Ulster, and one partly in Leinster and partly in Munster, gives 1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a day (equal to 7*s.* 6*d.* or 9*s.* a week) in Loughrea (Connaught), and 10*s.* to 12*s.* in Balrothery as the two extremes. Where food is provided, 5*s.* to 8*s.* a week are given.

The rates of wages given above do not include those paid in harvest or exceptionally busy periods. In some cases, at such periods from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* a day, with food in addition, is given. In Ardee as much as 30*s.* a week is sometimes given in harvest time.

In some of the districts where a comparatively high rate of wages is reported as occasionally reached, the number of agricultural labourers as distinguished from indoor servants is so small that the average wages cannot be appreciably affected by a high rate. Thus in Kenmare labourers in some cases get 12*s.* a week—but the whole number of them is equal to only 7½ per cent. of the agriculturists and to 41 per cent. of the wage earners. On the other hand, however, in Dromore, which is the district of lowest wages, only 6 per cent. of the agriculturists, and less than 40 per

cent. of the wage earners are agricultural labourers, the indoor farm servants being in excess of the outdoor labourers. Where the agricultural labourers are most numerous, either in proportion to the agriculturists, or to the wage earners in agriculture, the rates of wages are as a rule somewhat higher than they are where the labourers are fewest in number. Taking all these circumstances into consideration, it may be estimated that the wages of ordinary agricultural labourers who have continuous work do not, on the average throughout the country, exceed 9*s.* 9*d.* a week, while the mean rates of such weekly wages in districts range from 7*s.* to 11*s.*

Ordinary labourers have few opportunities of adding to wages.

201. Very few opportunities are offered to the ordinary labourers for increasing their earnings by piece-work, as not much work is done by contract, except in hay and harvest, and in those cases it is chiefly done by casual men. In a few districts a cash bonus of 20*s.* or 30*s.* is given to the regular labourers for their extra work in harvest.

Farm servants.

202. Indoor farm servants who form more than 40 per cent. of the wage earners in agriculture in Ireland and more than 50 per cent. of that class in Connaught, are probably somewhat better paid than the ordinary day labourers. They have board and lodging, and wages ranging from 8*l.* to 24*l.* a year, the two extremes being exceptional, the lower rate probably including some of those who are not fully competent men, and the higher rate being paid to specially skilled ploughmen. The higher rates of wages are paid in Ulster and the county of Louth (Ballymena, Ardee, Downpatrick, Cookstown, Letterkennny, Clones), the range in these unions being from 12*l.* to 20*l.*, with a mean of about 17*l.* The lowest rate given is in Mountmellick, where it is said to be from 7*l.* to 10*l.* Other districts of low rates are Westport, Kanturk, and Kenmare, where the range is from 8*l.* to 12*l.*

Ploughmen and stockmen.

203. Ploughmen and stockmen, where they are a distinct class of outdoor labourers, get continuous employment, and from 1*s.* to 2*s.* a week more wages than other men where they have no perquisites, but very generally they have some allowances; frequently, however, they are indoor servants, and it is men of this character who receive the comparatively high rate of wages previously spoken of as prevailing in the north-east part of Ireland.

Perquisites and allowances.

Fox, A. 47.

204. One or more of the following perquisites and allowances are often enjoyed by ordinary labourers as well as ploughmen, viz.:—turf, coal, milk, food, potato ground, tillage and meadow land, and the grazings of cows and sheep at a cheap rate. These allowances are more liberal on demesnes or large farms.

Shepherds and herds.

205. Shepherds and Herds are in some counties a distinct class of labourers, and their payment in the pastoral districts is often entirely made in the form of free grazings, the herd being a stock owner, and frequently a cattle dealer, who undertakes the entire supervision and care of the stock, and provides, either by the employment of members of his own family, or by hiring, such additional labour as may be necessary.

The class is mentioned in the reports upon 16 of the districts, but in only 7 of these 16 do the wages seem to differ from those of stockmen.

McCrea, B. II. 20.

In Ballyshannon Mr. McCrea reports that they get a free house, one Irish acre (=1·62 Imperial acre) potato ground, and the grazing of two or three cows and their calves and pigs.

In three of the districts visited by Mr. Wilson Fox, and one of those visited by Mr. Richards, the system previously alluded to prevails, and the herds are generally a distinct class, and they have been able, by combination, to secure to themselves the high scale of remuneration demanded in 1881 by the League of Associated Herds in Roscommon, and ultimately conceded by the masters. Under this scale herds in charge of less than 100 acres receive a house, 2 acres of land, and the keep of 3 cows; those in charge of 100 to 150 acres receive 3 acres of land and 3 cows, and those who have the care of more than 150 acres receive 4 acres of land and 4 cows.

Fox, B. II. 55.

Richards, B. I. 20.

A somewhat similar though more elaborate system is reported to be in operation in Loughrea (Galway), where the herd is allowed so many acres of potato ground and so many "collops" or "freedoms" of grazing in respect of a certain area of ground which he has the care of—a "collop" is a stinted quantity of stock, the grazing of which is of approximately equal value, as for instance a cow and calf; or a mare and foal (up to November); or three yearling stirks; or four ewes and their lambs for each collop. A herd having charge of 400 acres of grazing now gets seven acres of arable land and eight collops, so that a man in such a position may possess a large head of stock of considerable variety.

Fox, B. II. Mr. Wilson Fox gives several examples of different combinations of "cash" and "kind" payments which came under his notice. The difficulty of estimating the value of the herd's various emoluments is almost insurmountable, although the gross receipts may be arrived at. These receipts are partly farmers' profits and interest upon capital, and they are subject to deductions for hired labour, or the value of the assistance rendered by the members of the herd's family; but there seems reason to believe that this class is a prosperous one occupying a position of much greater comfort and independence than that enjoyed by any other labourers.

Estimated annual earnings of different classes.

206. The total annual earnings of the different classes of labourers are estimated by the Assistant Commissioners at various sums ranging in the case of the ordinary labourers from 17*l.* 10*s.* to 40*l.* a year.

O'Brien, A. 19.

Mr. O'Brien estimates the earnings of those constantly employed at from 23*l.* 8*s.* to 26*l.*, but for those whose employment, though continuous, is subject to deduction for broken weather, church holidays, &c., the working days are estimated to be reduced to 265 days in the year, and the annual earnings calculated on this basis would be from 19*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* to 22*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*

Mr. McCrea estimates the earnings of first class men in Downpatrick and Limavady at from 30*l.* to 35*l.*, and at the other extreme he puts Ballyshannon and Dromore, where the earnings of the ordinary labourer would be 20*l.* or less. The districts from which the lowest minimum rates are reported are Dromore, 17*l.* 10*s.*; Ballyshannon, 18*l.* 10*s.*; and Loughrea, 18*l.* 10*s.*, and in no others is a minimum of less than 20*l.* given as an estimate. The districts in which the highest maximum rates of earnings are given are Balrothery and Roscrea with 40*l.* as an outside limit, and Naas comes next with 39*l.* Taking in each district the mean between the maximum and minimum the highest rates are found in Balrothery and Roscrea where they amount to 33*l.*, and next in the list is Downpatrick where it is 32*l.* 10*s.* The three districts having the lowest mean rate are those mentioned previously as having lowest minimum rates, Dromore with a mean rate of 20*l.* 8*s.*, Ballyshannon with 20*l.* 10*s.*, and Loughrea with 20*l.* 19*s.* The average of the mean rates of estimated annual earnings of ordinary labourers is a fraction above 26*l.*, or at the rate of 10*s.* a week.

Where the labourers are boarded and even where they receive only one or two meals a day their position is probably better than where they receive payment entirely in cash. The usual deduction from wages made where food is provided is 3*s.* a week, but in some cases there is a difference of only 1*s.* 6*d.* or 2*s.* between wages with, and wages without, food.

Earnings of farm servants.

207. Servants who are boarded, and they form a large per-centage of the total number employed, are still better off than the ordinary labourers who get more or less food, as their board and lodging cannot be estimated at less than 6*s.* a week or 15*l.* 12*s.* a year, which, with an average money wage of about 13*l.* (or a total of 28*l.* 12*s.* a year) with a certainty of continued support, compares favourably with 26*l.*, when it is borne in mind that in the class are reckoned many who are not fully competent men.

Fox, B. I. 59. B. II. 57. B. III. App. A. 3. B. IV. 76.

The diet provided by the farmer varies with the position of the employer, in some cases meat (either beef, mutton, or bacon), or fish, is given every day for dinner; in others it is seldom seen, and bread, butter, potatoes, and milk are the principal articles of consumption, but whatever the food may be it is the same as that of the farmer's family.

Earnings of women.

208. Where women do engage in field work there is less disparity between their rate of pay and that of men than is generally the case in England and Scotland. In Wexford they are paid 8*d.* to 1*s.* a day, in Westport 9*d.*, and in Cookstown 10*d.* is given as the usual wage, but these are the only districts where the rate appears to be less than 1*s.* a day, and the rate is increased to 1*s.* 6*d.*, 2*s.*, and 2*s.* 6*d.* at harvest time or at flax pulling.

Comparison of present earnings with those of former periods.

209. A comparison of the present wages and earnings of the various classes of labourers at the present time with those of former periods is extremely difficult, since such records as are accessible deal with all classes of labourers on the same footing.

Reports of poor law inspectors 1870.

210. I have laid before the Commission a memorandum upon a series of reports made by inspectors under the Poor Law Commission (Ireland) as to the wages of agricultural labourers in 1870. These reports, however, deal in most cases with large areas, they affect all classes of agricultural labourers, and they present average results; they are not therefore easily comparable with the results of a survey of particular districts. Two of the inspectors who reported in 1870 tabulated the results of their inquiries

under the names of the several unions forming their districts, and a third gave the names of unions in his district having the maximum and minimum rates of wages. These reports give a basis for comparison of the wages of 1870 and 1892 in nine poor law unions, which have been selected as districts of inquiry by this Commission. Five of these districts are in Ulster, and four of them in Leinster. The weekly wages in these nine districts averaged 8*s.* 8*d.* in 1870, and in 1892 the average of the mean rates was 9*s.* 6*d.* In the earlier period they included, apparently, all classes of agricultural labourers. In 1892 the wages given refer exclusively to ordinary labourers. In the case of indoor servants, the rise since 1870, as shown in four districts which can be compared, has been such that a minimum wage of 14*l.* has taken the place of one of 8*l.*, and a maximum of 21*l.* in 1892 has to be compared with one of 16*l.* in 1870. The mean of 1892 in those four districts is 17*l.* 10*s.*, while in 1870 it was only 12*l.* It must be admitted that results of this comparison are not very conclusive, since it leaves entirely out of account the conditions as to regularity or continuity of employment.

Richmond and Bessborough Commissions, 1879–1882.

211. The evidence collected by the Richmond and Bessborough Commissions between 1879 and 1882 contains some scattered notices of wages in different parts of Ireland, but no sufficient information to support a comparison of wages at that date and those of the present time. Professor Baldwin, an Assistant Commissioner under the Richmond Commission, stated that the average wages of an agricultural labourer would not at that time be more than 7*s.* a week, while the total earnings in thousands of cases would not be more than 10*l.* a year.

Memorandum by Mr. Little on proceedings of Richmond Commission.

Cowper Commission, 1886.

212. In 1886 Dr. Grimshaw, Registrar General (Ireland), prepared for the Cowper Commission statistics of the rates of pay then current in certain unions. These statistics give a not very wide range of wages without any definite information as to the class of labourers to whom they were paid. It ought to be stated that Dr. Grimshaw did not in his evidence attach any great value to the statistics which he had collected. Estimates of the daily rate of pay are given in the table referred to as to 12 unions which have been the subject of inquiry under this Commission. These districts are widely distributed, five being in Leinster, two in Munster, three in Ulster, and two in Connaught. The average of the mean rates of daily pay in those 12 unions in 1886 was 1*s.* 6*d.* a day, or 9*s.* a week, if six days' work were obtained. The average of the mean rates of weekly wages for 1892 in the same unions was 9*s.* 6½*d.*

Rise of wages.

213. The evidence to be derived from the statistics of former periods, though not conclusive as to the amount of increase, does corroborate the statement that wages have risen; the amount by which earnings have increased must depend upon the comparative frequency or constancy of employment at different periods. There is a great probability that statements as to rates of daily wages may exaggerate the average weekly pay, and in support of this conclusion it may be stated that the annual "Agricultural Statistics" for Ireland contain a table showing the daily rates of wages in a large number of unions in that country. In this table the rates given are a maximum and minimum rate for winter and summer respectively. The table includes 24 out of the 30 unions of inquiry. If the average of the mean rate of summer *minima* and winter *maxima* be taken for those 24 unions it will exceed the average of the mean rates deduced from the reports of the Assistant Commissioners in 1892. The average of the mean rates in these 24 districts deduced from the reports is 9*s.* 5*d.* The minimum summer rates of the table referred to average 10*s.* 9½*d.*; the average of the maximum winter rates is 10*s.*; and the mean of these two rates is 10*s.* 4⅝*d.* per week.

It may be assumed that any estimate of the earnings of Irish labourers, which is based upon the current rate of a day's pay, will considerably exaggerate his average weekly earnings.

Competing and supplementary industries.

214. The industries which compete with agriculture for labour are not numerous in Ireland. Coal mines in Kilkenny and Carlow, and linen factories in the north-east of the island are the chief among them. But there are very generally supplementary industries which find employment for some of the labourers during part of the year. In all the districts which are on the sea-board fishing is pursued, and in many cases by those who during part of the year work as farmers or labourers. In these districts the collection of seaweed for sale as manure or for kelp manufacture also employs a number of men. Turf cutting either for sale or for their own use by the labourers is very general. Flax scutching and weeding in the north-east, quarrying, stone-cutting, lime-burning are also spoken of as finding employment in several districts for those

Labourers (Ireland) Act, 1886, 49 & 50 Vict. c. 59.

who are qualified to participate in the advantage of the Labourers Acts under the definition of an agricultural labourer adopted in the amended Act of 1886, and including hand-loom weavers and fishermen doing agricultural work for hire at any season of the year.

Want of employment and consequent migration.

Fox, A. 14.

215. For the want of sufficient employment at home a very large number of labourers both male and female annually migrate from the western counties to England and Scotland. Mr. Wilson Fox gives figures compiled from parliamentary returns showing that "about six-sevenths of the whole number of migratory labourers go from "Connaught, and of these almost two-thirds from the county of Mayo." Among the districts of inquiry are Castlereagh from which about 40 per thousand, and Westport, from which 32 per thousand annually migrate. About one-third of the migrants are landholders, some of them occupying as much as 25 acres; they begin to go in March and many of them do not return before November or as late as Christmas. Only about $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. find work in other parts of Ireland, the remainder go to England or Scotland. Those from Castlereagh go chiefly to Cheshire, Warwickshire, and Lancashire, while those from Westport find their way to the same counties and also to Yorkshire, Northumberland, and Scotland.

Women go in considerable numbers from Westport to Glasgow, and thence to those districts of Scotland where potatoes are largely grown. Many of these women are collected and exported by contractors, or "gaffers" as they are called, who engage with merchants in Scotland to provide hands. The majority of these young women go in May and June and return in the autumn.

The number of migratory labourers is greatly decreasing, and is now confined to a restricted area instead of being spread over the whole country as it once was, because there is now less demand for their services in Great Britain.

Earnings of migratory labourers.

216. Mr. Wilson Fox was able to trace some of these migrant labourers to the scene of their work and to obtain particulars as to their actual earnings. The men are said to clear from 9*l.* to 15*l.* during a five or six months' visit, or as much as 20*l.* if they stay nine months; and the girls in some instances save as much as 9*l.* or 10*l.* in five months. The migratory labourers of the west of Ireland are the subject of a most interesting section of Mr. Fox's final Report.

Another casual source of income to the small farmer labourers of the west is that of remittances from children and other relatives abroad. These are in the aggregate

Fox, A. 18.

very large in amount. Mr. Fox gives an instance of a fisherman farmer who had received from two of his girls aged 13 and 11 years as much as 7*l.*, and other instances where the only cash transactions between a small farmer and the general storekeeper are the result of remittances from abroad.

IV.—Cottage Accommodation.

217. Mr. O'Brien commences the section of his final Report which deals with cottage accommodation, with the following sentence:—

General low level.

O'Brien, A. 21.

"It will probably, I think, be accepted as a fairly well-established position that in "few, if any, of the countries with the affairs of which we are conversant, has the "condition of the class of agricultural labourers, in regard to house accommodation, "ever been known to sink to a lower level of general wretchedness than that very "largely reached in Ireland in this respect, in even comparatively modern times.

Great improvement.

"On the other hand, and as some counterpoise to this, perhaps it may be now added "with not less justice, that nowhere has the same progress been recently made in the "effort to grapple practically with and reduce the dimensions of the evil that has been "experienced, in at least the two provinces with which alone it has been my duty to "deal, under the healthy impulse of the remedial legislation of the last 10 years on "the subject."

Many bad cottages still existing.

218. Notwithstanding the progress which is thus recognised, there is abundant evidence of the present existence of a large number of dwellings which are unfit for human habitation.

O'Brien, B. III. 41.

In his district Reports, Mr. O'Brien describes some of the dwellings which came under his notice. In the union of Naas the relieving officer of one district deposes as follows:—

"The houses in Kilmeague, north and south, and Rathernan electoral divisions are "the worst I ever saw. . . . . Often I had to creep on hands and knees into them to "give outdoor relief when their wives would be sick; they are built of bog sod and "thatched; in some cases sodded on top instead of thatched."

Mr. O'Brien adds:—

"The houses thus described appear to have been built by the occupiers themselves, "who are bog labourers."

He then gives typical illustrations of these houses. No. 1 has one apartment, 10′ × 8′, with three adult persons and one child as inmates. No. 2 has one room, 12′ × 10′, in which reside father, mother, and six children. No. 3 has two rooms, 10′ × 8′, with father, mother, and five children.

In the town of Kilcullen, in the same union, Mr. O'Brien visited some cottages which he describes: In one of these, containing only one room, bad and smoky, and 14′ × 9′, lived a man, his wife, and eight children.

McCrea, A. 12. Northern districts, number sufficient; quality bad.

219. Mr. McCrea reports that in the districts which he visited, cottages are "sufficient "in number, and a good many are unoccupied, but a large proportion of them are "deficient in space, in the number of apartments, and in sanitary arrangements." He states that improvement has taken place in some districts and on some estates.

Inaction of rural sanitary authorities.

220. Mr. McCrea calls attention to the very little use which has been made in the districts of inquiry visited by him of the powers conferred upon rural sanitary authorities by the Labourers' Act, with reference to the building of cottages for agricultural labourers. The inaction of the authorities is not attributable to the satisfactory condition of the cottages, for they are described as bad. In Ballymahon, where 124 cottages have been already built, Mr. McCrea says, "the accommodation of "the majority is still poor, and that of many simply vile." He describes a row of huts built by squatters in that union, most of which contain only one apartment, some have no window, and several have about 100 square feet or less of floor space.

McCrea, A. 13.

Houses of small holders in Westport.

Fox, A. 73.

221. Mr. Wilson Fox describes the houses of the small holders in Westport. In that district "there are no labourers' cottages in the ordinary sense of the word, as the "agricultural labourers are either small holders or their sons." He says that the condition is "frequently deplorable," and he sees "little chance for improvement so long "as the present system of the tenants building their own houses continues."

Typical cottage.

Fox, B. I. 49.

Mr. Fox gives a detailed description of the typical cottage of that district, which has one principal room, generally about 15′ × 12′, and a bedroom sometimes of the same size but generally smaller. The roof is open to the beams and the floors are sometimes stones or concrete, but as often as not bare ground. In the living room a niche contains a bed near the fire, and at the opposite end of the room the live stock of the farm are accommodated—two cows and as many calves, with the addition occasionally of a horse, a pig or two, and some hens share the living room of the family. "Such a thing as a "closet is unknown, and there is no drainage whatever." In front of the door the manure heap is frequently placed.

Houses in small towns.

Fox, A. 74.

222. Mr. Fox found, however, that "ill-constructed, badly repaired, and comfortless "as were many of the cottages in the Westport Union, they cannot be compared in "wretchedness . . . . with some of the miserable hovels inhabited by labourers "in the comparatively small country towns of Castlereagh and Skibbereen." And he describes some of these cottages and their overcrowded state.

English and Irish cottages compared.

Richards, A. 16.

B. I. 23.

223. Mr. Richards, comparing agricultural labourers' cottages in Ireland with those in England, says: "Monmouth was by far the worst of the English unions visited, and "in describing what I had seen there, I felt it my duty to draw attention to the "lamentable condition of the cottages and the absolutely joyless condition of the "agricultural labourers. Were it possible to translate the Loughrea labourers into "the Monmouth cottages, bad as they are, they ought to be happy. I have, of course, "regarded these cottages from our English standpoint and made comparisons in my "own mind with English models."

The cottages are described as built of mud or stone, splashed with mud or mortar, with a roof of thatch, the living room varying in size from 10′×10′ to 20′×15′, the sleeping room a narrow strip 6 or 7 feet wide, and divided by partitions into little boxes. The floors, often below the level of the outer ground, are of mud or native concrete worn into holes in which water accumulates. The thatched roof is frequently out of repair, the walls are often cracked, and the building structurally unsafe. When it is added that drainage is in most cases altogether neglected, and that sanitary conveniences are generally unknown, the picture of misery and squalor is complete.

Districts not all on the same level of wretchedness

224. The several districts of inquiry are not all of them on the same level of wretchedness in respect of house accommodation. Some of them contain examples of excellent cottages built on English models, but the Reports of the Assistant Commis-

sioner leave little room for doubt as to there being in every part of the country a considerable proportion of dwellings which are thoroughly unfit for habitation.

Classification of houses, Census Returns.

225. The Census Returns for Ireland contain tables classifying the houses in respect of their extent, quality, and construction in four classes, the lowest of which comprises houses containing only one room with one window, built of mud, or other perishable material.

Without going into detail it may be stated that in Ireland 2·4 per cent. of the whole number of houses are in the lowest or 4th class, while in the county of Kerry 10 per cent. of the whole number of dwellings are of this wretched character.

Houses upon agricultural holdings.

226. It is not practicable to follow the inquiry into separate unions. The Census Returns give particulars as to the number of houses of each class upon agricultural holdings, and this may be some criterion of the conditions under which the agricultural population live in different districts. The Returns, however, do not supply any information as to the proportionate numbers of inferior houses in the small towns which both Mr. Wilson Fox and Mr. Richards characterise as far worse than the cottages in the open country. Taking the whole of Ireland the per-centage of the whole number of houses on agricultural holdings which are of the lowest class is 2·94. In Kerry the per-centage is 8·4, and in Limerick 6·3. Among the districts of inquiry Kanturk (county Cork) has the largest proportion (9·68) of houses of the 4th class; Kilmallock comes next with 6·55 per cent., and then Kenmare with 6·43 per cent.

General improvement in accommodation in last 30 years.

227. It should be stated that in the last 30 years there has been an enormous improvement in respect of house accommodation in Ireland. In 1861 there were 89,374 houses of the 4th class inhabited by 93,978 families. In 1881 these numbers had decreased to 40,665 houses with 41,025 families resident in them, and in 1891 to 20,617 4th class houses with 20,729 families inhabiting them, showing a decrease in the number of these mud cabins of 77 per cent. since 1861, and of nearly 50 per cent. in the last Census decade. During the same period houses of all classes decreased by only 12½ per cent. while the population decreased by 19 per cent.

There were thus at the date of the last Census not only fewer inhabitants per house than in 1861, but those houses were on the average of a higher class.

Number of cottages not a subject of complaint

228. As a rule there is very little complaint as to the number of cottages or as to their situation, though some instances are given of men who walk long distances to their work, and in nine of the districts of inquiry there is said to be a demand for more cottages. This demand is, however, generally for houses of a better class, in fact, for "Union cottages," as the houses built by the rural sanitary authorities under the Labourers (Ireland) Acts are called. Although there has been throughout Ireland a large and long continued decrease in the number of houses, that decrease has been less than that of the population, and the average extent of accommodation per house has constantly risen, thus there is a larger space on the average for each individual and for each family than there was 10 years ago, or probably at any former period in recent times. Again, in every part of the country there are a considerable number of uninhabited houses—about one in every 14 taking the whole country through, and one in 18 among those which are upon agricultural holdings. Possibly these uninhabited dwellings are not habitable, and this may account for the overcrowding which exists. But it is difficult to imagine that the Census enumerators could have described as "a house" any building which was inferior to some of the huts described by Assistant Commissioners.

Examples of bad cottages.

229. In Ballymahon Mr. McCrea visited—

McCrea, B. XI. 25.

"a mud cabin of two apartments, about 14′ × 13′ and 14′ × 9′, with 13 props to the "walls outside, six props holding up the kitchen roof, and three or four more in the "bedroom;"

and in the same place—

"a cabin, 11′ × 9′, with no chimney, window, or furniture, occupied by a man and "his wife, who had taken in as lodgers a woman and her five children."

McCrea. B. X. 21.

Again, in Dromore, Mr. McCrea, found—

"a cabin of one apartment, 15′ × 12′, into which were crowded a man and his wife, "six boys, and three girls, or eleven persons in all."

Mr. Richards, speaking of the town of Loughrea, says—

Richards, B. I., 22.

"With the exception of the four new cottages built under the provisions of the "various Agricultural Labourers' Acts, there is not one of the cottages visited at the "present moment in a sanitary condition and fit for habitation."

"Eliminating those cottages which could be made sanitary, and the new ones "built by the guardians, and some comparatively modern ones, built by Lord "Clanricarde, the rest are beyond redemption; they are utterly unfit for human "habitation, and cannot by any amount of patching be made fit."

Mr. Wilson Fox visited a house in Skibbereen, containing a living room, two bedrooms, and two lofts, in which 19 inhabitants of three generations dwelt. In one loft slept three sisters, aged 18, 13, 9, and three brothers, aged 22, 16, and 12. Fox, B. III. 40.

Again, in Castlereagh, he reports a cottage with two rooms on the ground floor about 14′ × 14′. In the living room sleep two sons, aged 21 and 16. In the bedroom, sleep in the same bed, a man, his wife, two girls, of 11 and 8, and a baby. On the bare clay floor of the same room sleeps a female lodger, with a boy of 8, and a baby. Fox II. 42.

It must be remembered that these are not solitary instances, they are examples of what, it is to be feared, is too common to excite much surprise or disgust.

230. Reference must be made to the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners for full particulars of the defects of the cottages inhabited by labourers and farmers; defects in construction, in the state of repair, in the size and number of rooms, and in the sanitary conditions. It is sufficient to say, in this place, that those Reports contain the most painful evidence of the miserable condition of a large number of dwellings in different parts of the country. Defects of cottages.

231. As a proof that the standard applied in classifying houses as good or bad is not absolute, but relative, it may be pointed out that in one place, cottages which are described as *fairly good* contain only two apartments, one of which is 14′×14′ and the other 14′×9′. McCrea, B. X. 21. Standard of excellence relative.

232. It may be asked, naturally, under these circumstances, whether the sanitary authorities have statutory powers which would enable them to provide a remedy for the overcrowded and insanitary condition of the cottages? It appears that the local authorities have similar powers to those which are entrusted to sanitary authorities in England, while the medical officers of health are not removable by the boards of guardians. Powers of the sanitary authorities.

233. Mr. Richards says with reference to the action of the sanitary authorities:— Alleged indifference and incompetence of officials.

"In Ireland the indifference and incompetence are much greater than are found in "England; the medical officers are not so entirely at the mercy of property owners; "and by the Labourers Acts the guardians have not only ample powers to replace "property which is not habitable, but on certain representations being duly made "the obligation is laid upon them to build cottages at the cost of the union." Richards, A. 19.

"In England zealous and independent officers and conscientious guardians are often "deterred from a rigid enforcement of sanitary obligations by the fear of driving the "occupier from his house and village, as might be the result. In Ireland, indifference "to the labourers' condition, or the fear of improving it at the expense of the rates, "often leads the guardians not merely to acquiesce in sanitary conditions absolutely "intolerable, but also to place every possible obstacle in the way of those labourers "who, having at length learned the method of procedure under the Labourers Acts, "have put their representations in due order and brought them before the board of guardians." Richards, A. 21.

234. Mr. O'Brien devotes a considerable section of his Reports to the legislative measures relating to labourers' dwellings, which were passed during the period 1883 to 1891. After describing the conditions which prevailed generally before the passing of the Labourers (Ireland) Act, 1883, and noticing the action of some local authorities and the inaction of others in the exercise of the powers conferred upon them by this Act and various amending Acts; affirming the necessity for a wide expansion of operations, and testifying to an intense and earnest desire on the part of the labourers to acquire possession of cottages under the provisions of these Acts, he proceeds to notice some objections which have been made to some of the administrative details of these measures and to report suggestions of amendment which have been offered by gentlemen who are practically conversant with the subject. Legislative measures relating to labourers' dwellings, 1883–1891.

235. I have laid before the Commission a memorandum upon these Acts appending to it communications which have been made by the courtesy of the Local Government Board (Ireland) from officials who have been engaged in the department which is charged with the administration of the Act. Mr. M. O. Sullivan has contributed a memorandum upon the objects of the Acts and the extent of the work which has been done, and Mr. R. O'Brien Smyth, Engineering Inspector to the department, has Memorandum on Labourers Acts.

presented a memorandum upon the rules and regulations laid down by the Local Government Board, and the work which has been undertaken by the local authorities. It appears from Mr. M. O. Sullivan's Report that up to July 1892, the Local Government Board had sanctioned schemes for building 11,774 cottages and repairing 97. Of this number, 8,899 cottages had been built while 656 were in progress. Of the whole number which had been built, nearly 99 per cent. were in the provinces of Leinster and Munster, the latter having 62·2 per cent., and the former 36·6 per cent. of the total number. In these five provinces there are only four unions in which no cottages have been built under these Acts, and of these, three are in the extreme parts of Kerry. The counties of Cork, Limerick, and Tipperary alone have one-half of the cottages built. The cost of the cottages is said by Mr. O'Brien Smyth to average from 70*l.* to 120*l.* The loans sanctioned amount on an average to 106*l.* per house. The present terms upon which money is advanced by the Treasury to local authorities for the purposes of the Acts involve an annual payment of 4*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.* to 4*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* per annum for interest and instalments of principal according to the length of the term over which the repayment is extended.

Operations under Labourers Acts in districts of inquiry.

236. Action in this matter has been taken by the local authorities in 15 out of the 30 districts of inquiry. The number of cottages sanctioned by the Local Government Board in these districts is 2,635, and of these 2,189 had been built or were in course of erection at the date of the Report. The rents charged for those cottages, including land, not less in any case than half an acre, and sometimes extending to a statute acre, varies from 8*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a week, only about 12 per cent. being let at more than 1*s.* a week.

Cost of cottages built under those Acts.

237. The actual cost of these cottages, including all expenses is stated in some of the Reports. It ranges from 150*l.* in Ennistimon to 100*l.* in Wexford and some other places, the average of the instances given being something less than 120*l.* The amount of accommodation contained in these cottages varies considerably. In Mountmellick they are exceedingly cramped dwellings, containing only three rooms of the uniform size 9 ft. × 7 ft. 6 in., without any other outhouse than a privy; these cottages cost 122*l.* each, and they are let with half an acre of land at 1*s.* a week. In Carlow a much better class of house is being built. It contains kitchen, 14 ft. 6 in. × 11 ft., three bedrooms, storeroom, piggery, fowl house, privy, and one acre of land. The cost is about 120*l.*, and the rent is 1*s.* a week; that is exactly the same sum as is charged in Mountmellick for far inferior accommodation with half the quantity of land.

O'Brien, B. X. 43–45.

O'Brien, B.XI. 41.

Liabilities of ratepayers.

238. The liabilities which have been imposed upon the ratepayers for the carrying out of these improvements are very considerable, and they have no doubt deterred boards of guardians in some of the poorer districts from taking action.

O'Brien, B. V. 38–40.

Mr. O'Brien, in his Cashel Report, states that 22,057*l.* have been spent in that union. This capital has been borrowed on terms of repayment in 50 years, the annual charge for that period being 983*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*, which is equal to 4*l.* 15*s.* 11*d.* for each cottage per annum. They are let for rents of 3*s.* 4*d.* and 3*s.* 9*d.* per month. The rent received for the year ending September 1892 was 448*l.* 15*s.* 10*d.*, the arrears were 191*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*, or about 30 per cent. of the whole amount. The expenditure by the guardians for repairs, taxes, and cost of collection was 239*l.* 3*s.* 8*d.*, so that these net receipts were little more than 200*l.*, the loss to the ratepayers in the current year being 773*l.*

O'Brien, B. IX. 37, 42.

In Kilmallock, where the largest amount of work under the Acts has been done, each cottage represents an annual loss to the ratepayers of 5*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* At the time of the Report 460 cottages had been built, at an average cost of 130*l.*, and it was proposed to build 350 more. If these should involve an equal loss to that under the former scheme the ratepayers will lose more than 4,000*l.* a year if all the rents are regularly paid. This would amount to a rate of $7\frac{1}{4}$*d.* in the 1*l.* on the assessment.

O'Brien, B. II. 45.

Again, in Kanturk, the guardians have to pay 1,537*l.* a year in respect of their loan; their rents receivable are 634*l.*, of this they only received in 1891 about 400*l.*, out of which they had to pay 2*s.* in the 1*l.* for cost of collection, and in addition repairs, insurance, rates, and taxes. Thus, if all rents were punctually paid the ratepayers would lose at least 1,000*l.* a year, which is equal to a rate of 3*d.* in the 1*l.*

Complaints as to construction and arrangement.

239. Mr. O'Brien records several complaints by the inhabitants of union cottages as to their construction and arrangements, and he expresses the opinion in one Report that the guardians had been very badly served by the contractors. The labourers have "a wide and deeply rooted feeling to the effect that the selection of sites for the "cottages, of contractors to build them, and of labourers to occupy them, has not been

O'Brien, B. II. 45.

"properly conducted, and that the decision arrived at on these points has been, for "the most part, governed by private influences, and other equally objectionable "considerations." O'Brien, B. IV. 41.

240. The principal complaints as to the forms of procedure prescribed by the Acts in question which are reported by Mr. O'Brien are— Complaints as to forms of procedure.

(1.) The delay involved or entailed in practice in putting the Act into operation, it being estimated that an interval of about two years usually elapses between the inception of a scheme and the acquisition of sites. O'Brien, A. 24.

(2.) The expenses for incidental charges; the outlay most complained of being the cost of appeals heard before the Privy Council, Dublin.

It may be noted in passing that by the Act of 1885 the appeal against a provisional order to take land compulsorily was transferred from Parliament to the Privy Council of Ireland, in accordance with the recommendations of the Select Committee of the House of Commons, 1884. 48 & 49 Vict. c. 77.

As regards the action of the guardians it is made a matter of complaint, that in no case have they made use of the powers which they possess for the purchase and repair of existing houses.

241. The suggested amendments reported by Mr. O'Brien include a scheme for substituting an official of the Local Government Board for the board of guardians. It is proposed by one gentleman that a sub-commissioner should prepare a complete scheme for a union, that after local inquiry and due publication of the scheme the Local Government Board should be empowered to make an order to carry out such a scheme, and that such order should be subject to appeal to the Court of Appeal of the Irish Land Commission. Another proposal is the purchase of every labourer's house in the country, and reletting such as are fit for habitation with half an acre of land, on the plea that all should have the same advantages as those enjoyed by the fortunate few who have succeeded in getting cottages under the Labourers Acts. The other suggestions are principally with regard to formalities which have to be observed, and in the opinion of some might be dispensed with. Suggested amendments.

One witness proposes to make it compulsory on a farmer to give up for cottage sites a certain proportion of his farm, say, 1 acre in every 60 or 80 in the holding.

It is also suggested that the recovery of rent from defaulting tenants would be facilitated and rendered less expensive if the clerk to the union or the rent collector were empowered to appear at Petty Sessions on behalf of the guardians. And it is proposed that the labourer should have the option of purchasing his house and plot by payment of the needful instalment.

Mr. Richards also reports complaints as to the selection of sites, the formalities which occasion delay, and the personal considerations which are said to sometimes outweigh public advantages and he records a suggestion which has been made for the appointment of independent Commissioners clothed with full powers to adjudicate upon all representations and to determine on sites.

242. The action of some of those boards of guardians which have been most liberal in the application of their powers has not fully satisfied the demand for better dwellings with land attached, and it is scarcely to be expected that those who do not enjoy these advantages, provided to a great extent at the cost of the public, will be content without some similar provision. Thus, wherever action is taken it will probably have to be followed up by increased demands which it may be difficult to refuse. Demand for cottages unsatisfied.

In those unions where the guardians have been deterred by fears as to the burdens which may be imposed upon the ratepayers, and where they are not satisfied of "the sufficiency of their resources," a matter which they are bound by the Statute to consider, the labourers will have reasonable grounds for dissatisfaction with their position as compared with that of the labourers in other districts.

243. I have in the memorandum on the Labourers Act already referred to raised the question "whether the natural result of a large provision of cottages under the "Acts will not be to fix upon the land a much greater number of labourers than can "be profitably employed in the purely agricultural districts of Ireland." Possible effect of the Acts to retain population where there is not employment.

Mr. Richards, writing of Loughrea Union, says that "the two conditions, apart "from the low rate of wages, or perhaps not altogether unconnected with such rate, "which most materially affect the agricultural labourer in Loughrea are—

"1st. The lack of continuous employment.
"2nd. The dilapidation of his home. Richards, B. I. 35

" As matters now are the work is not there, and the labourer must either leave the " district or remain earning such money in the busy time as will keep him decently " in idleness during the winter or drag on in a condition of pauperism as he does now, " or have further work provided for him. It was recommended that this could best " be done by providing each labourer with about 2 acres of land."

Extension of gardens under Act of 1892.

244. The Act of 1892 has extended the size of a garden allotment which may be attached to a cottage from half an acre to a statute acre; if this quantity should in the future be assigned to newly built " union cottages " it is not improbable that the occupants of those already existing, and provided with half an acre only, will feel some jealousy of their neighbours.

Union cottages better than small farmers' houses.

245. There is every reason to believe that where the Labourers Acts have been made use of, the accommodation provided for the labourers and that at the expense of the farmers and landowners, is of a far better character than that to which the small farmers are accustomed.

People not trained to appreciate improved sanitary conveniences,

Richards, B. IV. 37.

246. It may be said fairly that the great mass of the population have not yet been educated to appreciate sufficiently the advantages of good cottages properly provided with sanitary conveniences. Mr. Richards, after visiting a large number of union cottages, declares that in no single instance was this kind of outhouse used for the purpose for which it was built.

or increased accommodation.

247. As regards the number of rooms required for the decent bringing up of a family, when a schoolmaster is found occupying a house which contains only two rooms, each of which is only about 10 ft. square, and in which he, his wife, and three daughters, aged respectively 23, 20, 11, with a boy of 14 live, a high standard can scarcely be expected to prevail among those who are presumably less educated and refined.

Ownership of cottages.

248. The ownership of cottages is, as in England, divided between estate proprietors and independent owners who let them, and squatters who own what they occupy. But there are two kinds of tenure of cottages which are certainly rare, if not unknown in England. In Ireland, many houses have been built by small occupiers upon land which they rent, and these are generally of the same miserable character as the squatters' houses; and a considerable number are held by middlemen who sublet them. The middle man, often a farmer, takes cottages from an estate owner, not for the purpose of housing labourers to whom he gives constant employment and regular wages, but mainly with the object of making a profit, and partly with that of securing labour at busy periods of the year, without, however, subjecting himself to the correlative obligation on his part of providing regular employment.

Tenure.

249. In some such lettings the rent is paid by one day's labour in respect of each week's occupation, and it is alleged that this system gives the opportunity of exacting the day's labour just when the tenant could earn the largest wages. In such cases the labourer may be subjected to a very oppressive and unfair rent. A rent which is equivalent to an average day's wage throughout the year might not be excessive; but if the 52 days' work were claimed in hay time and harvest, when the labourer could easily obtain work at comparatively high wages, a great injustice might be done. In Bailieboro', Mr. Richards was told that labourers who left the district for harvest work elsewhere were called upon to return for the purpose of working off arrears of rent which had accummulated when no work had been provided for them.

Richards, B. IV. 38.

Many estate cottages and those on the larger farms are held rent free during the engagement of the labourer. Others are held by the week, month, quarter, and year. Mr. Richards gives particulars as to 96 cottages in two of his districts of inquiry, and of these 51 were held at a weekly rental, and probably therefore by a weekly tenure.

Rents.

250. The rent of the 96 cottages referred to varies from 5*s.* a year to 4*s.* 6*d.* a week, or 11*l.* 14*s.* per annum, the larger sum being paid for a four-roomed house, two of which rooms are 8′ × 8′, and the other two 8′ × 5′. Four shillings a week appears to be a not uncommon rent in small towns for tenements of one room. In Mr. Richards' list of 96 cottages those having three rooms are let at an average rent of 1*s.* 6*d.* Mr. Wilson Fox gives particulars respecting a number of cottages in Skibbereen and Delvin districts. In the former union, 1*s.* a week seems to be the full rent of a two-roomed cottage. In Delvin some four room cottages in good repair are let at 32*s.* 6*d.* a year.

It is generally said that 1*s.* a week is as much as a labourer can afford to pay for rent, and the union cottages are let with half an acre of land for about that sum, while many men are paying 50 per cent. more rent for miserable cottages without any garden at all. It is pointed out by Mr. Richards that many labourers pay more for naked land than is charged for the same extent of ground, with the addition of a good cottage.

Rates on cottages.

251. In the case of all tenements or holdings with a valuation not exceeding 4*l* rates are legally due and payable by the landlord; when over that amount the rates are divided between landlord and tenant. Union cottages are, in all cases, let free of rates, and it does not appear probable that any rates are paid by labourers who are not occupiers of land.

V.—Gardens and Allotments.

Gardens.

252. Cottages in the country districts have usually land attached to them, except in the north of the country, where it is said that many have been abolished and potato grounds substituted for them. In towns many houses have not even a yard much less a garden. Union cottages are provided with half an acre of ground, and some of the more recently built ones have an acre. Some estate cottages have not only large gardens, but meadow land attached. Mr. Wilson Fox says that "in Westport, Fox, A. 90.
"Castlereagh, and Skibbereen unions the small holders and cottagers seldom have
"flower gardens, the space generally occupied by the garden in English cottages
"being monopolised by the manure heaps, and also used as a run by the pigs and
"fowls, but then, of course, the small holders, and in many cases the labourers, have
"land adjacent, on which they grow potatoes and vegetables for consumption." The gardens appear to be almost entirely given up to the growth of potatoes and cabbages, with an occasional crop of oats.

Only two or three reports notice the growth of flowers or fruit, or a variety of vegetables. Mr. O'Brien deplores the fact, and he quotes the evidence of "a close observer of the general situation," who says: "It is greatly to be regretted that the O'Brien, A. 29.
"labourers have no idea of the cultivation or use of other vegetables, so as to make
"soup and pies of vegetables and potatoes, which would thus greatly improve their
"diet."

Allotments.

253. Allotments, as understood in England, scarcely exist. Mr. O'Brien points out that no practical effect has been given to the provisions of the Labourers Acts, 1885, and 1886, enabling local authorities to provide allotments for labourers resident in adjacent towns and villages. He says, "In only one instance that came under my O'Brien, A. 30.
"notice, Kilmallock, had anything been actually done in this way, and there it was
"only on a very limited scale."

Potato grounds.

254. Potato grounds are very generally provided for those who wish to have them, but the terms on which they are supplied vary considerably. In some places these are liberal, a hired labourer getting from one to two roods free of rent; the ground being sometimes manured and tilled by the farmer. In other parts the labourer finds manure, McCrea, A. 14.
and pays as much as 4*l.* or 5*l.* an acre for the use of the land for one year, as much as 12*l.* an acre being sometimes charged. This system of hiring land for one year is known as the "con-acre" system.

Cows.

255. Cow runs or cow pastures in the English sense of the term, as describing pastures in which the occupants of certain cottages have a right or privilege of pasturing their cows, do not exist, but, apart from the small holdings occupied by those who are sometimes labourers for hire, it is not unusual for estate owners or large farmers to allow their labourers, who are permanently engaged, the grazing of one or more cows, either as an allowance in lieu of wages, or at a fixed sum, which, it may be added, is generally a small sum compared with the cost of the keeping, or the value of the privilege to the owner of the cow. The grazings by which the herds in some of the pastoral districts are entirely or chiefly remunerated are the most prominent instances. These are most common in Castlereagh, Delvin, Dromore, and Loughrea, but they are found in many other districts. In some parts of the country, as in Ballymahon and Letterkenny, ordinary labourers are not uncommonly paid in part by grass for a cow and calf. In other places the labourer's cow is taken in to graze for a moderate sum. Thus the Earl of Longford allows any of his men to have the grass of a cow for 12 months at 2*l.* 10*s.*, that of a "two-year-old" for 2*l.*, of a yearling for 25*s.*, Fox, A. 95.
and that of a calf for 5*s.* Another landowner will keep a cow for any of his labourers

Fox, B. IV. 69. for 4*l.* a year. In another part of the country, as in Naas, a farmer will keep a cow from May to October for 4*l.* or 5*l.*, or as in Balrothery for 4*s.* a week.

Pigs and poultry. Richards, A. 31. 256. Pigs are very generally kept by the labourers, and poultry still more commonly. Indeed, in many places, eggs and fowls are an important source of income to the labourer. It is said that in Bailieboro' the average profit made from this source by the labourers probably amounts to 5*l.* per annum.

VI.—Benefit Societies.

Almost unknown. 257. Societies for insurance against loss of income by reason of sickness, burial clubs, clothing clubs and other similar organisations, which are so numerous and so important in their effect upon the condition of the agricultural labourers in England, are almost unknown in Ireland. There are said to be a few subscribers to the Prudential Assurance Company in Downpatrick and Balrothery, two of the most prosperous districts of inquiry. There are also a few estate clubs established by landowners for the benefit of workmen employed upon their property, *e.g.*, a clothing club started by Sir Thomas Butler at Ballin Temple, Carlow, which has however a very limited number of members. This, Mr. O'Brien says, was the only benefit society which he found in existence in his districts of inquiry. Mr. Fox reports that upon Lord Longford's Pakenham Hall estate, Delvin, there are estate clubs for the benefit of the workmen employed.

O'Brien, B. XI. 49.

Fox, A. 96. Mr. Wilson Fox expresses a doubt as to whether the labourers in the poorer districts could afford to subscribe to any institutions of this character.

VII.—Trades Unions, Strikes, &c.

Not largely supported. 258. There are some organisations of agricultural labourers in different parts of Ireland, but they do not appear to be very largely supported or at all active. In the past two movements of some importance have occurred.

259. Mr. O'Brien says on this subject—

O'Brien, A. 36. Notices of some movements.

"Some years ago the Agricultural labourers showed a tendency to establish organisations for the protection and advocacy of their own special interests, and in one union in particular, Kanturk, where the movement assumed for a while considerable dimensions . . . very substantial concessions were wrung by the labourers from the farmers in that quarter in the year 1880, entirely through the agency of their local labour leagues. Since that time, however, it may be said that nearly all such bodies have been gradually on the wane in this country. In the unions visited by me recently, where they had a previous more or less active existence, I found them to be at the present time either entirely extinct or possessing in their altered condition little vitality or real force. This result was probably attributable in the first instance to the fact that about the year 1879 these local organisations became gradually overshadowed by the far more important one of the then established Land League. In more recent times, however, they were often materially weakened, I think, by the operations so largely undertaken under the Labourers Acts, which had the effect of redressing, in great measure, the principal grievance the movement had been directed against, by providing a considerable number of the labourers with improved house accommodation."

Mr. O'Brien, in support of this conclusion, cites the cases of Kanturk and Wexford, where measures under the Labourers Acts had been applied in a considerate and generous spirit, as those where local labour agitation has subsided; while in Queen's County, where the local authority has failed to satisfy the aspirations of the labourers in respect of house accommodation, these organisations still retain vitality. A reference to Mr. O'Brien's Report on the Kanturk Union will show that up to 1880 the efforts of the Labour League were mainly in connexion with the miserable condition of the house accommodation, but in that year the agitation was "directed entirely against the farmers and rested on the question of the inadequacy of the scale of wages then in vogue." A general strike at the commencement of harvest "brought matters to a crisis, with the result that the entire question was referred for final settlement to three arbitrators, one representing the landowners, the second the farmers, and the third the labourers." The settlement arrived at made an all round addition of 2*s.* a week to the wages of the labourers, that is, from 4*s.* a week to 6*s.* where food was provided, and from 7*s.* to 9*s.* a week for those hired without food.

O'Brien, B. II. 19.

260. Another successful combination of a certain class of labourers may be noticed. In 1881 the herds of Roscommon formed a league with the object of obtaining a higher rate of pay, and the employers started a defence fund, but after a short strike the demands of the men were conceded. Fox, B. II. 55

VIII.—Relations between Employers and Employed.

261. The tenor of most of the Report is to the effect that the relations of masters and their labourers are satisfactory, and even friendly. There are, however, some exceptions to this general rule, thus Mr. O'Brien says in his Report on Kanturk :— Generally satisfactory. O'Brien, B. II. s. 7.

"The relations . . . are, generally speaking, described as being 'fairly good,' "but judging from what I have heard, and what I have myself observed, I should be "disposed to doubt *much* if this is really the case in and about the town of Kanturk. Some exceptions.

"The embers of the old feud are palpably still there, and might, I apprehend, be "easily enough fanned again into a state of active and dangerous vitality."

And again, in Kilmallock, he expresses the opinion that, although—

"There is certainly nothing like overt hostility anywhere manifested, . . . the "feeling entertained is rather the reverse of a cordial one." B. IX. 52.

With these exceptions the dissatisfaction of the labourers with their employers appears to be chiefly in respect of a want of continuous employment and of low wages, while the employers generally complain that the labourers are less industrious and willing than formerly.

IX.—General Condition of the Agricultural Labourer.

262. With regard to the general condition of the class under consideration, there is an almost complete uniformity of testimony as to a great improvement having taken place in recent years, but in a majority of the districts of inquiry the Reports represent conditions which are far from satisfactory. Condition improved.

Mr. O'Brien, who states, "with some confidence," that "a marked and substantial "improvement has taken place within the last 10 or 15 years," ascribes that result to the "combined operation of several distinct causes. Of these, the three principal may "be stated to be (1) the increased demand for labour occasioned by emigration; (2) "the sensible decline that has been experienced during the time in the general cost of "living; and (3) the benefits conferred upon a considerable number of labourers by the "remedial legislation of recent years in regard to their house accommodation and "surroundings." O'Brien, A. 38.

263. With regard to their actual condition Mr. O'Brien reports that a wide disparity exists. "In those districts where the continued pursuit on a more or less substantial "scale of tillage farming is combined with other industries, all fairly capable and "industrious labourers can, generally speaking, reckon on reasonably constant em- "ployment throughout the year, and where, in addition to this, they are in possession "of either the plots of ground attached to the cottages provided under the Labourers "Acts, or are able in the absence of this to secure the accommodation of a piece of "'con-acre' potato ground from some neighbouring farmer, their general condition "may be pronounced to be a fairly comfortable one, and on the whole quite equal to "that of the small farmers. In certain districts, however, tillage has been . . . "reduced to a minimum, while there is . . . an almost entire absence of important "industries . . . In such cases . . . a large proportion of even the best and "most industrious labourers have to endure a more or less considerable period of "enforced idleness during certain seasons of the year," and he proceeds to point out that while what has been stated applies to even the best of their class, the case of the aged, infirm, and in different labourers is still more unfavourable. Wide disparity in condition. O'Brien, A. 38.

264. Mr. McCrea classifies the 11 districts which he visited in respect of the condition of the labourer thus :— Northern districts classified by Mr. McCrea.

Good.—Downpatrick, Limavady, Ballymena, Cookstown.
Fair.—Ardee, Letterkenny, Castleblayney, Clones.
Bad.—Ballymahon, Ballyshannon, Dromore West.

The four districts which are placed in the first of the above classes are rather less agricultural in character than the other districts with which they are compared; they have on an average larger holdings and a greater area of corn crops, and these are all circumstances which increase the demand for labour and tend to make their demand fairly constant.

Mr. McCrea states that "the rate of wages of regular labourers does not appear as "yet to be much affected by agricultural depression, but there is an attempt nearly "everywhere to work with less help than formerly; permanent improvements are "almost at a standstill, more land is being put into pasture, and in many cases fences, "roads, &c. are not so tastefully kept. These causes have affected, and during the "continuance of the present depression must affect, the employment of the casual "labourer particularly in the poorer districts, and as there seems little prospect of "improvement, his only resource will be migration to town or emigration."

McCrea, A. 19.

Mr. Fox's Report.

265. Mr. Wilson Fox says:—

Fox, A. 100.

"Generally speaking the labourers in the four unions visited must have a great "struggle for existence. Indeed, it is marvellous how those who have irregular "employment can feed and clothe their families at all, when even on farms where "employment is regular, of which there are many in the Castlereagh, Skibbereen, and "Delvin Unions, the problem of making both ends meet must frequently be a "difficult one to solve.

"It is, however, satisfactory to be able to state that though the wages are low "and many of the houses are bad, the condition of the people has on the whole "improved during the last 20 years, with the exception of those in the Westport "Union."

Mr. Fox goes on to point out that there are no tillage farms of any size in Westport, and therefore few labourers supported by wages; the agriculturists are small holders, obtaining work elsewhere. It is a fact worthy of notice that the population of Westport has decreased during the 20 years, 1871–1891, less than in any of the 30 selected districts of inquiry; it is also the pre-eminently district of small holdings and holdings of the lowest average value.

Mr. Richards' Reports.

266. Mr. Richards reports that as regards his four districts of inquiry, "the "condition of the labourers is in one essential, . . . that of house accommo- "dation, bad. . . a want of certainty or continuity of employment . . . tending "to lower the condition of the labourer . . . presses most heavily at Loughrea "on the more populous centres in each district. Many of the labourers living in "Loughrea (town) cannot obtain employment for more than seven months in the year. "Their earnings during this time are such as will only enable them to provide the most "ordinary necessaries, and are quite inadequate to cover such necessaries, and also "provide a fund for maintenance during the winter months. The result is that a "considerable portion of such men have every year to come on the rates for outdoor "relief. The condition of such men and their families is wretched in the extreme."

Richards, A. 35, 66.

Summary of evidence.

267. It appears that in 15 districts out of 30 the present condition is described as fairly satisfactory, in 10 it is acknowledged to have improved, but it is not satisfactory; in five districts it is distinctly bad. The five districts thus characterised are Bailieboro', Ballymahon, Ballyshannon, Dromore, and Loughrea.

Want of continuous employment chief cause of bad condition.

The absence of a continuous demand for labour is everywhere the chief cause of unfavourable conditions, and unless employment can be increased the building of cottages will be of little service to the labourers unless they can be supplied at the same time with a sufficient quantity of land to make them independent of wages. The condition of the small holders is scarcely so prosperous as to give much encouragement to a further expansion of their numbers.

Sanitary condition of houses deplorable.

268. The sanitary condition of the labourers' and small holders' cottages is, by universal testimony, deplorable. Mr. Richards and Mr. Wilson Fox express opinions in favour of periodical inspection of dwelling-houses, and an official certification of fitness for the accommodation of a specified number of inhabitants.

Richards, A. 50.

Fox, A. 107.

Facilities for drinking too numerous.

269. Mr. Richards draws attention to the too abundant facilities for obtaining drink as a circumstance unfavourably affecting the condition of the labourer. He states that in Loughrea town there are 52 licensed houses out of a total number of 483 inhabited houses, with a population of 1,800 persons; and in other districts he observed a very considerable and excessive number of these houses and some insobriety among farmers and labourers. Mr. Fox, on the other hand, credits the labourers of his district of inquiry with sobriety, and certainly the number of licensed houses in proportion to population is in those districts in great contrast to the facts described with regard to Loughrea. In that town the proportion is one house to about 35 inhabitants; in Skibbereen it is one to 237, and in Castlereagh, it is one to 350.

Richards, B. I. 34. B. II. 37.

Fox, A. 105.

CONCLUSION.

Conclusion.

I have stated, as I believe, fairly and impartially the results of the very wide investigation which has been made as to the conditions and circumstances affecting the life of the agricultural labourer. I am quite aware that I have omitted to notice many interesting and important matters which are mentioned in the Reports of Assistant Commissioners. I trust that in my Final Report I shall do fuller justice to the work of my colleagues and to the subject of inquiry.

In conclusion I would venture to state very briefly what seem to me to be the principal conclusions to be deduced from the evidence which has been received.

1. The number of those competing for employment in agriculture has everywhere decreased.
2. The decrease in the number of wage earners in agriculture has been most marked in Ireland; but the effect of a decrease has been most felt in Scotland, where only there is a general complaint of a scarcity of labourers.
3. In England a general contraction of employment in agriculture has proceeded concurrently with the decrease of wage earners and to some extent balanced the supply and demand.
4. The decrease in the number of labourers has improved the chance of obtaining regular work by those who desire it.
5. The universal withdrawal of women from field work is an evidence of an improvement in the circumstances of the labourers.
6. The material condition of the labourers has everywhere improved, though there are still very wide and striking differences as to the amount of remuneration received by them in different localities and parts of the United Kingdom.
7. This improvement, though in some measure due to an increase of earnings, is, however, very largely the result of the cheapening of commodities which are the necessaries of life.
8. The least satisfactory circumstance affecting the life of the labourers is the condition of the dwellings which a considerable number of them are compelled to live in.

With these remarks I beg to conclude.

I have the honour to remain,
Sir,
Your obedient servant,
(Signed) William C. Little.

Resolution with regard to the Services of the Chairman.

At the Meeting of the Commission on April 27th, 1894, the following Resolution was unanimously adopted:—

Proposed by **Mr. Livesey.** *Seconded by* **Mr. Tom Mann.**

That the Members of this Commission desire to place on record their high appreciation of the great ability, the absolute impartiality, and the unwearied patience with which the Chairman has conducted the proceedings of the Commission.

The Commissioners directed that this Resolution should be entered on their Minutes and published as part of their proceedings.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,

Secretary.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

FIFTH AND FINAL REPORT

OF THE

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

PART II.

SECRETARY'S REPORT ON THE WORK OF THE OFFICE:

SUMMARIES OF EVIDENCE (WITH INDEX);

AND

APPENDICES.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.
May, 1894.

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ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

THE SECRETARY'S REPORT

UPON THE

WORK OF THE OFFICE.

I 76278. Wt. 994.

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The Secretary's Report upon the Work of the Office.

Royal Commission on Labour,
44, Parliament Street, London, S.W.,
May 16th, 1894.

My Lord Duke,

I have the honour to submit to you the Report which I have been directed to draw up on the Work undertaken in the Office of the Commission since my appointment by you in April 1891 :—

Terms of Reference

I. The Royal Commission on Labour was appointed by Royal Warrant, dated April 21st, 1891, "to inquire into the questions affecting the relations between employer and "employed; the combinations of employers and employed: and the conditions of labour "which have been raised during the recent trade disputes in the United Kingdom; "and to report whether legislation can with advantage be directed to the remedy of "any evils that may be disclosed, and, if so, in what manner."

First Meeting.

The First Meeting was held in the Commission Room at Westminster Hall on May 1st, 1891.

Chairman's opening speech.

II. The Chairman, in his opening speech, after referring to the question of the admission of the Press to report the proceedings of the Commission, pointed out the extent of the subject into which the Commission had been directed to inquire and the desirability of defining the scope of the inquiry.

He suggested that, as far as possible, existing material in the form of literature and Parliamentary Papers should be utilised, and that, in so far as it became necessary to consider the theories of various conflicting schools of thought, the Commission should obtain the desired information, at any rate in the first instance, by consulting the published authorities rather than by the examination of witnesses.

With regard to the questions of fact into which the Commission was directed to inquire, namely, recent trade disputes between employers and employed, the Terms of Reference seemed to indicate that they should investigate first the causes of these disputes, the course which they had taken, their cost to capitalists, to workmen, and the country, and the means adopted or suggested for their prevention and settlement. He thought it would not be necessary to conduct the inquiry entirely by means of oral evidence, and suggested that previously to, or concurrently with, the taking of evidence, a series of questions should be drawn up and circulated to associations of employers and employed. He further suggested that, to economise time and make the subject more manageable, the Commission should divide into groups, each group taking a group of subjects, localities, or, as seemed to him most natural, a group of industries.

He added that information would probably be required from Foreign Countries and the Colonies, and that the Commission had power to appoint Assistant Commissioners for this or for any other purpose.

The Commission decided that the Press should be admitted to report the evidence taken, and appointed a Committee to draw up a scheme of procedure.

Report of the Committee on Procedure.

III. The Committee held several meetings and laid the following Report before the Commission at a meeting on May 26th, 1891 :—

The Committee appointed by the Royal Commission on Labour to prepare and lay before the Commission a definite scheme of procedure for the transaction of the future business of the Commission, submit the following recommendations:—

1. That for the purpose of taking evidence and collecting information the Royal Commission be divided into three Committees;

2. That each of these Committees should institute an inquiry into the facts concerning the condition of certain groups of trades, leaving questions of principle to be treated by the Commission as a Whole;

3. That for this purpose the following division of trades should be adopted, the division being provisional and not exhaustive.

Group A.—The Mining, Iron, Engineering, Hardware, Shipbuilding, and Cognate Trades.

Group B.—Transport and Agriculture: the term "Transport," including Shipping, Canals, Docks Railways, and Tramways.

Group C.—Textile, Clothing, Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades.

4. It is a doubtful question whether the Committees should be restricted to the taking of evidence or whether

they should also make reports to the Commission, and we suggest that it would be advisable to postpone any decision until further progress has been made.

5. That the following syllabus be submitted as a convenient summary of the subjects to be inquired into by the Committees :—

TRADE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

1. *Their Causes.*
2. *Their Development, Organisation, and Conduct.*
3. *Their Cost.*
4. *Their Prevention or Settlement.*

1.—*Their Causes.*

A.—Wages :—
1. How fixed.
2. How calculated :—
   a. By piece-work.
   b. By day-work.
   c. By task-work.
3. How paid :—
   a. Direct, by employer, or by sub-contractor.
   b. Weekly, fortnightly, or at other periods.
   c. Increased by bonus, or reduced by stoppages.
   d. Truck or payment in kind.
   e. House, land, or other allowances.
4. Fluctuations of wages :—
   a. How brought about.
   b. How adjusted.
5. Differences of wages in different establishments and localities.
6. Existence and effect of :—
   a. Pensions.
   b. Deferred pay.
   c. Sick insurance.
   d. Accident insurance.
7. Notice required for the termination of wage contracts.

B.—Hours of labour and continuity of employment :—
1. Normal hours of work.
2. Overtime, and how remunerated.
3. Night shifts, and how remunerated.
4. Short time, season work, or other irregularity of employment.
5. Sunday and holiday labour, how arranged and paid for.
6. Duration of day's work and week's work, and how regulated.

C.—Sub-division, distribution, and classification of work, as between different trades, individuals, men, women, or children (whether half-timers or not), factories, workshops, or homes.

D.—Apprenticeships.

E.—Introduction of machinery.

F.—Supply and quality of the machinery and materials of production or transport.

G.—Safety of employment, provisioning of ships, lighting, sanitation, and inspection of workplaces.

H.—Discharge for belonging to a trade union.

I.—Refusal to work with non-unionists.

J.—Discharge of representative delegates and use of black-list.

K.—Employment of foreigners.

L.—Obnoxious officials.

M.—Sympathetic strikes.

N.—Other causes of dispute.

2.—*Their Development, Organisation, and Conduct.*

A.—Trade associations or combinations of employers or of employed, whether permanent in character or temporary, occasional, or for special dispute purposes, their trade rules, benefits, and policy.

B.—Strikes and lock-outs. Picketing, black-listing, and other methods of influencing persons concerned or not directly concerned in the dispute.

C.—Importation of new or foreign labour, whether under contract or otherwise.

3.—*Their Cost.*

A.—Economic result of strikes and lock-outs to workers, to employers, and to the community at large.

4.—*Their Prevention or Settlement.*

A.—Conciliation by joint committees or otherwise.

B.—Mediation.

C.—Arbitration, voluntary or compulsory.

D.—Sliding-scales.

E.—Profit-sharing.

F.—Industrial partnerships.

G.—Co-operation.

6. We have instructed the Secretaries to prepare a schedule of questions founded upon the syllabus, and we suggest that it should be sent to the different unions of employers and of employed, and other representative bodies or persons.

7. It appears to us that the other subjects into which it will be necessary for the Commission to inquire should be treated either by the Commission as a whole, or by special committees appointed *ad hoc*.

Those subjects include—
a. The law relating to combinations of employers and of employed.
b. The policy of State regulation of the hours of labour.
c. The effect of State or municipal employment of labour.

8. We have made these recommendations for the conduct of the inquiry into the conditions of labour at home, but we have not considered the best means of obtaining information bearing on the subject in Foreign Countries and the Colonies, nor whether there will be a necessity for the appointment of Assistant Commissioners for this or any other purpose.

Schedules of Questions approved of by the Commission.

The Report was discussed at meetings on May 26th and May 28th, 1891, and the proposed division of the Commission into Committees to deal with groups of subjects was adopted. It was further agreed that a Committee be appointed to consider the Schedules of Questions submitted by the Secretaries. The Committee eventually adopted, and the Commission approved of, the following Schedules :—

A.—QUESTIONS ADDRESSED TO TRADE UNIONS.

I.—*Introductory.*

II.—*Wages, Hours, and Conditions of Labour.*

III.—*Strikes and Lock-outs.*

IV.—*General Questions.*

I.—*Introductory.*

1. What particular trade or branch of industry does your society represent?

2. State as accurately as possible the district or districts to which your answers to these questions apply?

3. What number of workpeople are there engaged in your trade or branch of industry in your district, particularised as follows :—
   a. Members of your trade union. Male—female.
   b. Not members of any trade union. Male—female.
   c. Apprentices or other learners or young persons.
   d. Unskilled labourers.

II.—*Wages, Hours, and Conditions of Labour.*

What representations or information do you desire to offer for the consideration of the Commission under any of the following heads :—

(i.) *Wages* :—
   a. Their amount and fluctuations.
   b. Mode of payment.
      (1) By the hour, day, or week.
      (2) By the piece.
      (3) By the task.
   c. Payment through sub-contractor.
   d. Deductions by fines or other forms of stoppage.
   e. Truck or payment in kind.
   f. Allowances in form of :—
      (1) Bonus.
      (2) Deferred pay, such as sick, accident, pension, or other insurance system.
      (3) Free house, land food, clothing, or other allowance, or advantage.
   g. Length of notice for ending engagement.

(ii.) *Hours of Labour:*—
- *a.* Ordinary or standard hours of labour.
- *b.* Overtime and its remuneration.
- *c.* Night-shifts and their remuneration.
- *d.* Sunday work and its remuneration.
- *e.* Weekly half-holiday or other holiday with or without payment.

(iii.) *Conditions of Labour:*—
- *a.* Irregularity of employment through seasonal or other causes.
- *b.* Safety of employment, and the lighting, sanitation, and inspection of workplaces.
- *c.* Compensation for accidents.
- *d.* Sub-division of labour as between different trades.
- *e.* Distribution of labour as between factories, workshops, and homes.
- *f.* Distribution of labour as between men, women, and children.
- *g.* Apprenticeship.
- *h.* Employment of foreigners.
- *i.* Introduction of labour-saving machinery.
- *j.* Supply and quality of materials, machinery, or other plant.
- *k.* Dismissal of representative delegates, refusal of unionists to work with non-unionists, use of black-list, and mutual relations of employers and trade unions generally.
- *l.* Other causes of dispute.

III.—*Strikes and Lock-outs.*

1. Can you state how many strikes and lock-outs there have been in your trade in your district in each of the ten years 1881–1890, and in the current year up to date?
2. Have such disputes been, during that period, more frequent than formerly or less so?
3. Can you enumerate the important disputes and furnish particulars in regard to each such dispute under the following heads:—
- *a.* Date of commencement and termination.
- *b.* The chief immediate causes of each dispute.
- *c.* Number of (i) unionists, (ii) non-unionists, in your trade or branch of industry who have been directly engaged in each dispute.
- *d.* Number of persons employed in factories or works where the dispute occurs, and who have been thrown out of work thereby, but who have not been directly engaged in the dispute.
- *e.* Attitude of union towards dispute.
- *f.* Mode of settlement.
- *g.* Advance or reduction of wages or other result of each dispute.
- *h.* Actual disbursements by union on account of strike, and estimated loss of wages during the dispute to those, whether unionists or non-unionists, who are entered under heads *c.* and *d.* above.

IV.—*General Questions.*

1. Does any system exist in your trade in your district providing for conciliation, arbitration, sliding-scales, or other means of preventing or arranging trade disputes?
2. Has any system of co-operative production, industrial partnership, or profit-sharing been attempted in your trade in your district, and, if so, with what results?
3. Are the Government, or local authorities, employers of labour in your trade and district, and, if so, with what results as to remuneration and other conditions of employment?
4. Will you describe the nature and extent of your union's action in finding work for unemployed members?
5. Has your union taken or considered any action in the direction of itself undertaking work?
6. Can you supply any information as to other agencies in your district for finding or providing work for the unemployed?
7. Will you send copies of any resolutions that may have been passed by your society during the last two years recommending alterations in the laws affecting labour?
8. Have you any suggestions to make as to the statistical and other information relating to your trade which is, or in your opinion should be, collected and published by Government?
9. Can you suggest any means of avoiding or arranging strikes, and promoting cordial relations between capital and labour?
10. Have you any other statement or suggestion to make for the information of the Commission?

B.—QUESTIONS ADDRESSED TO EMPLOYERS.

I.—*Introductory.*
II.—*Wages, Hours, and Conditions of Labour.*
III.—*Strikes and Lock-outs.*
IV.—*General Questions.*

I.—*Introductory.*

1. Will you state the business or businesses in which your firm is engaged, and where its works are situated?
2. What number of workpeople are there engaged in your firm, particularised as follows:—
- *a.* Male.
- *b.* Female.
- *c.* Apprentices or other learners or young persons.
- *d.* Unskilled labourers.

3. Is your firm connected with any organisation of employers dealing with labour questions?

II.—*Wages, Hours, and Conditions of Labour.*

What representations or information do you desire to offer for the consideration of the Commission under any of the following heads:—

(i.) *Wages:*—
- *a.* Their amount and fluctuations.
- *b.* Mode of payment.
  - (1) By the hour, day, or week.
  - (2) By the piece.
  - (3) By the task.
- *c.* Payment through sub-contractor.
- *d.* Deductions by fines or other forms of stoppage.
- *e.* Truck or payment in kind.
- *f.* Allowances in form of:—
  - (1) Bonus.
  - (2) Deferred pay, such as sick, accident, pension, or other insurance system.
  - (3) Free house, land, food, clothing, or other allowance or advantage.
- *g.* Length of notice for ending engagement.

(ii.) *Hours of Labour:*—
- *a.* Ordinary or standard hours of labour.
- *b.* Overtime and its remuneration.
- *c.* Night-shifts and their remuneration.
- *d.* Sunday work and its remuneration.
- *e.* Weekly half-holiday or other holiday with or without payment.

(iii.) *Conditions of Labour:*—
- *a.* Irregularity of employment through seasonal or other causes.
- *b.* Safety of employment, and the lighting, sanitation, and inspection of workplaces.
- *c.* Compensation for accidents.
- *d.* Sub-division of labour as between different trades.
- *e.* Distribution of labour as between factories, workshops, and homes.
- *f.* Distribution of labour as between men, women, and children.
- *g.* Apprenticeship.
- *h.* Employment of foreigners.
- *i.* Introduction of labour-saving machinery.
- *j.* Supply and quality of materials, machinery, or other plant.
- *k.* Dismissal of representative delegates, refusal of unionists to work with non-unionists, use of black-list, and mutual relations of employers and trade unions generally.
- *l.* Other causes of dispute.

III.—*Strikes and Lock-outs.*

1. Can you state how many strikes and lock-outs there have been in connection with your works in each of the ten years 1881–1890, and in the current year up to date?
2. Have such disputes been, during that period, more frequent than formerly, or less so?
3. Can you enumerate the important disputes and furnish particulars in regard to each such dispute under the following heads:—
- *a.* Date of commencement and termination.
- *b.* The chief immediate causes of each dispute.
- *c.* Number of workers in your employment directly engaged in each dispute.
- *d.* Number of persons in your employment who have been thrown out of work thereby, but who have not been directly engaged in the dispute.
- *e.* Attitude of associated employers towards the dispute.
- *f.* Mode of settlement.
- *g.* Advance or reduction of wages or other result of each dispute.
- *h.* Estimated loss to firm, direct or indirect, occasioned by dispute.

IV.—*General Questions.*

1. Does any system exist in your trade in your district providing for conciliation, arbitration, sliding-scales, or other means of preventing or arranging trade disputes?
2. Has any system of co-operative production, industrial partnership, or profit-sharing been attempted by your firm, and, if so, with what results?
3. Are the Government, or local authorities, employers of labour in your trade and district, and, if so, with what results as to remuneration and other conditions of employment?
4. Can you supply information as to any agency in your district for finding or providing work for the unemployed?
5. Have you any suggestions to make as to the statistical and other information relating to your trade which is, or in your opinion should be, collected and published by Government?
6. Can you suggest any means of avoiding or arranging strikes and promoting cordial relations between capital and labour?
7. Have you any other statement or suggestion to make for the information of the Commission.

C.—QUESTIONS ADDRESSED TO EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

I.—*Introductory.*
II.—*Wages, Hours, and Conditions of Labour.*
III.—*Strikes and Lock-outs.*
IV.—*General Questions.*

I.—*Introductory.*

1. What particular branch or branches of industry does your association represent?
2. To what districts does your association extend?
3. Can you state the number of employers or establishments connected with your association?
4. Can you state the aggregate number of workpeople employed by such employers or establishments?
5. Are you prepared to state what are the constitution, general objects, subscriptions, and benefits of your association?
6. If your association deals directly or indirectly with matters of difference arising between associated employers and their workpeople, will you describe the manner in which it so acts?
7. Does your association take action with a view to fixing rates of wages, regulating the hours of labour, or generally prescribing conditions of service for the observance of members of your association?

II.—*Wages, Hours, and Conditions of Labour.*

What representations or information do you desire to offer for the consideration of the Commission under any of the following heads:—

(i.) *Wages:*—
- *a.* Their amount and fluctuations.
- *b.* Mode of payment.
  - (1) By the hour, day, or week.
  - (2) By the piece.
  - (3) By the task.
- *c.* Payment through sub-contractor.
- *d.* Deductions by fines or other forms of stoppage.
- *e.* Truck or payment in kind.
- *f.* Allowances in form of:—
  - (1.) Bonus.
  - (2.) Deferred pay, such as sick, pension, or other insurance system.
  - (3.) Free house, land, food, clothing, or other allowance or advantage.
- *g.* Length of notice for ending engagement.

(ii.) *Hours of Labour:*—
- *a.* Ordinary or standard hours of labour.
- *b.* Overtime and its remuneration.
- *c.* Night-shifts and their remuneration.
- *d.* Sunday work and its remuneration.
- *e.* Weekly half-holiday or other holiday with or without payment.

(iii.) *Conditions of Labour:*—
- *a.* Irregularity of employment through seasonal or other causes.
- *b.* Safety of employment, and the lighting, sanitation, and inspection of workplaces.
- *c.* Compensation for accidents.
- *d.* Sub-division of labour as between different trades.
- *e.* Distribution of labour as between factories, workshops, and homes.
- *f.* Distribution of labour as between men, women, and children.
- *g.* Apprenticeship.
- *h.* Employment of foreigners.
- *i.* Introduction of labour-saving machinery.
- *j.* Supply and quality of materials, machinery, or other plant.
- *k.* Dismissal of representative delegates, refusal of unionists to work with non-unionists, use of black-list, and mutual relations of your association with trade unions generally.
- *l.* Other causes of dispute.

III.—*Strikes and Lock-outs.*

1. Can you state how many strikes and lock-outs there have been in connection with your association in each of the ten years 1881–1890, and in the current year up to date?
2. Have such disputes been, during that period, more frequent than formerly, or less so?
3. Can you enumerate the important disputes and furnish particulars in regard to each such dispute under the following heads:—
   - *a.* Date of commencement and termination.
   - *b.* The chief immediate causes of each dispute.
   - *c.* Number of workpeople employed by members of your association who have been directly engaged in each dispute.
   - *d.* Number of persons employed in factories or works where the dispute occurs, and who have been thrown out of work thereby, but who have not been directly engaged in the dispute.
   - *e.* Attitude of your association towards the dispute.
   - *f.* Mode of settlement.
   - *g.* Advance or reduction of wages or other result of each dispute.
   - *h.* Actual disbursements by association on account of strike, and estimated direct or indirect loss to the firms concerned occasioned by the dispute.

IV.—*General Questions.*

1. Does any system exist in connection with your association providing for conciliation, arbitration, sliding-scales, or other means of preventing or arranging trade disputes?
2. Has any system of co-operative production, industrial partnership, or profit-sharing been attempted in your trade, and, if so, with what results?
3. Are the Government, or local authorities, employers of labour in your trade, and, if so, with what results as to remuneration and other conditions of employment?
4. Will you send copies of any resolutions that may have been passed by your association during the last two years recommending alterations in the laws affecting labour?
5. Have you any suggestions to make as to the statistical and other information relating to your trade which is, or in your opinion should be, collected and published by Government?
6. Can you suggest any means of avoiding or arranging strikes and promoting cordial relations between capital and labour?
7. Have you any other statement or suggestion to make for the information of the Commission?

Memoranda to be drawn up by Commissioners.

Sir Frederick Pollock was entrusted by the Commission with the preparation of a Memorandum on the Law relating to Combination of Employers and of Employed, and Mr. Tom Mann undertook to draw up a Memorandum on the Policy of the State Regulation of the Hours of Labour.

The effect of State or Municipal Employment of Labour was subsequently dealt with by a special schedule of questions (*see* pages 15 and 16).

Question of appointment of Assistant Commissioners.

The question whether Assistant Commissioners should be appointed to inquire into the condition of the agricultural labourer, or into the conditions of the employment of women, was reserved for Groups B. and C. of the Commission to decide, and such Assistant Commissioners were subsequently appointed by these committees.

Labour Question in the Colonies and Foreign Countries.

With regard to the Labour Question in the Colonies and Foreign Countries, it was decided to apply in the first instance to the Foreign and Colonial Offices for information. On 2nd March 1892 a Committee was appointed to consider questions relating to the Foreign Reports and Literature.

Sittings of the Committees and the Commission as a Whole.

IV. The Committees subsequently held sittings as indicated by the following Table, and, on the completion of the evidence of the Committees, the Commission proceeded to sit as a whole, and take evidence as to questions of principle.

	Whole Commission.	Committee A.	Committee B.	Committee C.
Evidence-taking :—				
Date of first sitting	25 Oct. 1892.	8 July 1891.	17 June 1891.	26 June 1891.
Date of last sitting	2 Feb. 1893.	9 Aug. 1892.	3 Nov. 1892.	7 Dec. 1892.
Number of sittings	17	45	46	43
Average duration of sittings (including luncheon interval).*	5 hours 25 min.	4 hours 59 min.	4 hours 49 min.	4 hours 49 min.
Number of witnesses examined	28	157	171	227
Number of private sittings	21	5	4	1
Total number of sittings	38	50	50	44
		182		

* This includes time spent on a few occasions in transaction of private business either before or after the taking of evidence.

In addition the Committee on Procedure held four sittings, the Schedules of Questions Drafting Committee two sittings, and the Foreign Reports Committee two sittings.

In connection with the sittings of the Commission and the summoning of witnesses, some 2,500 letters have been received by the Office.

Method of selection of witnesses.

Witnesses were summoned to give evidence on the following principle :—Representatives of the employed were summoned first to state their grievances, and afterwards representatives of the employers to give their view of the question. As a general rule the Secretaries of Associations were invited to submit to the Committee the names of the persons whom they desired to give evidence on their behalf. Copies of the Report of the Committee on Procedure and the Schedules of Questions were, in the first instance, forwarded to witnesses as a convenient scheme for their evidence, but subsequently, according to the decision of the Chairman of the Commission at a meeting with the Chairmen of the Committees, the following abbreviated statement was forwarded instead :—"The evidence which the Commission wishes to receive from "witnesses should be directed mainly to facts on which they can speak from their "personal knowledge, relating to the recent trade disputes in their industries— "(1) The causes; (2) Development, organisation, and conduct; (3) The cost; "(4) Prevention or settlement."

Mr. Burnett took charge of the correspondence connected with the summoning of witnesses before Committee A., and the Secretary took charge of that connected with the other two Committees B. and C.

With regard to the witnesses summoned to give evidence before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, a meeting was held of a special Committee (consisting of the Chairman of the Commission, the Chairmen of the Committees, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, and Mr. Courtney), which considered and amended a list submitted by the Secretary.

For a period of about six weeks copies of the summaries of the proposed evidence of witnesses were printed for the use of the Members of the Commission during their examination of witnesses. The correction of the proofs of these summaries, many of which were not sent by witnesses until three or four days before the date fixed for their examination, greatly increased the work of the Committee Clerks during that period.

Classification of Witnesses.

The witnesses summoned to attend the various Committees, and the Commission Sitting as a Whole, may be classified as follows:—

GROUP A.

Mines and Quarries.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses.	Government.	No. of Witnesses.
Miners and colliery enginemen.	28	Coal-owners, &c. -	31	Mining Inspectors -	3
Cokemen - -	2	Quarry proprietors -	4		
Quarrymen - -	3				
Total - -	33	Total -	35	Total - -	3
			71		

Iron, Steel, Nail, Chain, &c., Trades.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses.
Iron and steel workers, including steel smelters.	12	Ironmasters - -	5
		Nail and chain manufacturers.	2
Locksmiths, nut and bolt makers, and Sheffield cutlery trades.	8		
Blastfurnacemen -	4		
Nail and chain makers	4		
Pattern-makers - -	1		
Blacksmiths - -	1		
Iron-moulders - -	1		
Journeymen brass-founders.	1		
Total - -	32	Total - -	7
		39	

Shipbuilding and Engineering.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses.
Boiler-makers and iron and steel shipbuilders.	7	Firms of shipbuilders, engineers, &c.	11
		The Admiralty and Government Dockyards.	2
Engineers - -	6		
Carpenters (shipwrights) and joiners.	5		
Platers' helpers - -	2		
Barge-builders - -	1		
Plumbers - -	1		
Enginemen, firemen, and boilermen.	1		
Government Dockyards:—			
Shipwrights and ship-joiners.	6		
Labourers - -	4		
Riggers - -	1		
Total - -	34	Total - -	13
		47	

Total number of witnesses representing Employed - -		99
,, ,, ,,	Employers - -	55
,, ,,	miscellaneous - - -	3
,, ,,	heard before Committee A. -	157

GROUP B.

Transport by Water.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses.	Miscellaneous.	No. of Witnesses.
Dock and wharf labourers, including stevedores, corn-porters, coal-porters, quayside workers, ballast-heavers, &c.	31	Shipowners - -	10	Shipping Federation officials and foremen, and free labour.	15
		Dock companies - -	4		
		Wharfingers and warehouse and granary keepers.	3	Government inspection under the Canal Boats Act.	1
Sailors, seamen, and firemen, coal-trimmers, &c.	24	Master lightermen and barge-owners.	2	Shipping Department of the Board of Trade.	1
Canal boatmen, lightermen, watermen, flatmen, ferrymen, &c.	16				
Foremen and clerks at the wharves and docks.	2				
Fishermen - -	1				
Ship-riggers - -	1				
Total - -	75	Total - -	19	Total - -	17
		111			

Transport by Land.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses
Cabdrivers, carmen, horsemen, lorry-men, &c.	10	Railway companies - - -	13
Railway workers - - -	8	Omnibus and tramway companies -	11
Omnibus and tramway workers -	9	Cab proprietors - - -	4
Total - -	27	Total - - -	28
		55	

Unclassified under any of the above divisions - - 5

Total number of witnesses representing Employed - - - 102
" " " Employers - - 47
" " miscellaneous - - - - 22

Total number of witnesses heard before Committee B. - - 171

Group C.

Textile and Clothing Trades.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses.	Miscellaneous.	No. of Witnesses.
Cotton operatives - -	12	Woollen manufacturers -	6	Managers and over-lookers.	4
Woollen operatives, including willeyers and fettlers, wool-sorters, wool-combers, warp-dressers.	11	Boot and shoe manufacturers.	5		
		Cotton manufacturers and spinners.	4		
		Master tailors - -	3		
Jute and linen operatives -	5	Jute firms - - -	2		
Boot and shoe operatives -	5	Silk spinners and trimming manufacturers.	2		
Hosiery workers, including hand framework-knitters.	4	Hosiery manufacturers -	2		
		Dyeing Department, Leicester Chamber of Commerce.	1		
Tailors - - -	3				
Dyers - - -	2				
Straw-plaiters - -	1				
Total - -	43	Total - -	25	Total - -	4
		72			

Chemical, Gas, and Salt Industries.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses.	Miscellaneous.	No. of Witnesses.
Chemical and copper workers, &c.	13	Chemical companies -	5	The Salt Union, Limited	1
Gas workers and general labourers, including coal-porters.	13	Gas companies and coal merchants.	9		
Total -	26	Total - -	14	Total - -	1
		41			

Building and Upholstery Trades.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses.
Carpenters and joiners	6	Master builders	6
House-painters and decorators	4	Master masons	1
Operatives in building trades (generally)	3	Carpet manufacturers	1
Masons	2		
Lath-renders	2		
Cabinet-makers	2		
Bricklayers	1		
Brickmakers	1		
Plasterers	1		
Upholstresses	1		
Plumbers	1		
Total	24	Total	8
			32

Miscellaneous.

Interests of Employed.	No. of Witnesses.	Interests of Employers.	No. of Witnesses.
Bakers	8	Glass bottle manufacturers	3
Barmaids and barmen	2	Licensed victuallers	1
Brushmakers	1	Master bakers	4
Coachmakers	1	Pottery manufacturers	1
Compositors, lithographers, printing-machine managers, printers' labourers, &c.	12	Printing offices	1
		Seed-crushers	1
		Shopkeepers	3
Confectionery workers	2		
Coopers	2		
Cork cutters	1		
Covent Garden porters	1		
Domestic servants	1		
Glass bottle workers	1		
Journeymen butchers	1		
Matmakers	1		
Mill sawyers	1		
Paper-mill workers	1		
Pottery workers	3		
School teachers	2		
Seed-crushers and workers in oil-mills	2		
Shop and warehouse assistants and Early Closing Association.	6		
Ropeworkers	1		
Total	50	Total	14
			64

Government Inspection	6	
Unclassified under any of the above divisions	12	
Total number of witnesses representing Employed		143
,, ,, ,, Employers		61
,, ,, miscellaneous		23
Total number of witnesses heard before Committee C.		227

COMMISSION SITTING AS A WHOLE.

Representatives of co-operative societies	6
Representatives of various movements	17
Public officials	5
Total number of witnesses heard before the Commission as a Whole	28
GRAND TOTAL OF WITNESSES REPRESENTING EMPLOYED	350
,, ,, ,, EMPLOYERS	163
,, ,, MISCELLANEOUS	70
GRAND TOTAL OF WITNESSES HEARD	583

V. The evidence given before the Commission in the Commission Room at Westminster Hall was taken down verbatim by shorthand writers, who forwarded a transcribed copy to the printers the same night. As soon as proofs of one day's evidence were received from the printers, the Office sent a copy to each witness examined on that day and to each member of the Commission who asked questions, with the request that the proof should be returned as soon as possible with any necessary *verbal* corrections inserted.

The Editing of the Minutes of Evidence:

(*a*) Method of issuing the day's evidence.

All these corrections (when permissible) were then noted on one proof-copy, which was returned to the printers with the direction that official copies be printed and issued to the public at the nominal price of twopence per copy, a price specially sanctioned by the desire of the Commission.

In respect to doubtful corrections made, that is, those which might be considered material, due consideration was given to them by the Secretary. Very frequently correspondence with the witness ensued.

With regard to the evidence, from the contentious nature of the statements given it was necessary to lay down the following rules:—

(*b*) Rules laid down owing to contentious nature of the evidence.

Only Verbal Corrections are Allowed.

Members of the Commission are requested to correct *only* the questions they have asked.
Witnesses are requested to correct *only* the answers they have given.
Proofs must be *sent back*, if possible, *by return of post*, in order to comply with the Treasury Minute with regard to the publication of the evidence within a week from the time at which it has been given.
Please sign when seen . . . . . .

In a great number of cases, to obviate the recalling of a witness, short notes have been appended to explain points in the evidence which were not fully brought out during examination, to correct errors in figures, to verify or rebut a statement, to supply additional information, and to elucidate obscure or confused points. These have necessitated a great deal of correspondence, and add materially to the value of the evidence.

(*c*) Insertion of foot-notes.

It is impossible to enumerate the details of the work of securing accuracy and uniformity throughout the evidence. All references and quotations contained in the Evidence have been verified as far as possible; and a minute comparison of the evidence, as reported, with the summary of proposed evidence supplied by each witness has also been made. A list of the points common to all volumes has been kept for reference, embracing such points as uniformity in names of Members of the Commission, in notices in the evidence explanatory of the action of the Commission or of witnesses, in references to other questions, pages, volumes, &c., in spelling of words of variant orthography, &c.

(*d*) Method of securing accuracy and uniformity.

To facilitate reference to the Evidence, Lists of Witnesses have been drawn up and inserted in each volume of the Minutes of Evidence and of the Digests. They contain reference to—

(*e*) The Lists of Witnesses.

(1) The name of each witness in full.
(2) The subject to which the evidence of each witness principally relates.
(3) The numbers of the questions in the evidence over which the examination of each witness extended.
(4) The days on which the evidence was given.
(5) The pages of reference to (*a*) the analysis, and (*b*) the précis.

The Lists in all the Groups (A., B., and C.) have been amalgamated into one list, which is printed in the Subjects Index volume.

VI. The Appendix consists of a selection of the documents handed in by witnesses during their examination to substantiate their evidence, and to prove their complaints, accusations, or denials. The selection has been made or sanctioned by the Chairmen of the Committees, all documents, however interesting, which are not considered essential to the furtherance of the object laid down for the Commission—to investigate the causes of disputes between capital and labour—being excluded.

The Appendix:

(*a*) Methods of selection.

In each volume a full index to all documents handed in by witnesses has been inserted and contains:—

(*b*) List of Documents.

(1) The number of the document as printed.
(2) The description of the document.
(3) The reference to that part of the evidence at which the document was handed in.
(4) The name of the witness handing in.

(c) Documents produced only.

Some documents were not handed in for the Commission's use, but were only produced in the Commission Room. These are described in the evidence as "produced."

(d) Extra List of Documents and Appendix.

In the Minutes of Evidence, Volume III., of each Group an Extra List and Appendix has been inserted. This List embodies all documents received by the Secretary from persons other than witnesses before the Commission.

Work and correspondence involved.

VII. The work and correspondence involved in the editing and analysing of the Minutes of Evidence and in the compiling of the Appendix and Glossary is shown in the following tables:—

Volume.	Minutes of Evidence and Appendices.													
	No. of Witnesses examined.	No. of Sittings held.	No. of Shorthand Folios transcribed.	Total No. of Commissioners asking Questions at each Day's Sitting.	Total Proofs sent out.	Total corrected Proofs returned and noted.	Total Questions asked and analysed.	No. of Terms defined in Digests.	*No. of printed Pages in Volumes of Evidence.	†No. of Documents tabulated.	No. of Documents printed.	No. of Pages of Appendix.	Date of Presentation to Parliament.	Date of actual Publication.
Group A., Vol. I.	46	16	—	181	227	146	9,037	156	449	67	16	28	April 1892	July 1892
„ „ II.	58	17	—	158	219	163	10,950	275	603	45	17	‡21	June 1892	Oct. 1892
„ „ III.	§53	12	—	103	157	116	6,631	428	512	**101	**36	**54	Feb. 1893	July 1893
Total	157	45	22,396	442	603	425	26,618	859	1,564	213	69	103		
Group B., Vol. I.	57	20	—	234	291	152	11,243	100	705	122	71	102	April 1892	July 1892
„ „ II.	55	12	—	111	168	122	5,489	137	439	101	44	‖54	June 1892	Nov. 1892
„ „ III.	¶62	14	—	131	194	147	11,662	145	647	**179	**88	**127	Feb. 1893	June 1893
Total	††174	46	22,171	476	653	421	28,394	382	1,791	402	203	283		
Group C., Vol. I.	59	14	—	113	172	122	11,367	155	516	44	19	37	April 1892	July 1892
„ „ II.	64	12	—	97	163	119	9,821	264	482	44	20	60	June 1892	Feb. 1893
„ „ III.	109	17	—	117	225	169	12,417	417	776	**198	**125	**203	Feb. 1893	Oct. 1893
Total	††232	43	21,520	327	560	410	33,605	836	1,774	286	164	300		
Commission Sitting as a Whole: Minutes of Evidence	28	17	8,978	200	232	160	8,719	—	622	—	—	—	June 1893	Nov. 1893
Commission Sitting as a Whole: Appendix	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	240	165	364	June 1893	Jan. 1894
Totals	591	151	75,065	1,445	2,048	1,416	97,336	2,077	5,751	1,141	601	1,050		

* This column does not include diagrams, of which there are in all over 30.
† This column is perhaps rather under-estimated, as several documents requiring separate consideration, for convenience of reference were grouped together in the Tabulated List.
‡ This does not include a Report of seven pages on the Nail Trade, compiled by Miss Orme.
§ This does not include three Memoranda accepted as evidence.
‖ This does not include a Précis of over 50 pages of the Evidence before the House of Commons Select Committee on Railway Servants (Hours of Labour).
¶ This does not include one Memorandum accepted as evidence.
** These include documents for the extra Appendices.
†† It will be noticed that these figures differ from those on pages 8, 9, and 10. This is due to the fact that in calculating the totals in the latter case witnesses who have given evidence in the same interests on two or more occasions have been reckoned only once, although the evidence may have been contained in two or more volumes.

*Amount of Correspondence connected with the Evidence, Appendix, and Glossary, up to October 7th, 1893.**

—	*Re* Evidence.	*Re* Appendix.	*Re* Glossary.	Total.
Number of letters received	626	420	378	1,424
Number of letters sent out	702	644	670	2,016
Totals	1,328	1,064	1,048	3,440

Digests of Evidence.

VIII. The mass of the evidence taken was so great that, at a meeting of the Chairman of the Commission with the Chairmen of the Committees, in December 1891, the Secretary was directed to prepare Digests thereof for the use of the Commission.

Ten Digests have been published, each in connection with one of the volumes of the Minutes of Evidence. Volumes III. of the Digests, Committees A., B., and C., contain

* The number of letters received since this date respecting the Evidence, Appendix, or Glossary, have been included in the figures given on p. 24.

Indexes to Digests, Volumes I., II., and III.; the Digest of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole also contains Indexes to the Digest.

Divisions of Digests.

The Digests have been compiled under the following heads :—

(i.) Précis of the Evidence.

(ii.) Abstracts of the Evidence on (*a*) Strikes and Lock-outs, (*b*) the Eight Hours' Day, (*c*) Arbitration and Conciliation, and (*d*) Acts of Parliament.

(iii.) Glossary of Technical Terms used in the Evidence.

(iv.) Analysis of the Evidence.

(i.) The Précis.

The Précis embodies in a convenient form the substance of the evidence of each witness, preserving as far as possible the actual words used by him.

(ii.) The Abstracts.

The Abstracts contain all the evidence taken on certain points which appear to be of the greatest practical importance :—

(*a.*) The Abstract on "Strikes and Lock-outs" gives the evidence in the words of the witnesses as far as it relates to the causes, the development, the organisation and conduct of strikes, the cost of strikes, and the prevention and settlement of strikes. Under the head of development, organisation, and conduct of strikes is given the history of all important general and local strikes so far as an account is given of them in the evidence.

(*b.*) The Abstract on "The Eight Hours' Day" presents all the evidence given to the Commission on the most important of the indirect methods suggested for the prevention and settlement of strikes.

(*c.*) The Abstract on "Arbitration and Conciliation" presents all the evidence given with regard to the most important of the direct methods suggested for the prevention and settlement of strikes.

(*d.*) The Abstract on "Acts of Parliament" contains all the evidence given with regard to the text or operation of the various Acts of Parliament which regulate industrial relations.

(iii.) The Glossary.

The Glossary enumerates and defines the technical terms used by the witnesses, which are in many cases unintelligible to persons not possessed of special knowledge of the various industries. It has involved, as will easily be understood, an immense amount of work, and has proved of great use, apart from its original object of affording information to Members of the Commission and others, in checking the editing and reporting of words and phrases in the Minutes of Evidence.

(iv.) The Analysis.

The Analysis has been printed weekly to facilitate reference to the evidence already taken. It is an index of the witnesses and the evidence they have given.

Throughout the Digests there is affixed to every paragraph a reference to the number of the question, and, when not otherwise apparent, to the name of the witness, thus giving authority to the statements made.

Statistics respecting Digests.

The following Table shows the dates at which the Digests were published :—

—	Whole Commission.	Group A.			Group B.			Group C.		
		Vol. I.	Vol. II.	Vol. III.	Vol. I.	Vol. II.	Vol. III.	Vol. I.	Vol. II.	Vol. III.
Number of pages of printed matter.	70	106	196	201*	98	172	226*	103	163	288*
		503			496			554		
		1,623								
Date of presentation to Parliament.	June 1893	April 1892	June 1892	Feb. 1893	April 1892	June 1892	Feb. 1893	April 1893	June 1892	Feb. 1893
Date of actual publication	July 1893	July 1892	Oct. 1892	July 1893	July 1892	Nov. 1892	June 1893	July 1892	Feb. 1893	Oct. 1893

* These include Indexes to Précis in all three volumes.

Delay in publication of Evidence and Digests.

It should be added that the publication of both Digests and Evidence was much delayed by the disastrous fire at Messrs. Eyre and Spottiswoode's at Easter, 1892, in which many documents belonging to the Commission were destroyed, and had to be replaced.

Memoranda prepared for the use of the Commission.

IX. In accordance with the statement in the Chairman's opening speech, the Secretary was directed from time to time to draw up certain Memoranda for the use of the Commission, of which the following have been presented to the Commission :—

(1.) Précis of Evidence given before the Select Committee of the House of Commons on Railway Servants (Hours of Labour), together with Summary of the Précis,

drawing out the conclusions to which the evidence points. (This Précis, drawn up from 11,259 questions,* consists of 51 pages of printed matter, and has been printed in Volume II. of the Evidence given before Committee B.; the Summary, consisting of 12 pages, has been printed in Volume III. of the Digest of Evidence, Group B.)

(2.) Memorandum on the Evidence (contained in 4 Volumes of Evidence, consisting, with Appendices, of 2,843 pages†) given before the House of Lords Committee on the Sweating System. (This Memorandum forms part of the Appendix to the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole.)

(3.) Memoranda on (i.) Two books by George Smith of Coalville viz: "Our Canal Population," and "Canal Adventures by Moonlight"; and (ii.) "The nature "and extent of the evidence already given before the Commission upon the "condition of employment on Canals." (Memorandum (i.) has been printed in the Appendix to the Evidence, Vol. III., Group B.).

(4.) Memorandum on Charts prepared by Mr. Charles Booth, which are printed in the Appendix to the Evidence, Vol. III., Group B.

(5.) Memorandum on "Pauperism—A Picture; and the Endowment of Old Age—an Argument," by Mr. Charles Booth (printed in the Appendix to the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole).

(6.) Memoranda on (i.) Mr. Sidney Webb's works upon Socialism and Semi-socialistic Schemes ("Fabian Essays on the Historic Basis of Socialism," 1889; "The London Programme," 1892); and (ii.) "The Eight Hours' Day," 1891 (printed in the Appendix to the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole).

(7.) Memorandum on the Co-operative Movement.

(8.) Memoranda on Methods of Dealing with Wage Statistics.

(9.) Memorandum on Eight Hours' Legislation in the United States.

[Details respecting the Summaries of Evidence and their Appendices are given in paragraph xiv. on pp, 16 and 17.]

Indexes.

X. In addition to the above Digests the Commission directed that Indexes to the Minutes of Evidence should be prepared by the Secretary.

The Index of the Evidence given before the Committees A., B., and C. has been divided into three parts—(1) Witnesses, (2) Subjects, (3) Trades, on the same plan as the Indexes of the Digests already referred to.

The *Index of Witnesses* which is prefixed to the Subjects Index consists merely of a List of the Witnesses who have given evidence before the Committees, and references to the Analysis and Précis in the volumes of the Digest, in which a complete record is given of the statements made by each individual witness.

The *Subjects Index* is based on the Report of the Committee on Procedure, and has been re-cast more than once to embody suggestions made by various Members of the Commission. The list of heads was confined to the smallest possible number, as it was impossible to form any opinion at the commencement of the work of the Commission of the amount of oral evidence that would be taken by each of the Committees. It was further necessary for the Subjects Index as far as possible to keep pace with the work of the Commission, and for this and other reasons connected with the printing, the sub-division of industries observed by the Committees was found the most convenient to follow. The Subjects Index is intended merely to supplement the Digests already published; it is not intended to interpret, but only to indicate the matter contained in the evidence, with a view to enabling any person who is not satisfied with the Digests and their Index to obtain, at first-hand, information on any of the more important points into which the Commission was appointed to inquire.

The *Trades Index*, which forms the second volume of the Index of the Minutes of Evidence taken before the Committees, is on a far larger scale, and gives under each trade in more detail the information supplied by the Subjects Index, the object being to make it possible to obtain a complete picture of the Labour Question with regard to any of the more important trades, the conditions of which have been investigated by the Committees.

* Considerable use was also made of the 185 pages of Appendices.

† In drawing up this Memorandum the Index Volumes issued by the Committee were found of great service.

A subsequent volume contains the *Index to the Technical Terms* used before the Committees, together with a complete Glossary and an Introduction explaining the principles upon which it has been compiled. A final volume contains the *Indexes of the Evidence taken before the Commission Sitting as a Whole.* In that volume it has been found possible to print the Witness Index (Analysis) with the Subjects and Trades Indexes according to the original plan, which considerations connected with the printing have prevented in the case of the Committees. The *Indexes to the Reports of the Assistant Agricultural Commissioners* will be found in volumes of that series.

An attempt has been made throughout to make each set of volumes issued by the Commission complete by itself. Ample Tables of Contents, with Introductions, will be found in the volumes of the Schedules of Questions, the Tabulated Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, the Foreign Reports, and the volume containing the Reports of the Lady Assistant Commissioners.

A single complete Index of the whole of the work of the Commission can only be made when that work has been finished. Then, and not till then, it will be possible to form some idea of the scale on which any such Index could, within ordinary limitations of time and space, be accomplished.

A general view of the work of the Commission is presented by the Summaries which have been prepared of the whole of the work of the Commission; the Index to those Summaries will furnish the inquirer with the means of ascertaining (i.) directly, the general facts connected with any subject or trade, and (ii.) indirectly, by means of references to the Digests on which the Summaries are based, fuller details on all important points; and, finally, by further reference to the Minutes of Evidence, &c., the original documents on which the statements made are founded.

I may remind you that, in accordance with the Instructions issued by the Treasury to Secretaries of Temporary Commissions, all Indexing is to be completed before the date of signing of the Final Report. Under the system I have adopted the Treasury Regulations will have been complied with to the letter.

Answers to Schedules of Questions.

XI. About 3,150 Schedules of Questions drawn up by the Commission were sent out to Trades Unions, Employers, Employers' Associations, Trades Councils, Chambers of Commerce, and Women's Trades Unions. Returns were received from about 1,200, and have been published in three separate volumes according as the industries dealt with fell within the sphere of Committee A., Committee B., or Committee C. Introductory Memoranda have been drawn up, summarising the information contained in the answers with regard to wages, hours of labour, conditions of employment, strikes, lock-outs, and disputes, agencies for providing or finding work for the unemployed, and suggestions as to statistical information to be published by Government.

Answers to Schedules of Questions.

Volume.	No. of Schedules tabulated.	No. of Pages printed.	No. of Pages of Summary.	No. of Pages of Appendix.	Date of Presentation to Parliament.	Date of actual Publication.
Group A.	331*	473†	23	19	June 1892	Nov. 1892
Group B.	104*	179†	19	13	June 1892	Nov. 1992
Group C.	755*	969†	46	34	June 1892	Dec. 1892
Totals	1,190*	1,621†	88	66	—	—

* This includes the Schedules dealt with in the Appendix in Volumes III., Minutes of Evidence, Groups A., B., and C.
† This includes 12 pages in Group A., Volume III., Minutes of Evidence, and 19 pages in Group C., Volume III., Minutes of Evidence, and 1 page in Group B., Volume III., Minutes of Evidence.

State or municipal employment of labour.

XII. With reference to the Section 7 (*c*) of the Report of the Committee on Procedure, the following circular was drawn up and sent out in August 1891 to about 2,200 State, municipal, and quasi-municipal bodies in Great Britain and Ireland:—

Telegraphic Address:—
"ENTWINED, LONDON."

Royal Commission on Labour,
44, Parliament Street, London, S.W.
_____ 189 .

SIR,

The Royal Commission on Labour having decided to inquire into the Policy of State Regulation of Hours of Labour and the effect of State or Municipal Employment of Labour, I am directed to ask you if you would favour the Commission with any information in your power on the subject, and especially on the following points:—

1. What number of persons, if any, including the clerical staff, are employed by your Department, Corporation, Board, or Trust?
2. What is the class of work in which they are engaged?

3. What are the rates of pay of different classes of work, including the clerical staff?
4. What is the number of working hours per week?
5. What are the disputes, if any, that have occurred between your Department, Corporation, Board, or Trust, and the persons in its employ?
6. What are the comparative efficiency and profitableness of work done under public and private management?

I beg to enclose for your further guidance copies of the papers issued by the Commission, and I have to add that it would greatly facilitate the work of the Commission if the answers to the above questions are returned as early as possible.

I am, Sir,
Your obedient servant,
(Signed) GEOFFREY DRAGE.

To the Superintendents of Dockyards, Arsenals, and State Factories,
Town Clerks,
Secretaries of County Councils, and Local Boards.

Nearly 900 replies were received and tabulated, and a statement was drawn up by the Secretary and submitted to the Chairman, showing the number of persons employed under the State or by local authorities, the number of hours worked, and the amount of wages received, and, where it was possible, comparison was made between the condition of those employed under public and those in private firms.

Summary of the Returns.

A Summary of the Returns, containing detailed Tables of the Wages paid by local authorities, was subsequently prepared by the Secretary, and is printed as an Appendix to the Summaries of Evidence.

Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed.

XIII. In December 1891 the Secretary was directed to collect Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and tabulate them for the use of the Commission. Rules were received from over 550 Associations. To these have been added such Rules as were handed in by witnesses during their examination, but had not been previously received.

Rules of Associations of Employers and Employed.

No. of Rules tabulated.	No. of Pages printed.	No. of Pages of Summary.	No. of Pages of Appendix.	Date of Presentation to Parliament.	Date of actual Publication.
589	556	43	126	June 1892	July 1893

Introductory Memoranda have been drawn up, dealing with the rules collectively, under the following heads:—

(1.) Date of establishment and registration; (2.) Objects; (3.) Form of government; (4.) Entrance fee and conditions of membership; (5.) Rate of contributions and mode of payment; (6.) Benefit funds; (7.) Regulations for disputes with employers; (8.) Attitude of members towards employers; (9.) Attitude of members towards non-unionists; (10.) Minimum wage, &c.; (11.) Provision of work for the unemployed; and (12.) Investment of funds.

Typical Rules printed at full length.

It was pointed out in the Introduction to the Rules that the necessity of uniformity of arrangement under the headings adopted, and of as much condensation as possible, involved in many cases a considerable amount of alteration in the order of the regulations, and the omission of any that appeared comparatively unimportant. It was therefore considered advisable to print the Rules of certain societies at full length, as examples of the form in which such Rules are generally drawn up. In making the selection of Rules for this purpose, care has been taken to choose those which appeared most typical of different classes, and which offered the strongest contrast with one another.

Table of Reference to Rules.

A Table of Reference has also been added, showing with regard to each Association (1) the number of the Rules according to their arrangement in the volume; (2) the number of the Answers to the Schedules of Questions, according to their arrangement in the three volumes of Answers for the Groups A., B., and C.; (3) the names of the witnesses and the numbers of the questions in the Minutes of Evidence relating to such Association.

Summaries of Evidence (oral and written).

XIV. In accordance with a resolution of the Commission on February 16th, 1893, the Secretary was directed to prepare Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written)

received by the Commission. Such Summaries have been compiled from the following :—

(1.) Minutes of Evidence and Appendices.
(2.) Answers to Schedules of Questions.
(3.) Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards.
(4.) Rules of Accident, Sick, and Superannuation Funds handed in to the Commission.
(5.) Various documents handed in or forwarded to the Commission from time to time, but not printed with the above.
(6.) Further correspondence on certain subjects.
(7.) Previous and current official publications.

Each Group has been divided into parts, and each part sub-divided into three principal headings, viz. :—(i.) Conditions of Labour, (ii.) Organisations, (iii.) Trade Disputes. Full references in the form of foot-notes are given to the various volumes of Evidence, Digests, and Documents upon which the statements in the summaries are founded. Forming part of these Summaries are certain Tables of Wages, Hours, &c., the compilation of which has involved much time.*

Summary.	Industries, &c.	Date when presented to Parliament.	Date of Publication.	No. of Pages.
Group A., Part I. -	Mines and quarries - -	Contained in this Volume.		55 (with diagram).
„ „ „ II. -	Iron, engineering, hardware, ship-building, and cognate trades.			52
„ B., „ I. -	Transport by water - -			53
„ „ „ II. -	Transport by land - -			39
„ C., „ I. -	Textile and clothing - -			46
„ „ „ II. -	Chemical, building, and miscellaneous trades.			59
Whole Commission -	Movements, Organisations, and Institutions.			43

As mentioned above, a full Index has been made of the Summaries, to which is added a complete List of Witnesses.

There are appended to the Summaries the following Appendices :—

(1.) Acts of Parliament referred to in the Evidence, with the amendments proposed by the Witnesses, in parallel columns.
(2.) Summary of the Returns received on State and Municipal Employment of Labour.
(3.) Summary on the Employment of Women.
(4.) The Economic Operation of the Royalty System (Extracts from the Final Report of the Commission appointed to inquire into the subject of Mining Royalties).
(5.) Memorandum on the Evidence relating to Employers' Liability.
(6.) Memorandum on the Evidence relating to The Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887.
(7.) Memorandum on the Evidence relating to The Merchant Shipping Acts, 1854–1890.
(8.) Memorandum on the Evidence relating to the Factory and Workshop Acts, 1878–1891.
(9.) The Administration of certain Industrial Enactments.

Assistant Agricultural Commissioners.

XV. In accordance with the decision of the Commission the question of the appointment of Assistant Agricultural Commissioners was reserved for Committee B.

That Committee resolved, on 31st July 1891, to appoint some competent person to be charged with the duty of analysing and condensing the evidence already collected within the last few years on the subject of agricultural labour, with a view to its being placed before the Commission in a convenient form; also, to place the selection of the person to undertake this duty in the hands of Lord Hartington, Lord Derby, and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach. In pursuance of this resolution Mr. William C. Little was appointed Assistant Commissioner for that work.

* *I should like to call especial attention to the Tables of Wages contained in different parts of the Summaries of Evidence. These Tables do not pretend to represent true statistical averages; they are merely intended as convenient summaries of the vast amount of information contained in the evidence laid before the Commission on the subject of Wages. The sources of the information and the methods adopted in utilising those sources are in each case indicated, but it appears desirable to add this note to prevent the possibility of any misunderstanding.*—G.D.

The Committee further resolved, on 27th January 1892, that it was expedient that Assistant Commissioners should be appointed to collect evidence on the question of Agricultural Labour, and that the Duke of Devonshire should confer with Mr. Little and with the Board of Agriculture as to the number of such Commissioners and their mode of procedure.* Eventually 12 Assistant Commissioners were appointed, and the information collected by them has been published in the following volumes:—

England (Volume I.).

Part.	Name of Commissioner.	Districts reported upon.
I.	Bear, W. E. - -	(1) Woburn (Beds); (2) St. Neots (Hunts and Beds); (3) Thakeham (Sussex); (4) Basingstoke (Hants); (5) Southwold (Notts); (6) Melton Mowbray (Leicester).
II.	Chapman, C. M. -	(1) Thame (Oxon and Bucks); (2) Wantage (Berks); (3) North Witchford (Cambridge); (4) Crediton (Devon); (5) Truro (Cornwall); (6) Atcham (Salop); (7) Buntingford (Herts).
III.	Fox, A. Wilson -	(1) Thingoe (Suffolk); (2) Swaffham (Norfolk); (3) Glendale (Northumberland); (4) Wigton (Cumberland); (5) Garstang (Lancs.).
IV.	Richards, R. C. -	(1) Stratford-upon-Avon (Warwick); (2) Brixworth (Northampton); (3) Cirencester (Gloucester); (4) Monmouth (Mon.); (5) Bromyard (Hereford); (6) Nantwich (Cheshire); (7) Belper (Derby).
V.	Spencer, A. J. -	(1) Dorchester (Dorset); (2) Pewsey (Wilts); (3) Hollingbourn (Kent); (4) Langport (Somerset); (5) Maldon (Essex); (6) Pershore (Worcester); (7) Godstone (Surrey).
VI.	Wilkinson, E. -	(1) Louth (Lincoln); (2) Driffield (Yorks, E. Riding); (3) Easingwold (Yorks, N. Riding); (4) Wetherby (Yorks, W. Riding); (5) Uttoxeter (Staffs. and Derby); (6) Holbeach (Lincoln).

Wales (Volume II.).

I.	Thomas, D. Lleufer -	(1) Bridgend and Cowbridge (Glamorgan); (2) Narberth (Pembroke and Carmarthen); (2) Llanfyllin (Montgomery); (4) Dolgelly (Merioneth); (5) Ruthin (Denbigh); (6) Anglesey (Anglesey); (7) Pwllheli (Carnarvon); (8) Builth (Brecon and Radnor), by Mr. Chapman.

Scotland (Volume III.).

I.	Rutherfurd, H. -	(1) Caithness, Orkney, Sutherland, and Ross; (2) Ayr, Renfrew, Bute, and South Argyll; (3) Stirling and Dumbarton; (4) North Lanark and Linlithgow; (5) Arable Districts of Wigtown, Kirkcudbright, and Dumfries;
	Gillespie, the late G. R.	(6) Arable Districts of Moray, Banff, and Nairn; (7) Arable Districts of Aberdeen and Kincardine; (8) Arable Districts of Forfar and East Perth.
II.	Pringle, R. H. -	(1) Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan; (2) Edinburgh and Haddington; (3) "Breadalbane" (A Highland Pastoral District); (4) Inverness (North) and Ross (South);
	Wilkinson, E. -	(5) Hill Districts of Selkirk, Peebles, and Dumfries; (6) Berwick and Roxburgh.

Ireland (Volume IV.).

I.	McCrea, R. - -	(1) Cookstown (Tyrone); (2) Ballyshannon (Donegal, Fermanagh, and Leitrim); (3) Ardee (Louth and Meath); (4) Downpatrick (Down); (5) Clones (Monaghan and Fermanagh); (6) Letterkenny (Donegal); (7) Limavady (Londonderry); (8) Ballymena (Antrim); (9) Castleblayney (Armagh and Monaghan); (10) Dromore West (Sligo); (11) Ballymahon (Longford and Westmeath).
II.	O'Brien, W. P. -	(1) Kenmare (Kerry); (2) Kanturk (Cork); (3) Naas (Kildare and Wicklow); (4) Ennistymon (Clare); (5) Cashel (Tipperary); (6) Wexford (Wexford); (7) Lismore (Waterford); (8) Thomastown (Kilkenny); (9) Kilmallock (Limerick and Cork); (10) Mountmelick (Queen's and King's Counties); (11) Carlow (Carlow).
III.	Richards, R. C. -	(1) Loughrea (Galway); (2) Roscrea (Tipperary); (3) Balrothery (Dublin); (4) Bailieborough (Cavan).
IV.	Fox, A. Wilson -	(1) Westport (Mayo); (2) Castlereagh (Mayo and Roscommon) (3) Skibbereen (Cork); (4) Delvin (Westmeath).

* Details with regard to the methods adopted will be found in Mr. Little's Final Report.

Indexes to Assistant Agricultural Commissioners' Reports.

A double Index, Analytical and General, has been drawn up from these Reports, on a plan suggested by Mr. Little. It was found to be impossible to incorporate the Analytical with the General Index, as the General Index would have been made too bulky if details on the more important subjects had been admitted into it.

The object of the General Index is to show where information upon any particular topic is to be found; the object of the Analytical Index is to give a synopsis of the information contained in the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners on the main heads of the inquiry as set out in the instructions to the Assistant Commissioners.

As shown by the following Table, over 1,800 pages have been indexed. The Indexes to the Welsh Reports (Volume II.) have, for the sake of convenience, been published with that volume of Reports.

Name of Assistant Agricultural Commissioner.	Date of Home Office Letter sanctioning Appointment as Assistant Commissioner.	Date of Termination of Appointment.	No. of District Reports.*	No. of Pages in Volume.	Date of Publication of Reports in Volume Form.
Mr. W. C. Little -	March 18, 1892	Dec. 31, 1893	(*See* List of Memoranda, &c. below.)		
ENGLAND.					
Mr. W. E. Bear -	June 4, 1892	Feb. 21, 1893	6	154 (11)†	May 13, 1893
Mr. C. M. Chapman -	March 18, 1892	June 30, 1893	7	162 (45)	October 6, 1893
Mr. A. Wilson Fox -	June 4, 1892	June 30, 1893	5	175 (28)	June 13, 1893
Mr. R. C. Richards -	June 4, 1892	June 30, 1893	7	120 (21)	June 13, 1893
Mr. A. J. Spencer -	March 18, 1892	May 13, 1893	7	115 (19)	August 1, 1893
Mr. E. Wilkinson -	June 4, 1892	May 13, 1893	6	117 (33)	May 13, 1893
WALES.					
Mr. D. Lleufer Thomas	March 18, 1892	April 30, 1893	8 (including 1 Report by Mr. Chapman).	174 (38) (including Indexes, 201).	Sept. 19, 1893
SCOTLAND.					
Mr. H. Rutherfurd -	August 5, 1892	June 30, 1893	8 (including 3 Reports by the late Mr. G. R. Gillespie).	164 (34)	October 20, 1893
Mr. R. H. Pringle -	October 29, 1892	June 30, 1893	6 (including 2 Reports by Mr. E. Wilkinson).	215 (35)	November 29, 1893
IRELAND.					
Mr. R. C. Richards -	(*See* above)	June 30, 1893	4	75 (13)	August 25, 1893
Mr. W. P. O'Brien, C.B.	July 21, 1892	June 30, 1893	11	131 (19)	August 25, 1893
Mr. A. Wilson Fox -	(*See* above)	June 30, 1893	4	142 (50)	December 2, 1893
Mr. R. McCrea -	July 21, 1892	June 30, 1893	11	129 (12)	October 18, 1893

* In addition to the District Reports, each Commissioner has drawn up a Summary Report.
† The figures in brackets refer to the number of pages in the Summary Reports.

Memoranda, &c. by Mr. W. C. Little.

The following Memoranda, Abstracts, &c., have been drawn up by Mr. W. C. Little, the Senior Assistant Agricultural Commissioner, and will be found printed in Volume V., Part. II., of this series of Reports. The first part (Volume V., Part I.) contains Mr. Little's General Report which summarises the results of the whole Inquiry with regard to the Agricultural Labourer.

England and Wales:—

(1.) Memorandum upon the Reports and Proceedings of the Royal Commission on Agricultural Interests (1879–1882), together with

A.—Abstract of Evidence relating to the Agricultural Labourer.

B. C. D. and E.—Abstracts of Reports, in so far as they relate to the subject of the Agricultural Labourer, of the following Assistant Commissioners:—

B.—Mr. John Coleman;
C.—Mr. Andrew Doyle;
D.—Mr. S. B. L. Druce;
E.—Mr. W. C. Little.

Analytical Index to the more important subjects referred to in Abstract of Evidence (A. and in Abstracts of Assistant Commissioners' Reports (B. C. D. and E.).

(2.) Memorandum on the Reports and Proceedings of the Children's Employment Commission (1862) and the Commission on the Employment of Children, Young Persons, and Women in Agriculture (1867).

(3.) Memorandum, with Tables, upon the Census Returns, 1871, 1881, and 1891.

Scotland:—

(1.) Memorandum upon the Reports and Proceedings of the Royal Commission on Agricultural Interests (1879–1882), together with

F.—Abstract of Evidence, relating to the Agricultural Labourer of Scotland.

G. and H.—Abstracts of Reports in so far as they relate to the subject of the Agricultural Labourer, of the following Assistant Commissioners.
G.—Mr. James Hope;
H.—Mr. George Walker; and
Analytical Index to the more important subjects referred to in Abstract of Evidence (F.) and in Abstracts of Assistant Commissioners' Reports (G. and H.).

(2.) Memorandum upon the Reports and Proceedings of the Commission on the Employment of Children, Young Persons, and Women in Agriculture (1867).

(3.) Memorandum, with Tables, upon the Census Returns, 1881 and 1891.

Ireland:—

(1.) Abstract of the Evidence contained in the Reports and Proceedings of the Royal Commission (Cowper Commission) on the Land Acts (Ireland), 1886, together with Analytical Index to the more important subjects referred to in the Abstract.

(2.) Memorandum upon Reports from Poor Law Inspectors on the Wages of Agricultural Labourers in Ireland, 1870.

(3.) Memorandum upon the Labourers (Ireland) Acts, 1883, 1885, 1886, 1891, and 1892, with Reports communicated by the Local Government Board of Ireland, and Extracts from Evidence given before a Select Committee of the House of Commons in 1884 (with Map).

(4.) Memorandum upon the Reports and Proceedings of the Royal Commission on Agricultural Interests (1879–1882), together with Abstract of Evidence relating to the Agricultural Labourer of Ireland, given before that Commission, and Analytical Index to the more important subjects referred to in the Abstract.

(5.) Memorandum upon the Reports and Proceedings of the Royal Commission of Inquiry (the Bessborough Commission), 1880–81, into the working of the Landlord and Tenant (Ireland) Act, 1870, together with Abstract of Evidence and Index.

(6.) Memorandum, with Tables, upon the Census Returns, 1881 and 1891.

Lady Assistant Commissioners.

XVI. In accordance with the decision of the Commission the question of the appointment of Lady Assistant Commissioners was reserved for Committee C.

It having been represented that in the case of women's labour, the Commission was prevented by the nature of its composition and the place of its meeting from obtaining much of the evidence it required, Committee C. resolved, on December 2nd, 1891, to appoint two such Commissioners for the investigation of the problems connected with women's labour, Mr. Mundella and Mr. Courtney to draw up a list of suitable persons for the work. On February 2nd, 1892, it was further resolved that four instead of two Assistant Commissioners should be appointed, and that Miss E. Orme, Miss C. E. Collet, Miss May Abraham, and Miss M. H. Irwin should be recommended to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for such appointments.

(*a*) Scope of inquiry.

At a meeting on 7th March 1892, at which the Chairman of the Commission, the Chairman of Committee C., and the Lady Assistant Commissioners were present, the following points were mentioned as those to be specially kept in view in the investigation of women's work:—

(*a.*) Difference in the rate of wages of men and women.
(*b.*) Alleged grievances of women.
(*c.*) Effects of women's industrial employment on their health, morality, and the home.

The Assistant Commissioners were also instructed to inquire into the existence and causes of the exclusion of women from trades in which women's work is not unsuitable.

It was agreed that the method of investigation should be—
(1.) To make use of existing information in Parliamentary Papers, &c.
(2.) To visit centres of industry and take evidence from employers, employed, and other persons.
(3.) To present these conclusions in a report.

It was further resolved that every report sent in to the Commission should bear the signature of at least two of the Assistant Commissioners.

In consequence of this requirement of a double signature to these reports it has been found advisable to exclude expressions of opinion as to proposed legislation and other matters, and the Assistant Commissioners have endeavoured to confine themselves to the statement of the facts observed and the evidence given during the course of their investigations.

(*b.*) Reports.

Miss Collet commenced her work in London, where she received evidence from women and girls engaged in the following industries: tailoring, book-sewing, mantle-making, feather-curling, staymaking, silk hat trimming, shirtmaking, jewel-polishing, gold-embroidering, wigmaking, jewel-case making, flower-making, fur-pulling, rope works, india-rubber works, mineral water factories, sweet factories, and in printing; and from persons engaged in shops, milliners, dressmakers, laundresses, and match-makers.

She also received evidence from employers and others with special knowledge, and visited various factories and workshops. Miss Collet afterwards proceeded to Luton to investigate the conditions of work in the plaiting and hat-making industries, and to Bristol, Birmingham, Dudley, Walsall, Liverpool, and Manchester, where she gave

special attention to the conditions of women working in the wholesale clothing trade, seeing for this purpose factories, workshops, and home-workers. Miss Collet also visited the Staffordshire potteries.

Miss Abraham has devoted most of her time to visiting a large number of textile factories in Lancashire, Yorkshire, Cheshire, the Midlands, and other manufacturing centres, reporting very carefully on sanitary conditions. She has also taken evidence from home-workers in the hosiery trade, and has inquired into the condition of women engaged in confectionery, cycle, watch, shoddy, and flock trades.

Miss Abraham also inquired into the effect on health caused by conditions of work in white-lead works, visiting several in the North of England, taking medical evidence, and visiting the workers in their own homes and in the hospital.

She concluded her work with an inquiry into the condition of women's work in Leinster, Ulster, and Connaught, the result of which are embodied in a joint report from her and Miss Orme on Ireland.

Miss Irwin has inquired into the conditions of employment of women engaged in various industries in Scotland. She has reported on the textile industries in Glasgow and the West of Scotland, in the Southern district, and in Dundee, and the North of Scotland, and also in the following industries in Glasgow and Edinburgh:—

Tailoring, tobacco, potteries, and pipe-making, umbrella-making, brushmaking, sewing-machine manufacture, lead and colour works, employment as shop assistants, printing, dressmaking, bookbinding, publishing, stationery manufacture, map-printing, rubber and vulcanite manufacture, paper-making, rag-picking, rope-teasing, and sack-teasing. She has also reported on trade organisation.

Miss Orme has investigated the conditions of work of barmaids and other women engaged in serving refreshments in various towns in the United Kingdom, and has also made some inquiry into the conditions of the employment of women in Wales and in the province of Munster.

Name of Assistant Lady Commissioner.	Date of Home Office Letter sanctioning Appointment.	Date of Termination of Appointment.	Number of Reports.	Number of Pages in Reports.	Date of Publication of Reports in Volume-form.
Miss E. Orme - -	March 7th 1892	June 30th, 1893	3*	64	Nov. 6th 1893.
Miss C. E. Collet -		Feb. 28th, 1893	5	93	
Miss M. E. Abraham -		Feb. 28th, 1893	5	70	
Miss M. H. Irwin - -		Feb. 28th, 1893	5†	88	
Miss Orme and Miss Abraham (jointly).			1	34	
				349	

* This includes one Report, viz., "Report upon the condition of women in the nail, chain, and bolt making industries in the Black Country," not bound with the volume of Lady Commissioners' Reports, but printed in Volume II., Minutes of Evidence, Group A.

† This includes three Reports sent in to the Commission by Miss Irwin, but subsequently compiled by Miss Orme.

The Senior Lady Assistant Commissioner having informed the Secretary that in her opinion the Tables of Contents to the Reports of the Lady Assistant Commissioners were adequate and that no index was necessary, no index has been undertaken.

Several meetings of the Lady Assistant Commissioners were held at the Office, and were attended by the Secretary.

Summary of Lady Commissioners' Reports, &c.

The Secretary has prepared, from the information collected by the Lady Assistant Commissioners, from the Minutes of Evidence given before the Commission, and from other official sources (including the Reports of the House of Lords Committee on the Sweating System, and Mr. Charles Booth's work "Labour and Life of the People"), a Summary for the use of the Commission, appended to which are several Tables of Women's Wages (arranged in descending order), Diagrams comparing Men's and Women's Wages, &c., and Table of Women's Wages, compiled from the evidence given before the House of Lords Committee on the Sweating System. This Summary is printed on pp. 472–550 of this Volume as Appendix III. to the Summaries of Evidence.

Foreign Reports:

XVII. In accordance with the statement made by the Chairman in his opening speech, and with subsequent resolutions of the Commission, the Foreign and Colonial Offices were requested to make collections of literature on the Labour Question in England and Foreign Countries and to forward Reports to the Commission with these collections.

(*a.*) Committee appointed.

Précis and Abstracts were from time to time drawn up from the foreign literature forwarded by the Foreign Office on the Labour Question in England, but the Committee

which was appointed by the Commission on March 10th, 1892, to consider these, decided that they should be circulated among the Members of the Commission but should not be published.

Reports and literature as to the Labour Questions in Foreign Countries were forwarded from time to time by the Foreign Office to the Commission, and Abstracts were made from the literature to supplement the Foreign Office Reports.

(*b.*) Recommendation of the Committee.

The Commission eventually resolved on the recommendation of the Committee on Foreign Reports that the Secretary should prepare reports from these and other materials collected by him, and that the following Note* be inserted in such reports when published :—

Note.

> The Commission has received a large number of documents from the Foreign Office. These have proved in some cases insufficient for the purposes of the Commission, and in other cases too voluminous to make it possible to publish them in the form received.
>
> The Secretary has therefore been directed to prepare reports from these and from other sources for the use of the Commission. These reports are to be published in connection with the proceedings of the Commission, but the Commission is in no way responsible for the statements of fact or of opinion which they contain.

It may be added that by adopting this course instead of appointing Assistant Commissioners to travel and collect information, a very large saving of expenditure was effected.

(*c.*) Terms of Royal Warrant kept in view.

In all these Reports the Terms of the Royal Warrant under which the Commission was appointed, have from the first been kept in view, and the question has been dealt with from the practical point of view of the promotion of industrial peace. An attempt has been made in each case to deal with the whole of the vast existing literature on the subject, whether official or unofficial; and this attempt, whatever its value, is the first which has ever been made.

(*d.*) List of Reports.

The following is a list of the Reports which have been undertaken, and gives but a slight idea of the amount of labour involved :—

Vol.	Country, &c.	Approximate No. of Books, Reports, and Pamphlets from which Information has been obtained.*	No. of Pages of Printed Matter in Report.	When Presented to Parliament.	When Published.
I.	United States	200	55	June 1892	February 1893
II.	The Colonies and the Indian Empire (with an Appendix on the Migration of Labour).	155†	256	June 1892	April 1893
III.	Holland	30	37	June 1893	September 1893
IV.	Belgium	110	64	June 1893	October 1893
V.	Germany	200	110§	June 1893	November 1893
VI.	France	180	143§	June 1893	December 1893
VII.	Switzerland	70	48	June 1893	December 1893
VIII.	Italy	120	100§	June 1893	February 1894
IX.	Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Spain and Portugal.	120	65	June 1893	April 1894
X.	Russia	50	62§	June 1893	April 1894
XI.	Austria-Hungary and the Balkan States.	220	225§	June 1893	May 1894

* Works in several volumes are counted as one work.

† This does not include the Foreign Office Reports on the Colonies, and on Brazil, the Argentine Republic, &c., which were used for the Migration Appendix more than for the actual Reports on the Labour Question in Canada, Australia, and the Crown Colonies.

§ Excluding maps.

Library Catalogue.

XVIII. A detailed Catalogue of the English Books, Reports, Pamphlets, &c., in the Commission Library has been prepared, but has not been printed. A record of all such Reports, Acts of Parliament, Books, &c., received through the Stationery Office, or from officials, bodies, and private individuals, is entered up as the books, &c. are received. About 2,500 such books, &c. (4,000, including duplicate copies), are in the possession of the Commission.

* At the request of the Foreign Office an addition to this Note was subsequently made.

In addition to this catalogue, catalogues of the Foreign Blue Books, publications, &c., upon which the different Foreign and Colonial Reports have been founded, are printed at the end of each volume of reports of that series.

Newspaper cuttings.

XIX. For the purposes of the Commission, newspaper cuttings bearing upon the Labour Question have been daily received from the Press Cutting Agency, and have been duly pasted into proper books and indexed. On some days as many as 90 cuttings have been received, but the daily average has been from 30 to 40. These cuttings have filled some 10,000 folio pages.

Minute Papers.

XX. As the work of the Commission developed, and the staff increased, it was found necessary to establish a system of Minutes in October 1892.

About 500 Minute Papers have been filed since that date, some of which consist of five and six, and even more foolscap pages. A record has been kept, thus enabling the clerk in charge to at once ascertain the whereabouts of every Minute Paper.

Printing.

XXI. Owing to the large amount of matter placed in the Printers' hands by the Commission, the superintendence and control of the printing has necessitated considerable work and correspondence.

Full Memoranda of Instructions as to type, style of printing, &c., have been given to the printers in every case, and a duplicate of such instructions has been kept in the Office. For all documents sent to be printed the receipt of the printers has been obtained. A complete record, showing the various stages of the printing from the date on which the manuscript is sent to printers to the date of publication, has also been kept. A duplicate copy has also been entered up to date periodically for the use of Her Majesty's Stationery Office, in order to enable them to call the Printers' attention to any excess of time in furnishing proofs.

The inability of the Printers to cope, at certain periods, with the work of the Commission, owing to insufficiency of type and to other causes, has resulted in serious delay in the work of the Office. The repeated urgent calls by the Committees and Commissioners for certain portions of the work have involved a large amount of correspondence, and it has been found necessary to send frequent letters of inquiry as to the non-delivery of proofs.

In connection with the printing, over 750 letters and Memoranda of Instructions have been written either to the Printers themselves or to the Stationery Office, and about 350 letters, &c. received from them.

In addition, the Office has undertaken the checking of the revised proofs of the Assistant Agricultural Commissioners' Reports, and the Lady Assistant Commissioners' reports, with the copies which were printed as soon as each Report was compiled by the Assistant Commissioners for the use of the Members of the Commission. The corrections and additions were in many instances very considerable; the work of checking was therefore no light task.

In all, including the Reports of the Assistant Commissioners and various Memoranda, the printers have printed over 15,000 pages, about 12,000 pages of which have been corrected in the Office.

The printing and proof-reading of the Fifth and Final Report has involved a considerable amount of extra work for the greatly-reduced Office Staff during the last few months. Every proof has been numbered, and a record kept of the disposal of every copy of any confidential document connected with the Report which has been issued to the Commission.

Stationery, small stores, &c.

XXII. Number of Demands sent in to Her Majesty's Stationery Office for Parliamentary publications - - - - - - 419

Number of Demands sent in to Her Majesty's Stationery Office for small stores and published books - - - - - 575

Number of letters, &c. received from Her Majesty's Stationery Office and from Messrs. Eyre and Spottiswoode respecting stationery, books, &c. - - - - - - - 230

Number of letters, &c. sent to Her Majesty's Stationery Office and to Messrs. Eyre and Spottiswoode respecting stationery, stores, &c. 210

Petty cash expenses.

XXIII. All moneys expended out of petty cash have been recorded in a rough memorandum cash book; and the items from this book monthly entered into a Petty Cash Book. Monthly accounts of the expenditure of the Commission, together with the vouchers, have been sent to Her Majesty's Treasury for audit. On the accounts being passed, the totals of the sub-heads are posted into a Cash Book, which thus shows the balance of the

Commission's Account with the Treasury. Much time has been necessarily spent, during the sittings of the Commission, in paying witnesses: over their accounts, as well as over the accounts of Commissioners, Assistant Agricultural Commissioners, and Lady Commissioners (whose accounts are sent to the Office for transmission to the Treasury), a great deal of correspondence has taken place.

Monthly statements (in duplicate) of the salaries due to the Secretarial and Clerical staff of the Commission, the Assistant Agricultural Commissioners, and the Lady Commissioners, have also been sent to the Treasury.

Office and Commission Room.

XXIV. The Office was, in the first instance, at 119, Victoria Street, Westminster, but was removed, on June 17th 1891, to its present premises at 44, Parliament Street. The whole of these premises were, with the exception of one or two rooms, painted and re-arranged during their occupation by the Commission, and the whole sanitary arrangements, which were in a most unsatisfactory condition, were also re-organised without any break in the work of the Office. The large number of letters and documents to be sent out involved the employment of a comparatively large staff of Messengers, some of whose names are appended to this Report, and of whose intelligence and industry I wish to speak very highly.

During the sittings of the Commission at the Commission Room at Westminster Hall a Messenger was always in attendance, together with a Constable, and an Attendant provided by the Board of Works.

The admission of the Press and the Public to the Commission Room involved (1) the necessity of publishing the Minutes of Evidence at once; (2) the necessity of rules and regulations as to the use of the Room; and (3) considerable correspondence with the Editors of newspapers and members of the Public who desired to attend the meetings of the Commission. I thought it convenient to appoint a Committee of the Press, with Mr. J. Pullan, of the "Daily News" as Chairman, to advise me on the various questions in connection with the representatives of the Press.

General summary of letters, &c. issued and letters received.

XXV. Between April 1891 and April 30th, 1894, the work of the Commission has involved the following amount of correspondence:—

Letters, returns, &c. inwards (indexed and filed)	13,500
Letters outwards	17,500
Printed documents, reports, circulars, &c. sent by post	31,300
Total letters, reports, &c. sent by post	48,800

A record has been kept by the messengers of all letters, reports, &c. posted by them through the Home Office. Such record shows the name and address of the addressee, and has in many cases been found of great service.

Extra duties of the Secretary.

XXVI. In addition to his duties connected with the above work, the Secretary has represented the Commission at one Socialist, two Co-operative, and three Trades Union Congresses, and has been sent on missions to six foreign countries, including the United States.

Personnel of staff, and general observations.

XXVII. This, then, has been the work I have been directed to undertake with the staff at my disposal. A glance at the Table in the Appendix will show how small that staff has been, and I venture to hope that the Commission will be satisfied to know that so much work of such a difficult character has been accomplished within so short a period.

I should like to add that I am deeply indebted to the whole of the staff for their unswerving devotion to their work. Even the unpaid clerks have made considerable personal sacrifices in order to save me inconvenience. Of the zeal and energy which has been displayed it is hardly necessary to speak in face of the work that has been done, but I feel bound to add that as a general rule my difficulty has been to make the clerks take adequate holidays. It is not every head of an Office that has felt called upon to ask for medical certificates to the effect that the short holidays taken were sufficient.

The difficulties connected with the organisation of the staff of a Commission are not generally known, and may perhaps be here stated for the information of the Commission. The work of a Commission is temporary, and offers no future. It is therefore naturally difficult to get good clerks at all. The clerks are engaged by the month as the personal staff of the Secretary; they are not bound to give more than a month's notice should they desire to seek work elsewhere. Further, they have no claim on any public department for permanent employment however long they may have

served. It might be considered natural therefore that when clerks have, under such a system, obtained a special knowledge of great value, they would seize any opportunity of what is called "bettering" themselves as soon as possible when their work appears drawing to a close. It could hardly be expected that the clerks should, as many of them have done towards the end of such temporary employment, unhesitatingly refuse offers of permanent employment. I may point out to the Commission that if the members of the staff had taken a different view of their duties, I should have spent my whole time in educating a succession of clerks for other appointments, and it would have been extremely difficult, if not impossible, for me to carry on the work of the Office.

I should also like to call the attention of the Commission to the variety that there has been in the work from two points of view. In the first place the work was originally more of a mechanical kind, and consisted of taking shorthand and in sending out the great number of letters which I had daily to dictate. Later a transition took place from this mechanical work to highly skilled work, such as précis-writing and summarising, of which the clerks employed had naturally no previous experience or knowledge. A further difficulty might have been expected to arise in connection with the great variety of skilled work which it has been necessary for me to keep going at the same time. Perhaps the clerk in charge of one of these pieces of work would, on its completion, have to begin working in a subordinate position on some other piece. I have never experienced the slightest difficulty in connection with such transition, a fact which I think is greatly to the credit of the staff.

I have appended a list of the staff in the order of the dates of their appointments. The Commission will observe that a large portion of the staff are women, and after what I have already said, I need hardly state that the experiment which has been made for the first time in this direction has been, in my opinion, a success.

Mr. Hornby, Assistant Secretary, I entrusted with the charge of the accounts, the printing, the necessary personal communication with the Treasury and Stationery Office, and the general supervision of the men clerks. I cannot speak too highly of his unfailing tact and good humour, and the energy and ability with which, as soon as his own work has been finished, he has thrown himself into any other work, such as formerly the Analysis, latterly the Agricultural Index, and at other times, work I might have on hand connected with the Acts of Parliament, in which his legal training has been of great use to me. No one who has not had official experience can fully appreciate the advantages of such qualities. It is not too much for me to say that Mr. Hornby's assistance has been priceless to me.

To the Assistant Commissioners generally, and especially to the Senior Assistant Agricultural Commissioner and the Senior Lady Assistant Commissioner, I am indebted for the courtesy which has made the supervision which it is the business of the Secretary to exercise, a pleasant instead of an irksome duty. My obligations to Mr. Little with regard to the Agricultural Index I have expressed elsewhere.

To my colleague, Mr. Burnett, I should like to express my cordial thanks for the readiness with which he has always placed his great knowledge at my service in spite of the heavy work entailed upon him by his Department.

In different volumes of the Foreign Reports I have placed on record the assistance I have received from foreign statesmen, diplomatists, and economists.

I am,
Your Grace's obedient Servant,
GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

To His Grace the Duke of Devonshire, K.G.,
Chairman of the Royal Commission on Labour.

Appendix I.

Table showing the Number of Women Clerks, Men Clerks, Typists, and Messengers in the Office of the Commission at the end of each Month from April, 1891, to May, 1894, with Dates of Increase and Decrease.

Date.	Women Clerks.		Men Clerks.		Typists.		Total of Clerical Staff at end of Month.†	Messengers.	
	Dates of Increase or Decrease.	Number at end of Month	Dates of Increase or Decrease.	Number at end of Month.	Dates of Increase or Decrease.	Number at end of Month.		Dates of Increase or Decrease.	Number at end of Month.
1891.									
April 30th	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	April 28th	1
May 31st	May 4th	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
June 30th	—	1	June 1st „ 15th „ 19th	1 2 3 } 3	—	—	4	June 25th	4
July 31st	—	1	July 4th „ 6th „ 27th	4 5 6 } 6	—	—	7	—	4
August 31st	—	1	Aug. 31st	8	—	—	9	—	4
September 30th	—	1	—	8	—	—	9	—	4
October 31st	—	1	—	8	—	—	9	—	4
November 30th	Nov. 30th	2	Nov. 9th	9	—	—	11	—	4
December 31st	Dec. 7th	3	Dec. 5th „ 31st	8 8 } 8*	Dec. 10th	2	13*	—	4
1892.									
January 31st	Jan. 4th	6	—	7	—	2	15	Jan. 18th	5
February 29th	—	6	Feb 8th „ 15th	8 9 } 9	Feb. 15th	3	18	—	5
March 31st	Mar. 28th	7	—	9	—	3	19	—	5
April 30th	—	7	—	9	—	3	19	—	5
May 31st	—	7	—	9	—	3	19	—	5
June 30th	—	7	June 30th	9	—	3	19	June 25th	4
July 31st	July 4th	9	July 2nd „ 31st	7 7 } 7*	—	3	19*	—	4
August 31st	Aug. 1st „ 8th „ 15th „ 27th „ 29th	10 11 12 } 12 11 12	—	6	—	3	21	—	4
September 30th	—	12	—	6	—	3	21	—	4
October 31st	—	12	—	6	—	3	21	—	4
November 30th	Nov. 21st „ 28th	11 12 } 12	—	6	—	3	21	—	4
December 31st	—	12	—	6	—	3	21	—	4
1893.									
January 31st	—	12	—	6	—	3	21	—	4
February 28th	—	12	—	6	—	3	21	—	4
March 31st	—	12	March 21st	5	—	3	20	—	4
April 30th	—	12	April 1st	4	—	3	19	April 22nd	3
May 31st	May 1st „ 8th	13 14 } 14	—	4	—	3	21	—	3
June 30th	June 1st	15	—	4	—	3	22	—	3
July 31st	July 1st „ 3rd	14 18 } 18	—	4	—	3	25	—	3
August 31st	—	18	—	4	—	3	25	—	3
September 30th	Sept. 9th	17	—	4	—	3	24	—	3
October 31st	—	17	—	4	—	3	24	—	3
November 30th	—	17	—	4	—	3	24	—	3
December 31st	Dec. 30th	11	—	4	—	3	18	—	3
1894.									
January 31st	Jan. 31st	11*	—	4	—	3	18*	—	3
February 28th	—	5	Feb. 28th	4*	—	3	12*	—	3
March 31st	March 31st	5*	March 31st	3*	March 3rd	—	8*	March 17th	2
April 30th	April 30th	1*	—	2	—	—	3*	April 30th	2
May 31st	—	—	May 31st	2*	—	—	2*	May 31st	2*

In addition to the above a Boy Copyist has been in the continuous employ of the Commission since November 2nd, 1892.

* Including clerks leaving on the last day of the month.
† Excluding unpaid clerks (*see* Appendix II. on opposite page).

Appendix II.

List of Clerks, Typists, and Messengers employed in the Office of the Commission on August 1st, 1893, according to Date of Appointment.

No.	Name.	Date of Appointment, &c.
	Clerks.	
1	Miss Fyson	Appointed 4th May 1891.
2	Mr. Short	Appointed 1st June 1891.
3	Mr. Shaxby	Appointed 4th July 1891.
4	Miss Robinson	Appointed 30th November 1891. Newnham College, Cambridge. Miss Robinson has shown a thorough knowledge of French and German, and has learned Dutch, Swedish, and Danish while in service of the Commission.
5	Miss E. Henderson	(Typist and Shorthand Writer.) Appointed 10th December 1891.
6	Miss Hills	(Typist and Shorthand Writer.) Appointed 10th December 1891.
7	Mr. Hart	Appointed 1st January 1892.
8	Miss J. Hogarth	Appointed 4th January 1892. Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford. 1st Class Lit. Hum. (Philosophy—Women's corresponding examination in 1888). Miss Hogarth has shown a thorough knowledge of French and German, a fair knowledge of Italian, and some knowledge of Spanish.
9	Miss Blomefield	Appointed 4th January 1892. Newnham College, Cambridge. 1st Class Moral Science Tripos, 1891. Miss Blomefield has shown a thorough knowledge of French and German.
10	Mr. Spyers, B.A.	Appointed 8th February 1892. Demy Magdalen College, Oxford. 2nd Class Classical Moderations, 1887. 2nd Class Lit. Hum. 1889. *Proxime accessit*, Chancellor's Prize Essay (English), 1890. Inner Temple.
11	Miss G. Henderson	(Typist and Shorthand Writer.) Appointed 15th February 1892.
12	Miss Anderson	Appointed 28th March 1892. Girton College, Cambridge. 2nd Class Moral Science Tripos, 1887. Miss Anderson has shown a thorough knowledge of French and German.
13	Miss Read	Appointed 4th July 1892. Girton College, Cambridge. 1st Class Mathematical Tripos, 1891; 1st Class Moral Science Tripos, 1892.
14	Miss Tracey	Appointed 4th July 1892.
15	Miss Macaulay	Appointed 1st August 1892. Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford. 2nd Class Lit. Hum. 1892.
16	Miss Elsee	Appointed 8th August 1892. Girton College, Cambridge. 3rd Class History Tripos, 1892.
17	Miss Jenkins	Appointed 15th August 1892. Somerville Hall, Oxford. 1st Class Classical Moderations, 1892. Miss Jenkins has shown a thorough knowledge of French.
18	Miss E. Hogarth	Appointed 28th November 1892.
19	Mr. Hewitt Bostock, M.A.	Appointed 1st March 1893. (*Unpaid.*) Trinity College, Cambridge. 3rd Class Mathematical Tripos. Barrister-at-Law, Inner Temple.
20	Miss Luard	Appointed 1st May 1893. Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford. 2nd Class History Schools, 1889.
21	Mrs. Campbell	Appointed 8th May 1893.
22	Miss Faithfull	Appointed 1st June 1893.
23	Miss Sharpley	Appointed 3rd July 1893. Newnham College, Cambridge. 2nd Class Moral Science Tripos, 1893.
24	Miss Fowler	Appointed 3rd July 1893. Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford. 2nd Class History Schools, 1893.
25	Miss Platt	Appointed 3rd July 1893. Newnham College, Cambridge. 1st Class History Tripos, 1893.
26	Miss Lees	Appointed 3rd July 1893. Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford. 1st Class History Schools, 1893. Miss Lees has shown a thorough knowledge of German and Italian.
27	Mr. Furse, B.A.	Appointed 1st July 1893. (*Unpaid.*) Trinity College, Oxford. 3rd Class Lit. Hum. 1893.
	Messengers.	
1	Mr. Francis	Appointed 28th April 1891. Previously constable in the Metropolitan Police Force.
2	Mr. Sell	Appointed 25th June 1891. Previously sergeant in the Metropolitan Police Force.
3	Mr. Jury	Appointed 25th June 1891. Previously constable in the Metropolitan Police Force.

Appendix III.

List of Publications (with the Prices and Postage) issued by the Royal Commission on Labour.

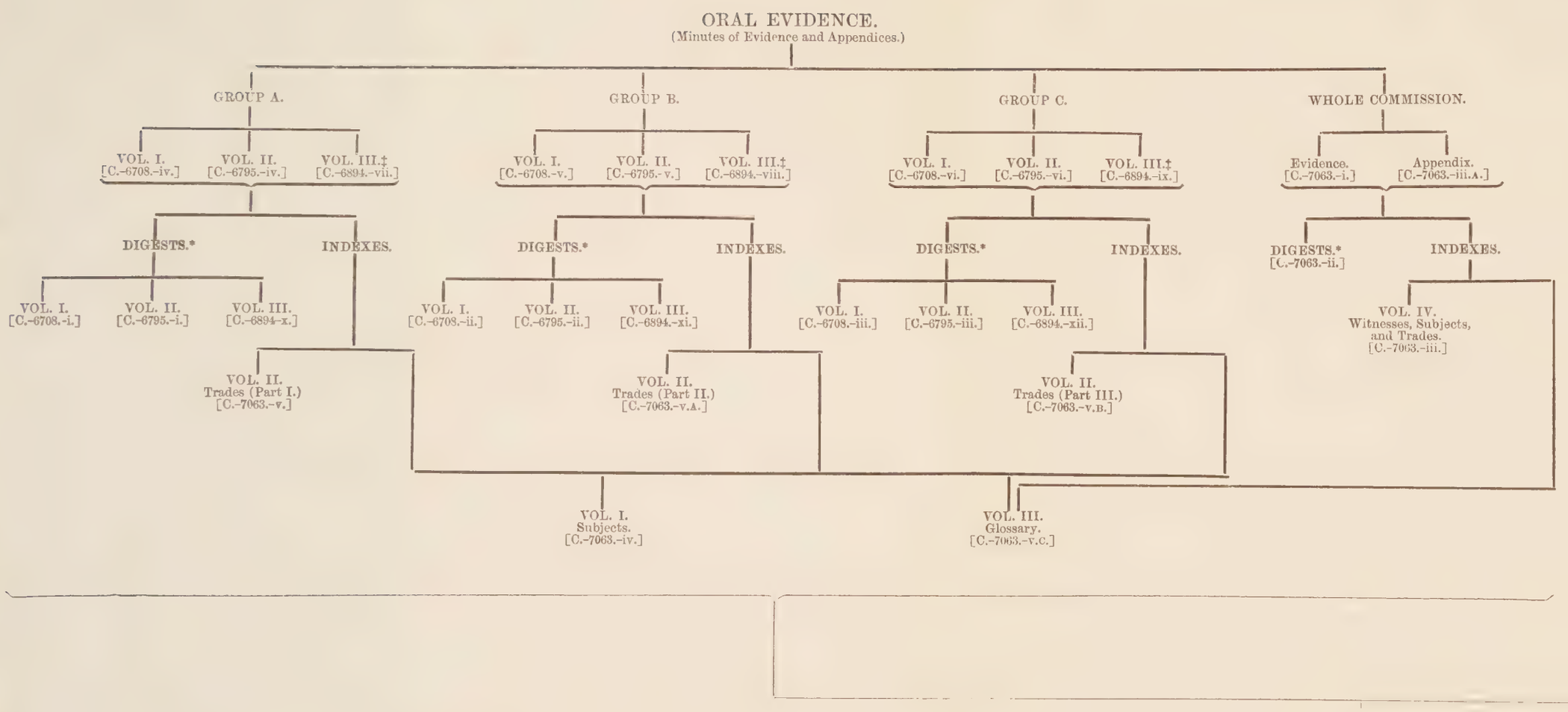
Reference Number.	Title.	Price.	Price with Postage.
		s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*
	Reports.		
[C. 6708.]	First Report	0 0½	0 1
[C. 6795.]	Second Report	0 0½	0 1
[C. 6894.]	Third Report	0 0½	0 1
[C. 7063.]	Fourth Report	0 0½	0 1
[C. 7421.]	Fifth and Final Report: Part I.—The Report	2 0	2 4½
[C. 7421.-I.]	Fifth and Final Report: Part II.—Secretary's Report on the Work of the Office: Summaries of Evidence (with Index); and Appendices.	5 9	6 4½
	Minutes of Evidence.		
[C. 6708.-IV.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group A. (Vol. I.)—"Mining."	3 10½	4 4
[C. 6795.-IV.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group A. (Vol. II.)—"Mining (continued), Iron, Engineering, and Hardware."	5 3	5 10½
[C. 6894.-VII.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group A. (Vol. III.)—"Mining and Quarrying, Iron and Steel, Chain-making, Nail-making, Engineering, and Shipbuilding Trades."	5 0	5 7½
[C. 6708.-V.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group B. (Vol. I.)—"Docks, Wharves, and Shipping."	5 9	6 4½
[C. 6795.-V.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group B. (Vol. II.)—"Transport by Water (Docks, Wharves, Shipping, and Canals), and Transport by Land (Tramways, Omnibuses, and Cabs)."	3 6	4 0
[C. 6894.-VIII.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group B. (Vol. III.)—"Transport by Water (Docks, Wharves, Shipping, and Canals), and Transport by Land (Tramways, Omnibuses, Cabs, and Railways)."	9 10	10 7
[C. 6708.-VI.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group C. (Vol. I.)—"Textile."	4 7	5 1
[C. 6795.-VI.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group C. (Vol. II.)—"Textile, Clothing, Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades."	3 10	4 4
[C. 6894.-IX.]	Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices, taken before Group C. (Vol. III.)—"Textile, Clothing, Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades."	6 2	6 9½
[C. 7063.-I.]	Minutes of Evidence taken before the Commission Sitting as a Whole (One Volume).—"Representatives of Co-operative Societies and of various Movements and Public Officials."	4 11	5 6½
[C. 7063.-III.A.]	Appendix to Minutes of Evidence taken before the Commission as a Whole.	3 1	3 7
	The whole of the Evidence taken by the Commission is also published in separate days at the nominal price of 2*d.* for each day's evidence, or with postage, 3*d.* or 3½*d.* The Evidence taken before the Commission consists of 45 Days before Group A., 46 before Group B., 43 before Group C., and 17 before the Commission Sitting as a Whole.		
	Digests of Evidence.		
[C. 6708.-I.]	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group A. (Vol. I.)—"Mining"	0 10½	1 1½
[C. 6795.-I.]	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group A. (Vol. II.)—"Mining (continued), Iron, Engineering, and Hardware."	1 7	1 11½

Reference Number.	Title.	Price.	Price with Postage.
		s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*
[C. 6894.–x.] -	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group A. (Vol. III.)—"Mining, "Iron, Engineering, Hardware, Shipbuilding, and cognate Trades; "with Indexes to Précis, Vols. I., II., and III."	1 7	1 10½
[C. 6708.–ii.] -	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group B. (Vol. I.)—"Docks, Wharves, and Shipping."	0 9½	1 0
[C. 6795.–ii.] -	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group B. (Vol. II.)—"Transport by Water (Docks, Wharves, Shipping, and Canals), "and Transport by Land (Tramways, Omnibuses, and Cabs)."	1 5	1 9½
[C. 6894.–xi.] -	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group B. (Vol. III.)—"Transport by Water (Docks, Shipping, and Canals), and "Transport by Land (Omnibuses, Cabs, Drays, and Railways); "with Indexes to Précis, Vols. I., II., and III."	1 10	2 2½
[C. 6708.–iii.] -	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group C. (Vol. I.)—"Textile"	0 10	1 1
[C. 6795.–iii.] -	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group C. (Vol. II.)—"Textile, Clothing, Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades."	1 4	1 8
[C. 6894.–xii.] -	Digest of the Evidence taken before Group C. (Vol. III.)—"Textile, "Clothing, Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades; with "Indexes to Précis, Vols. I., II., and III."	2 3	2 7½
[C. 7063.–ii.] -	Digest of the Evidence taken before the Commission Sitting as a Whole (One Volume).—Representatives of Co-operative Societies and of various Movements, and Public Officials; with Indexes to Précis and Abstracts.	0 7	0 9
	ANSWERS TO SCHEDULES AND TABULATED RULES.		
[C. 6795.–vii.] -	Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission, Group A.—"Mining, Iron, Engineering, Hardware, Shipbuilding, and Cognate Trades."	3 9	4 3
[C. 6795.–viii.] -	Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission, Group B.—"Transport and Agriculture (the term 'Transport' including Railways, Shipping, Canals, Docks, and Tramways)."	1 6	1 10½
[C. 6795.–ix.] -	Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission, Group C.—"Textile, Clothing, Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades."	7 8	8 6
[C. 6795.–xii.] -	Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, together with Introductory Memoranda.	4 5	4 11
	INDEXES.		
[C. 7063.–iv.] -	Indexes (Vol. I.). Index to the Evidence taken before Groups A., B., and C. "Subjects."	1 3	1 6
[C. 7063.–v.] -	Indexes (Vol. II.). Index to the Evidence taken before Groups A., B., and C. "Trades.—Part I., Group A."	0 6	0 8
[C. 7063.–v.a.] -	Indexes (Vol. II.). Index to the Evidence taken before Groups A., B., and C. "Trades.—Part II., Group B."	0 9	0 11½
[C. 7063.–v.b.] -	Indexes (Vol. II.). Index to the Evidence taken before Groups A., B., and C. "Trades.—Part III., Group C."	0 9	0 11½
[C. 7063.–iii.b.] -	Indexes (Vol. III.). Glossary of the Technical Terms used in the Evidence taken before Groups A., B., and C.	0 10	1 0½
[C. 7063.–iii.] -	Indexes (Vol. IV.). Indexes to the Evidence given by Representatives of Co-operative Societies and of various Movements, and by Public Officials, before the Royal Commission on Labour (Sitting as a Whole).—I. Witness Index (Analysis); II. Subjects Index; III. Trades Index.	0 10½	1 1½
	SUMMARIES.		
	Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written) given before the Committees A., B., and C., and the Commission Sitting as a Whole, together with Index and Appendices (*included in Fifth Report, Part II.*)		
	REPORTS ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.		
[C. 6894.–xxiii.]	The Employment of Women.—Reports by *Miss Eliza Orme, Miss Clara E. Collet, Miss May E. Abraham, and Miss Margaret H. Irwin* (Lady Assistant Commissioners) on the Conditions of Work in various Industries in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.	2 10	3 4
	Summary of the Reports of the Lady Assistant Commissioners, with Tables and Diagram of Women's Wages (*included in Fifth Report, Part II.*)		

Reference Number.	Title.	Price.	Price with Postage.
	REPORTS on the AGRICULTURAL LABOURER.	*s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*
	England.		
[C. 6894.–I.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. I., England, Part I.—Reports by *Mr. William E. Bear* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Bedford, Hampshire, Huntingdon, Leicester, Nottingham, and Sussex, with Summary Report prefixed.	1 3	1 6
[C. 6894.–II.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. I., England, Part II.—Reports by *Mr. Cecil M. Chapman* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Cambridgeshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, Hertfordshire, Oxfordshire, and Shropshire, with Summary Report prefixed.	1 4	1 8½
[C. 6894.–III.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. I., England, Part III.—Reports by *Mr. Arthur Wilson Fox* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Cumberland, Lancashire, Norfolk, Northumberland, and Suffolk, with Summary Report prefixed.	1 5	1 9½
[C. 6894.–IV.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. I., England, Part IV.—Reports by *Mr. Roger C. Richards* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Cheshire, Derbyshire, Gloucestershire, Herefordshire, Monmouth, Northamptonshire, and Warwickshire, with Summary Report prefixed.	1 0	1 3
[C. 6894.–V.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. I., England, Part V.—Reports by *Mr. Aubrey J. Spencer* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Dorset, Essex, Kent, Somerset, Surrey, Wilts, and Worcester, with Summary Report prefixed.	1 0	1 3
[C. 6894.–VI.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. I., England, Part VI.—Reports by *Mr. Edward Wilkinson* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Derbyshire, Lincolnshire, Staffordshire, and Yorkshire (N.E. and W. Riding), with Summary Report prefixed.	1 0	1 3
[C. 6894.–VII.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. I., England, Part VII.—Indexes (Analytical and General) to the Reports of the Assistant Agricultural Commissioners, contained in Vol. I., Parts I. to VI.	0 8½	0 11
	Wales.		
[C. 6894.–XIV.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. II., Wales.—Reports by *Mr. D. Lleufer Thomas* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Anglesey, Carmarthen, Carnarvon, Denbigh, Glamorgan, Merioneth, Montgomery, and Pembroke, to which is added a Report by Mr. C. M. Chapman (Assistant Commissioner) upon a Selected District in the Counties of Brecon and Radnor, with Summary Report prefixed; also Analytical and General Indexes.	1 8	2 0½
	Scotland.		
[C. 6894.–XV.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. III., Scotland, Part I.—Reports by *Mr. H. Rutherfurd* (with Summary Report prefixed), and by the late *Mr. G. R. Gillespie*, upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Aberdeen, Argyll (South), Ayr, Banff, Bute, Caithness, Dumbarton, Dumfries, Forfar, Kincardine, Kirkcudbright, Lanark (North), Linlithgow, Moray, Nairn, Orkney, Perth (East), Renfrew, Ross, Stirling, Sutherland, and Wigtown.	1 4	1 8½
[C. 6894.–XVI.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. III., Scotland, Part II.—Reports by *Mr. R. Hunter Pringle* and *Mr. Edward Wilkinson* (Assistant Commissioners) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Berwick, Clackmannan, Edinburgh, Fife, Haddington, Kinross, Roxburghshire, the Arable District between Inverness and Dingwall, and in North Uist, the Hill Districts of Selkirk, Peebles, and Dumfries, the Pastoral District of Breadalbane in Perth, and the borders of Inverness and Ross-shire, with Summary Reports prefixed.	1 9	2 1½
[C. 6894.–XVII.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. III., Scotland, Part III.—Indexes (Analytical and General) to the Reports of the Assistant Agricultural Commissioners, contained in Vol. III., Parts I. and II.	0 4	0 5½
	Ireland.		
[C. 6894.–XVIII.]-	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. IV., Ireland, Part I.—Reports by *Mr. R. McCrea* (Assistant Commissioner), upon certain Selected Districts in Counties Antrim, Armagh, Donegal, Down, Fermanagh, Leitrim, Londonderry, Longford, Louth, Meath, Monaghan, Sligo, Tyrone, and Westmeath, with Summary Report prefixed.	1 1	1 4

APPENDIX IV.

Diagram showing the Publications issued by the Roya



Notes.—

For full titles of above, *see* List of Publications.

* All the Digests (with the exception of the Whole Commission) contain—(1) Précis; (2) Abstract, viz., (*a*) Strikes, Lock-outs, and Disputes, (*b*) Eight Hours' Day, (*c*) Arbitration and Conciliation, and (*d*) Acts of Parliament; (3) Analysis; (4) Glossary. The Whole Commission Digest contains Pré

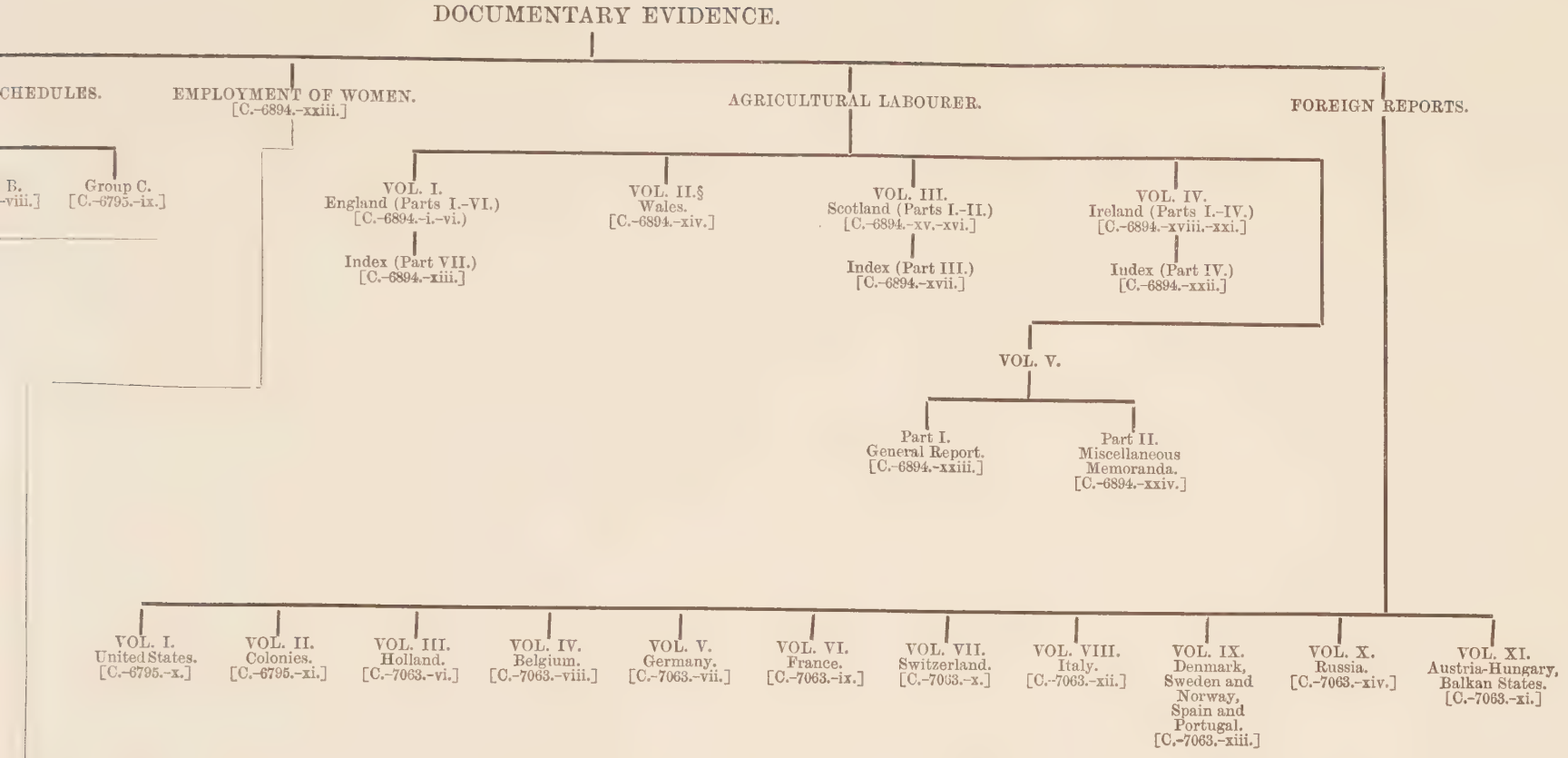
† The first four Reports merely present publications. The Fifth Report, Part I., contains Reviews and Recommendations. The Fifth Report, Part II., contains the Secretary's Report on the Work of the Office, and the Summaries. The sources of the matter summarised are shown in the above diagram.

‡ Volumes III. of the Digests, Groups A, B, and C, contain Indexes to Digests, Volumes I., II., and III.

§ The Index to the Reports on the Agricultural Labourer in Wales is contained in the same volume as the Reports, viz., "The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. II., Wales."

[*To face p.* 30.]

Commission on Labour.



ummary.

abstracts only, the Analysis being contained in Indexes, Vol. IV., and the Glossary in Indexes, Vol. III.

Reference Number.	Title.	Price.	Price with Postage.
		s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*
[C. 6894.–XIX.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. IV., Ireland, Part II.—Reports by *Mr. W. P. O'Brien, C.B.* (Assistant Commissioner), upon certain Selected Districts in Counties Carlow, Cork, Clare, Kerry, Kildare, Kilkenny, King's, Limerick, Queen's, Tipperary, Waterford, Wexford, and Wicklow, with Summary Report prefixed.	1 4	1 8
[C. 6894.–XX.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. IV., Ireland, Part III.—Reports by *Mr. Roger C. Richards* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Cavan, Dublin, Galway, and Tipperary, with Summary Report prefixed.	0 7½	0 9½
[C. 6894.–XXI.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. IV., Ireland, Part IV.—Reports by *Mr. A. Wilson Fox* (Assistant Commissioner) upon certain Selected Districts in the Counties of Cork, Mayo, and Roscommon, with Meath, with Summary Report prefixed.	1 2	1 5
[C. 6894.–XXII.] -	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. IV., Ireland, Part V.—Indexes (Analytical and General) to the Reports of the Assistant Agricultural Commissioners, contained in Vol. IV., Parts I. to IV.	0 6	0 8
	Miscellaneous.		
[C. 6894.–XXIII.]*	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. V., Part I.—General Report by *Mr. William C. Little* (Senior Assistant Agricultural Commissioner).	—	—
[C. 6894.–XXIV.]*	The Agricultural Labourer, Vol. V., Part II.—Miscellaneous Memoranda, Abstracts, and Statistical Tables, &c., by *Mr. William C. Little* (Senior Assistant Agricultural Commissioner): Section I.—England and Wales: Section II.—Scotland: Section III.—Ireland.	—	—
	FOREIGN REPORTS.		
[C. 6795.–X.]	Foreign Reports (Vol. I.)—The United States - - -	0 6	0 8
[C. 6795.–XI.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. II.)—The Colonies and the Indian Empire, with an Appendix on the Migration of Labour.	2 0	2 4½
[C. 7063.–VI.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. III.)—Holland - - -	0 3½	0 4½
[C. 7063.–VIII.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. IV.)—Belgium - - - -	0 6	0 8
[C. 7063.–VII.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. V.)—Germany - - -	1 1	1 4
[C. 7063.–IX.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. VI.)—France - - - -	2 1	2 5½
[C. 7063.–X.]	Foreign Reports (Vol. VII.)—Switzerland - -	0 5	0 6½
[C. 7063.–XII.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. VIII.)—Italy - - - -	0 11	1 2
[C. 7063.–XI.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. IX.)—Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Spain and Portugal.	0 6	0 8
[C. 7063.–XIV.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. X.)—Russia - - - -	0 7½	0 9½
[C. 7063.–XIII.] -	Foreign Reports (Vol. XI.)—Austria-Hungary, and the Balkan States	2 11	3 3½

* It is hoped that these two Volumes will be published by the end of June, 1894.—G.D.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

GROUP A.

SUMMARY of the EVIDENCE, oral and written, received by GROUP A. of the ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

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(ii.) *Sliding Scales* - - - - - - - 43
(iii.) *Profit-Sharing and Co-operation* - - - - - 45
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C. TRADE DISPUTES:

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NOTE.

IN accordance with a Resolution of the Commission, the Secretary was directed to prepare Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written) received by the Committees. This Evidence includes:—

1. The Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices.
2. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
3. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards.
4. The Rules of the Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Societies.
5. Certain other Documents handed in or forwarded to the Commission, but not printed with the above.

Under the head of Mines and Quarries these include:—

(i.) Negotiations and Minutes relative to the Silksworth Strike; handed in by Mr. Stobart.
(ii.) Tables, handed in by Mr. Steele, containing details with regard to the Benefit Society in Northumberland and Durham.
(iii.) Comparative Table, showing Statistics of Fatal Accidents in Mines, &c.; handed in by Mr. Onions.
(iv.) Table, showing the number of members of the Miners' Permanent Relief Funds who have, and the number of those who have not, contracted out of the Employers' Liability Act; handed in by Mr. Campbell.

6. Further Correspondence on certain subjects.

N.B.—The following publications, official and other, have also been consulted:—

(i.) Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions, Fifth Report, 1891.
(ii.) Parliamentary Returns, ordered by the House of Commons, on the motions of Mr. Broadhurst and Mr. Provand, respectively (375, 284; 1890).
(iii.) Reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Mines for the Years 1890, 1891, and 1892.
(iv.) The current numbers of the "Labour Gazette," the Journal of the Labour Department of the Board of Trade.
(v.) The current numbers of the "Labour Tribune."
(vi.) Final Report of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the subject of Mining Royalties.

PART I.—MINES AND QUARRIES.

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* The few suggestions with regard to the publication of statistics, given in the oral and written evidence, have been dealt with in the Summary of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, under the head of "Labour Department."

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PART I.—MINES AND QUARRIES.

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.*

I. WAGES.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF WAGES.

1. Information with regard to the rates of wages in mines and quarries has been obtained from the oral evidence given before the Commission, from the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued to the Associations of Employers and Employed, and from the Parliamentary Returns on the Hours of Labour in Mines, ordered by the House of Commons on Mr. Provand's Motion (284; 1890), and quoted in the "Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries" issued by the British Iron Trade Association. It has been pointed out in the Introduction to the Answers received from the Trade Unions in Group A, that wages statistics are only of value when they are based upon returns which are "uniform in character" and collected according to the following general principles:—

(1.) The different classes of labour (*e.g.* in mines, hewers, putters, banksmen, &c.) within the given industry must be carefully distinguished.

(2.) "The wages returned must be the actual amounts paid and not mere estimates . . . . or averages, which may not always be taken according to a uniform method."

(3.) "The rates of wages must be connected with the proportionate numbers paid at each rate."

These requirements are not satisfied by the returns on the rates of wages in the oral and written evidence. In some answers, tables of wages and their fluctuations, and copies of sliding scale agreements have been given. Generally speaking, however, the evidence referred to the average wage for hewers, colliers, &c., or statements were made to the effect that wages range between certain specified limits. It was not always quite clear when reference was made to the wages of "colliers" or "miners" whether this term was intended to apply to "hewers" alone, whether it covered all labour at and about the colliery, or whether it was meant to include only underground labour. Thus, the average wage of "miners" was given in North Lancashire, Lanarkshire, the Mid and West Lothians, Neath, Swansea and Llanelly, Fife, Kinross and Clackmannan, Ayrshire and Cleveland. The average wage of "hewers" was given in Northumberland, North Staffordshire, South Staffordshire, East Worcestershire and Durham. The average wage per day of "colliers" was given in South Yorkshire, the Ocean Collieries, South Wales, West Lancashire, and West Yorkshire. Letters were forwarded to the witnesses who gave the evidence in question, and any ambiguity on this point has been cleared up. The rates of wages given in the following table apply in every case to the class of "hewers" or "stallmen" alone. It was stated that in the Cannock Chase District the average wage of "stallmen" is always taken to correspond with the average wage of "hewers," "although a close analysis would make the actual 'hewers' a trifle more." (1)

2. In obtaining the average wage per day in the various districts it will be seen from the marginal notes to the following table that in Lanarkshire, Mid and West Lothian and certain other districts, wages are stated to range from 6*s.* 9*d.* to 7*s.* 3*d.*, 5*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.*, &c. The average wage in the table, when not given in the evidence, is taken to be the arithmetic mean between the maximum and minimum wage. The average thus obtained is probably above the true average. Thus, in South Yorkshire, it was stated (in the Answers from Employers' Associations, No. 298) that the rate of wages varied from 6*s.* to 12*s.* The average rate given in the oral and written evidence (Answers from Employers' Associations, No. 307) was 8*s.* 6*d.*, *i.e.* 6*d.* less than the arithmetic mean. The wages of "stallmen" in Derbyshire and Leicestershire were stated to vary from 7*s.* to 10*s.* a day, *i.e.* an average of 8*s.* 6*d.* The average given in the evidence was, however, 8*s.* or 8*s.* 2*d.* The average daily wage of "hewers" in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire was determined as follows. The nominal rates for "thick" and "thin" coal respectively are 4*s.* 8*d.* and 3*s.* 8*d.* per "stint." It was stated that this difference is more nominal than real, as the "stint" is smaller in the case of "thin" coal than in the case of "thick." Hewers are able to do from 1¼ to 1¾ stints per day. "Thick" and "thin" coal hewers would together do on an average 1½ stints a day. The average rate per stint ("thick" or "thin" coal) is 4*s.* 2*d.* The average wages per day would therefore be (1½ stints at 4*s.* 2*d.* per stint), 6*s.* 3*d.* It may be noted that the only instance of any discrepancy between the evidence obtained from employers and that obtained from workmen occurred in the district of Ayrshire. The average wage of "miners" per week given by the representatives of the employed was 25*s.* The representatives of the Coal Masters' Association subsequently contradicted this statement, and stated that the average weekly wage was 32*s.* The method of calculating the average weekly wage adopted by the employers thus gives an estimate 28 per cent. above that given by the employed. It was subsequently stated in a letter received from the Secretary of the Ayrshire Miners' Association (10/5/93), that the wage above given "applied generally to all underground workers save the better grades, such as firemen and overmen, who have usually a fixed weekly wage, and are not subject to broken time." The same witness also stated that the average wage of "hewers" at the present time was 4*s.* per day. According to the above, the estimate which would have been given by the employers is 5*s.* 1½*d.* The arithmetic mean between these rates is 4*s.* 6¾*d.* It would appear that the rate given in the following table is somewhat too low.

3. In that table, the various mining districts are arranged in descending order according to the average rates of wages of "hewers" per day.

(*a.*) The wages in Durham, Northumberland, and certain other districts in the table are the "standard county averages" for those districts. It may be noted that the relation in which the "county average" stands to the wages given at any particular colliery, or in any section of a colliery, varies in the different districts. Thus, in Durham, if the average wage of a "flat" (*i.e.*, the smallest sub-division in the pit, in which about half-a-dozen men are employed) is 5 per cent. below the "county average," application for an advance can be made to the Joint Committee. For a similar application, in Northumberland, the total wage in a seam or in the whole pit must be 5 per cent. below the "county average." In the latter district, however, if "a flat is very low, although the colliery's average is not 5 per cent. below the district average, they (the miners) can appeal to the Joint Committee for a revisicn of prices. Then the Committee will go into the matter, and perhaps take so much off a flat which is high, and give so much to a flat which is low, and so adjust prices as to enable them all to get somewhat near the average." (1)

[§ 2.]

Rates of Wages per day.

(a.) "County average" rates.

* The few suggestions with regard to the publication of statistics, given in the oral and written evidence, have been dealt with in the Summary of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, under the head of "Labour Department."

(1) Letter received from A. Sopwith (17/5/93).

(1) L. Wood, 1755, 1905–7. F. Stobart, 2406.

[§ 3 (a.)] I.—STATEMENT showing the Mean of Returns of Rates of Wages in the Chief Mining Districts, 1890–91 (1). Districts arranged in descending order. [§ 3 (a.)]

Reference.	District.	Rate per Day.	Year to which wage applies.	REMARKS.
		s. d.		
Digest, Vol. I., p. 36. Answers to Schedules of Questions, Nos. 298, 307.	South Yorkshire*	8 6	1891	In the Answers to the Schedules of Questions, No. 298, wages were stated to vary from 6*s.* to 12*s.*, and 9*s.* was stated to be the average. The statements made in No. 307 and in the oral evidence were in agreement; the average given was 8*s.* 6*d.* It was stated that wages had risen 40 % since the year 1879.
Digest, Vol. I., p. 34 -	Derbyshire and Leicestershire.*	8 1½	1891	The rate of wages was stated to vary from 7*s.* to 10*s.* a day. The average was stated to be 8*s.* or 8*s.* 3*d.* The mean between these averages has been taken.
Question 6205. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 371.	North Lancashire *	7 10	1891	It was stated that this average was taken over three months. The same average had prevailed for 50 weeks. The Altham Collieries were given as typical of the district. It was stated that, generally speaking, the smaller districts follow the larger in the regulation of wages.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 22. Letter received from W. Jenkins, Esq., (9/5/93).	Ocean Collieries, South Wales.*	7 3	1891	The average earnings in 1886 were stated to be 4*s.* 10¾*d.*, and the men worked 370,515 turns or days. In 1887 the average earnings were 4*s.* 4¾*d.*, and they worked 479,767 turns or days.
Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 373.	West Lancashire *	7 2½	1891	In the answers from Associated Employers, full details were given concerning the wages of every class of labour employed in and about the mines. The average wage was stated to have been 5*s.* 6*d.* in the year 1881.
Digest, Vol. II., pp. 23, 26. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 383.	Lanarkshire, Scotland.†	7 0	1891	Digest, Vol. II., p. 26, wages are said to vary from 6*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* The average would, therefore, be rather below 6*s.* 9*d.* This statement is made by a witness from Ayrshire. The witness from Lanarkshire stated that they varied from 6*s.* 9*d.* to 7*s.* 3*d.*, and that the average was 7*s.* This statement was uncontradicted; moreover, the Employers' Association stated that the nominal wage was 6*s.* 6*d.*, but that the average wage earned was in excess of this nominal rate. It may be noted that 7*s.* per day is the rate given in the Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891, issued by the Board of Trade (published 1893).
Digest. Vol. I., p. 26. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 40.	Rhondda Valley, South Wales.‡	6 9	1891	The rate of wages was stated to vary from 6*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* This was stated to be the average wage "if working full time and getting plenty of clearances." (5643.)
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 41.	Mid and West Lothian.‡	6 9	1891	Wages are said to vary from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* The arithmetic mean of 6*s.* 9*d.* is, therefore, probably, somewhat too high.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 370, 380.	West Yorkshire *	6 9	1891	It was stated that wages varied from 6*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* This average is probably somewhat too high, as in the above.
Minutes of Evidence, 6439–40. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370. Letter received from A. Sopwith (9/5/93).	Cannock Chase, Staffordshire.*	6 9	1891	5*s.* 8*d.* was stated to represent the average wage of colliers, daymen, labourers, and boys. The average wage of "hewers" or "stallmen" only is considerably higher, and was stated to average 6*s.* 9*d.* per day. Since 1888 wages were stated to have risen 40 %.
Minutes of Evidence, 4844. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 40.	Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly.‡	6 6¾	1891	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 38. Appendix XVI. Digest, Vol. I., pp. 16, 19.	Northumberland †	6 6⅞	1890	In the answers (p. 38) received from the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association, a statement is given showing the wages earned by day, the number of days worked per year by hewers in "steam" and "soft" coal collieries. The wages in the former collieries in 1890 were stated to be 6*s.* 9¾*d.*, in the latter, 6*s.* 2½*d.* The total wage given is 6*s.* 6¾*d.* Appendix XVI. forwarded by the Coal Owners' Association, gives the percentage, advances and reductions in wages up to February 1891, for both classes of collieries. In this, four different wages are given for the year 1890 in "steam" and "soft" coal collieries for a working day of six and six and a-half hours, respectively. The arithmetic mean of the eight rates for "steam" and "soft" coal collieries is about 6*s.* 5*d.* and 6*s.* 2*d.*, respectively. The average of these rates would be about 6*s.* 3*d.*, *i.e.*, a little less than the average given for that year by the Associated Employés. No statement is made by the employers as to the proportion of hewers employed in these classes of collieries; this may account for the difference.(2) Moreover, it appears from Appendix XVI. that the higher rates prevailed over a longer period than the lower rates. It may be noted that the rate of wages per annum given by the employers is somewhat lower than that given by the employed. The rates for 1891 differ but slightly from those in 1890. It may be further noted that the average rate of wages of hewers and coal-getters, in steam coal and soft coal collieries respectively, given in the Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions (Fifth Report, 1891, p. 241), are 6*s.* 10½*d.* and 6*s.* 0¾*d.* for 7½ hours.
Digest, Vol. I., p. 21. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 41, 382.	Fife, Kinross and Clackmannan. †	6 3	1891	The rate of wages was stated orally to vary from 6*s.* 3*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* In the written evidence the average was stated to be 6*s.* 3*d.* The rate has risen 50 % since 1888.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 379, Appendix 2.	South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire. †	6 3	1890–91	"Stint" for "thick" coal workers was stated to be 4*s.* 8*d.*, and 3*s.* 8*d.* for "thin" coal. Average rate per "stint" = 4*s.* 2*d.* Number of "stints" varies from 1½ to 1⅞, therefore average number of "stints" worked = 1½. The average wage is 4*s.* 2*d.* × 1½ *i.e.* 6*s.* 3*d.* Wages were stated to have advanced 40 % since 1888.
Digest, Vol. I., p. 33 - -	North Staffordshire.*	6 0	1891	Wages were stated to vary from 5*s.* 9*d.* to 6*s.* 3*d.* The Whitfield Colliery was stated to be typical of the district.
Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 10. Answers to Schedules of Questions, Appendix 13.	Durham (2) † - -	6 0	1891	The wages were stated in the oral evidence given by the Employés to be 5*s.* 11*d.* According to the Associated Employers, wages vary from 5*s.* 11*d.* to 6*s.* 2*d.*, according as 6 hours or 6½ hours are worked at the face. The mean of the rates given is 6*s.*
Digest, Vol. I., p. 12. Answers to Schedules of Question, p. 39.	Cleveland ‡ - -	5 2	1891	The rise in wages in recent years was stated not to have been considerable. (Question 1047.)
Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370.	Tamworth District, Staffordshire.*	4 11	1891	This is stated to be the "standard," "nominal," or "minimum" rate only.
Digest, Vol. II., pp. 26, 32. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 41.	Ayrshire ‡ - -	4 0	1893	In a letter received from J. Keir-Hardie (13/5/93), it was stated that the average wage of "hewers at the present time" was 4*s.* per day. This rate is perhaps somewhat too low.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 224–5.	Ireland : Antrim §	2 6 to 4 0	-	These wages are given for Portrush and Crommelin. The wages in Wicklow were stated to be 10*s.* a week for surface labour, and 14*s.* a week for underground labour.

* Evidence from Associations of Employers only.
† Evidence from Associated Employers and Employed.
‡ Evidence from Trade Unions only.
§ Evidence from Individual Employers only.

(1) In the Final Report of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the subject of Mining Royalties, a statement is made (p. 40) to the following effect:—"It would be more correct to say that wages govern royalties than that royalties govern wages. . . . . No evidence has . . . . been given to show "that any reduction of royalties has taken place in consideration of the maintenance of, or a rise in, the rate of wages."

(2) It has been ascertained that the soft coal collieries are only a small proportion of the whole number. The number of men employed "below ground" at the soft and steam collieries respectively in 1890 was 3,423 and 16,303. If the proportion of men employed given by these figures are used, the average, between 6*s.* 5*d.* at steam and 6*s.* 2*d.* at soft coal collieries, is but slightly below that given by the miners themselves.

(3) After 1st January 1891, there was only one rate for "hewers," viz., the lower rate, 5*s.* 11*d.* a day. The longer hours worked at most of the collieries had been reduced. The wages represent the earnings of a standard "stint" of work.

N.B.—It has been ascertained that the above rates of wages apply in every case to the class of "hewers" or "stallmen" alone. In a letter received from A. Sopwith (9/5/93), it was stated that the average wage of the "stallmen" is always taken to correspond with the average wage of "hewers," although a close analysis would make the actual "hewers" a trifle more.

(*b.*) A general rise in wages has taken place since the year 1885. It is stated in the Memorandum on Wages in the Mining Industries issued by the British Iron Trade Association, that the wages of hewers in that year in Northumberland and Durham was 4*s.* 4*d.* per day. In the above table the wages of hewers per day in Northumberland and Durham respectively are 6*s.* 6¾*d.* and 6*s.*, so that a rise of nearly 50 and 40 per cent. respectively has taken place during the last five years.* The rate of wages in Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan was stated to have risen 50 per cent. since 1887. The daily earnings in North Staffordshire are 40 per cent. higher than they were in 1886.

4. In some cases, however, it has been pointed out in the evidence that the rise in weekly and yearly earnings has not been in proportion to the rise in daily wages. Thus, it was stated in North Staffordshire that although the daily earnings are 40 per cent. higher than in 1886, the weekly earnings have only risen 22 per cent. In 1886, the pits of the Whitfield Colliery wound coal on an average five days a week and the collieries worked 5·51 days per week, earning 4*s.* 5·04*d.* per day. In the first half of the year 1891, the pits wound coal 5·82 days a week, but the average time worked by the colliers was only 4·48 days, and they earned 6*s.* 7·72*d.* per day (1). It was also stated in the West Lancashire district (South Lancashire and Cheshire) that during the period 1889-91, which immediately succeeded an advance in wages, the percentage of absentees greatly increased. This was also the case in 1873 (2). The evidence does not suffice to show how far this fact, which has been observed at different periods in the same district, is true at the same period in different districts. The following table has been drawn up, showing the average rates of wages per week, compared with the daily rates, in the chief mining districts. [§ 4.]

* In 1885, the wages of hewers in Northumberland at the different classes of collieries varied from 4*s.* 6·15*d.* to 5*s.* 3·55*d.* In Durham, in the same year, the hewers' wages were 4*s.* 5*d.* and 4*s.* 8*d.* in the short-hour and long-hour collieries respectively. It may be noted that the daily wages in Northumberland and Durham together above quoted, was obtained by dividing the average weekly wage given in the Return of Rates and Wages in Mines and Quarries issued by the Board of Trade by six. In 1890, however, only about 5½ days were worked on an average in any one week, and the average wage of 4*s.* 4*d.* is thus too low an estimate. It would therefore appear that the stated rise of 40 and 50 per cent. is inaccurate. The rise in Durham from about 4*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* 11*d.* is equivalent to an increase of 31 per cent. The rise in Northumberland from about 4*s.* 11*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* is equivalent to an increase of 32 per cent.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30.

II.—TABLE showing Rates of Wages per Week in the different Mining Districts.

Descending order in which Districts are Grouped according to Average Wage per Day (1890–91).	District.	Wage per Day. (Table I.)	Number of Days on the Average per Week at the Face. (*See* Table A., p. 15.)	Weekly Wages (1890–91).	Weekly Wages of Hewers, 1885–6. (Dr. Giffen's Return to Board of Trade of Rates of Wages in the Mines and Quarries in the United Kingdom.)	Descending order in which Districts are Grouped according to Average Wage per Week (1890–91).	Descending order in which Districts are Grouped according to Average Wage per Week (1885–6).	REMARKS.
		s. d.		*s. d.*	*s. d.*			
1	South Yorkshire -	8 6	5·0 (1)	42 6	28 0	1	1	The average rate in the sixth column is for West and South Yorkshire.
2	Derbyshire and Leicestershire.	8 0½	4·25 (2)	34 0	—	10	—	The men work five days in winter, three or four in summer; the average is therefore taken as 4¼.
3	North Lancashire -	7 10	5·0 (3)	39 2	24 8	4	4	On average, work between four and five days. In Altham collieries (type) 5½ in winter, 5⅛ in summer. In a letter received from Mr. Macalpine (18/5/93). it was stated "that the days per week average about five, taking the year round." The average rate in the sixth column is for Cumberland and North-West Lancashire.
4	Ocean Collieries -	7 3	5·0 (4)	36 3	—	6	—	Some collieries wind four days of 10 hours and two of seven hours; others wind four days of nine, one of ten, and one of eight hours. The miner was, however, stated to work only about five days a week, "as a matter of practice."
5	West Lancashire -	7 2½	4·83 (1)	34 9	—	7	—	It was ascertained later that about eleven days per fortnight are worked in winter, and only between three and four days a week in summer. Letter received from G. Caldwell (13/6/93).
6	Scotland: Lanarkshire.	7 0	5·5 (1)	38 6	22 8	5	6	The average rate in the sixth column is for Lanarkshire, Stirlingshire, and Dumbartonshire.
7	Rhondda Valley -	6 9	6·0 (1)	40 6	—	2	—	
8	West Yorkshire -	6 9	4·5 (5)	30 4·5	—	14	—	The house coal pits were stated to work usually three or four days weekly in summer, and five or six in winter. The mean has been taken as the average.
9	Staffordshire: Cannock Chase.	6 9	4·29 (6)	28 9	—	16	—	The lowest number of days worked in summer is three, and the highest in winter is 5⅔. "In time of very bad trade, the time may be still lower in summer."
10	South Wales: Neath, Swansea, Llanelly.	6 6¾	6·0 (1)	39 4½	—	3	—	
11	Northumberland -	6 6¾	5·26 (1)	34 4¾	26 0	8	2	The average rate in the sixth column is for Northumberland and Durham Every pit in the county works two or two and a-half days less per fortnight during the five winter months than during the summer months.
12	Scotland: Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan.	6 3	5·0 (7)	31 3	—	13	—	
13	South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire.	6 3	5·5 (8)	34 4½	—	9	—	Employment is offered six days a week. On Mondays many collieries close altogether, and many only work half-a-day.
14	North Staffordshire	6 0	5·22 (1)	31 3¾	25 5	12	3	
15	Durham - -	6 0	5·6 (1)	33 7	—	11	—	
16	Cleveland* - -	5 2	5·5 (1)	28 5	23 –	16	5	
17	Staffordshire: Tamworth District.	4 11	6·0 (9)	29 6	—	15	—	It was ascertained later that the number of days worked per week in the summer is about two, in the winter about five and a half.
18	Scotland: Ayrshire (1893).	4 0	5·2 (1)	20 10	21 3	17	7	The average rate in the sixth column is for Ayrshire, North-West Dumfriesshire, and Cantire.
19	Ireland: Antrim -	2/6 to 4/– *i.e.* 3/3	—	—	15 9	—	8	The average in the sixth column is for the counties Tipperary, Antrim, and Sligo.

* Ironstone miners.

(1) Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries (Mr. Provand's Return). (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 35. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. Letter received from G. W. Macalpine (18/5/93). (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. Letter received from W. Jenkins (17/5/93). (5) Letter received from B. Day (19/5/93). (6) Letter received from A. Sopwith (17/5/93). (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 382. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370. Letter received from L. Ridsdale (25/5/93).

[§ 4 (a.)] (a.) *Sources of information.*

(*a.*) In Lanarkshire, Ayrshire, Northumberland, Durham, West Lancashire, and North Staffordshire, the average number of days worked was taken from the Memorandum to which previous reference has been made. In the oral evidence given in connection with South Yorkshire, it was stated that the men work on an average five days a week (1). In West Yorkshire, the house coal pits usually work three or four days weekly in summer and five or six in winter. The average has therefore been taken as 4½ (2). In Derbyshire and Leicestershire, the number of days worked varies with the season: during the six summer months, the men worked three or four days a week on an average, and five days a week during the six winter months. The average has therefore been taken as 4½, *i.e.*, $\frac{1}{2}\left[5+\frac{3+4}{2}\right]$ (3). In North Lancashire, the men were said to work between four and five days on an average. In the Altham Collieries, which were stated in the evidence to be typical of the North Lancashire district, the men work 5½ days on an average in the winter, and 5⅔ in the summer (4). The average has therefore been taken as five, rather than any smaller number.* In South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, it was stated that employment is offered six days a week, although, on Mondays, many collieries work only half the day, while others close altogether. The average has therefore been taken as 5½.† Attention has been drawn to these points in the marginal notes to the table. The weekly wages given in the fifth column of the above table only roughly represent the average weekly wage.

[§ 4 (b.)] (b.) *Contrast shown in columns 1, 7, 8, in above table.*

(*b.*) The main facts shown are the different order in which the mining districts are grouped when arranged according to the weekly, instead of the daily, rates of wages, and the great variations between the wages paid in 1885 and 1890–91.

Average wages per hour.

5. The remaining point to be noted is in connection with the hours of labour. A table has been drawn up showing the average hours from bank to bank, and at the face, in the different mining districts, with the corresponding average earnings.

(a.) *Nature of information.*

(*a.*) The figures in the third and fourth columns of the table have been obtained partly from Mr. Provand's Return on Hours of Labour in Mines, partly from the oral and written evidence. It is pointed out in the Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries, to which previous reference has been made, that these returns of hours are frequently ambiguous. The hours of labour vary in some cases between summer and winter, the shorter hours prevailing in the former season. Thus, in the Cannock Chase District, "the hours vary occasionally as much as from three to nine hours from bank to bank, or, say, two to eight at the face, as the pits frequently stop drawing at one-quarter day during the summer" (1). Moreover, when the hours of "colliers" are spoken of, the same difficulties occur in interpreting the exact class of workers referred to which has been already noticed in connection with the tabular statements of wages.

III.—TABLE showing the Average Hours worked per Day, with the corresponding Average Earnings, 1890–91.

HEWERS OR COAL GETTERS.

DISTRICT.	Wage per Day. *See* Table I.	Average Hours from Bank to Bank. *See* Table of Hours.	Average Hours at the face (exclusive of meals). *See* Table of Hours.	Wage per Hour from Bank to Bank.	Wage per Hour at Face.	Descending Order in which Districts are grouped according to Average Wage per Day.	Descending Order in which Districts are grouped according to Average Wage per Hour, Bank to Bank.	Descending Order in which Districts are grouped according to Average Wage per Hour at the Face.
	s. d.			*s. d.*	*s. d.*			
South Yorkshire	8 6	8·13	About 7.5	1 0·5	1 1·6	1	1	1
Derbyshire and Leicestershire	8 1½	8·5	8	– 11·4	1 0·18	2	2	5
North Lancashire	7 10	9·25	7·92	– 10·1	– 11·8	3	4	7
Ocean Collieries, South Wales	7 3	9·75	7 or 7·25	– 8·9	1*s.* 0·4*d.* or 1*s.*	4	8	4
West Lancashire	7 2½	9·32	7·86	– 9·2	– 11	5	6	9
Lanarkshire, Scotland	7 0	9·28	7·88	– 9·05	– 10·6	6	7	10
Rhondda Valley, South Wales	6 9	9·5	8·67	– 8·5	– 9·3	7	11	15
West Yorkshire	6 9	9·47	7 to 7¼	– 8·5	11·5*d.* to 11·17*d.*	8	11	8
Cannock Chase, Staffordshire	6 9	8·5 to 9	6 to 7·5	9·5*d.* to 9*d.*	1*s.* 1½*d.* to 10·8*d.*	9	5	6
Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly	6 6¾	9	7·5	– 8¾	10½	10	10	11
Northumberland	6 6⅞	7·08	6·17	– 11·07	1 0·7	11	3	2
Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan	6 3	8·5	7·5	– 8·8	– 10	12	9	12
South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire.	6 3	About 9·25	About 8	– 8·1	– 9·37	13	12	14
North Staffordshire	6 0	8·95	7·63	– 8·04	– 9·4	14	13	13
Durham	6 0	7·21	5·87	– 9·9	1 0·2	15	4	3
Cleveland	5 2	8·04	6·99	– 7·7	– 8·8	16	14	16
Tamworth District, Staffordshire	4 11	9	7·5	– 6·5	– 7·8	17	15	17
Ayrshire (1893)	4 0	9·26	7·55	– 5·18	– 6·3	18	16	18
Ireland, Antrim	2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.*	7 to 8	–	—	—	19	—	—

(b.) *Contrast shown in columns 7, 8, 9, in above table.*

(*b.*) The main fact shown in this table is the different order in which the districts are grouped when arranged according to the hourly, instead of the weekly, rates of wages. It also appears that decrease in wages does not necessarily proceed parallel with decreased hours. Thus, the hours in Durham and Northumberland are shorter than those in other districts, while the average daily wages are considerably higher than the rates in certain other districts, especially when the additional allowances are taken into account.

Allowances.

6. It must be noted in connection with the first table (*see* supra, page 38), showing the average rates of wages of hewers per day in the chief mining districts, that the additional allowances to, and deductions from, wages vary in the different districts. The following table gives the allowances in the form of coal, free houses, &c., in parallel columns with the average rates of wages per day.

* In a letter received from Mr. Macalpine (18/5/93), it was stated "that the days per week average about five, taking the year round."

† In a letter received from Colonel Cochrane (22/5/93), it was stated that the number of days worked average "about five days per week."

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 36. (2) Letter from Secretary of West Yorkshire Coal Owners' Association (19/5/93). (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 35. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31.

(1) Letter received from A. Sopwith (17/5/93).

IV.—TABLE showing Additions to Wages in the form of Allowances in the various Mining Districts. [§ 6.]

DISTRICT.	Wage per Day (Table I.)	ALLOWANCES.		
		Coal.	Houses.	Other Allowances.
	s. d.			
South Yorkshire (1)	8 6	In some collieries given; in some supplied at nominal rate.	None	None.
Derbyshire and Leicestershire (2)	8 1½	Married coal getters "receive 18 cwt. of coal every month except May, June, and July, when 18 cwts. are given every five weeks."	None	None.
North Lancashire (3)	7 10	None	None	None.
South Wales: Ocean Collieries (4)	7 3	Miners pay a little over one-half cost price of coal. In some cases miners pay "a little less" for the coal.	"No free houses are allowed, but houses are procured at low rents."	None.
West Lancashire (5)	7 2½	Some officials have free house and fuel, some fuel only.		None.
Scotland: Lanarkshire (6)	7 –	"Workmen are supplied with fire coal at from 1*s.* to 2*s.* per ton less than the price to the general public.	House rents are also, as a rule, lower than houses can be got for outside of the employer's property."	None.
Mid and West Lothians (7)	6 9	Only a few officials as a rule get free houses and fire-coal. Water in employer's houses supplied gratis. Tenant's taxes paid by employer-landlord. None	None	Allowance in money for "deficiency;" a lump sum for difficult work. "In the Burntisland Company, 3*d.* per week is kept from each miner. The company are supposed to pay a sum equal to the men's collective contributions. In times of accident they obtain a fair allowance, on condition that the employers are not taken to law."
Rhondda Valley (8)	6 9	Price to colliers about half the market price.	None	None.
West Yorkshire (9)	6 9	House coal at nominal prices: 1*s.*, 2*s.*, 3*s.*, a ton. "One load of house coal is supplied to each householder at a price varying from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* per ton."	None	"Most colliery owners provide a doctor's service free, for all accidents."
Staffordshire: Cannock Chase (10)	6 9	16 cwt. of coal for every 24 full turns worked, to married men and householders (*i.e.* about once a month).	None	None.
South Wales: Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly (11).	6 6¾	"Colliers have to pay 5*s.* 6*d.* per ton for their coal at the pit head."	None	None.
Northumberland (12)	6 6¾	Free coals are supplied to houses within a reasonable distance (1*s.* 6*d.* per week). A charge of 6*d.* per fortnight is made for loading them.	Free houses, in most cases with gardens attached, for married hewers and some other classes, or if the number is insufficient, 2*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.* a week in lieu of rent is generally given.	In cases of accident causing temporary disablement, occurring underground and not arising from the workmen's neglect or breach of rules, it is usual for the owners to pay what is termed "smart" money, at the rate of 5*s.* per man, and 2*s.* 6*d.* per boy per week, for varying periods, according to the custom of the individual colliery.
Scotland: Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan (13).	6 3	Only officers as a rule get free houses and coals. Fire coal supplied at one colliery (Dysart), at cheap rates; free houses provided. Low rents are charged for houses, and low prices for coal.		
South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire (14).	6 3	Men earning full wages get a load of coal for every 24 tons worked.	None	"Smart" money to "a man on the box" to the amount of 6*s.* or 8*s.* a week is paid to men disabled at work. In case of a fatal accident, an allowance is made to the widow and children. One or two quarts of beer per day, or money allowance in lieu thereof, is granted according to circumstances.
North Staffordshire (15)	6 –	In many cases coals are sold to the workmen at reduced prices.	None	No "smart" money is paid, but aid is generally given to workmen in needy circumstances.
Durham (16)	6 –	Load of coals to married hewers and some other classes of workmen once in three weeks, more or less according to the season, a charge of 6*d.* per fortnight being usually made for cartage.	Free houses and often gardens to married hewers and some other classes of workmen, and to some an allowance towards rent in lieu of houses. Majority of houses good.	In case of certain accidents occurring underground and causing temporary disablement, it is usual for the owners to pay what is termed "smart" money, at a rate not exceeding 5*s.* a week, for a period of not more than six months.
Cleveland (17)	5 2	Price to miners about 14*s.* a ton	None	"Smart" money (5*s.* a week) paid in case of accidents.†
Staffordshire: Tamworth District (18)	4 11	"Allowance" coal to all workers in collieries, amounting to 3 cwt. per week.	None	Additional allowances in shape of coal, stores, tools, &c., raise wages in case of skilled labour to 7*s.* or 7*s.* 6*d.*
Scotland: Ayrshire (19)	4 –	None; contradictory statements from employers and employed.*	None	None.
Ireland: Antrim	2/6 to 4/–	None	None	None.

* It was stated by the employed that they are required to pay full prices for rent and coal, and that the houses in neighbouring towns and villages generally give better value for the rent. The employers stated that the men are charged 7*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per ton for house coal, *i.e.*, 2*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* below the market price. Further, this price is subject to adjustment concomitantly with the rate of wages.

† One large firm does not pay "smart" money, but allows 2*s.* 9*d.* a week for house rent, and a load of coal every six weeks to miners "incapacitated by accident" (Toyn, 839).

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 36; Letter received from F. Rhodes (12/6/93). (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 34; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370; Letter received from J. White (17/5/93). (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 371; Letter received from G. W. Macalpine (18/5/93). (4) Letter received from W. Jenkins (17/5/93). (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 373; Caldwell, 5858–9. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 383; Letters received from R. Baird (17/5/93; 6/6/93). (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 41; Letter received from J. Wilson (12/6/93). (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 26; Letters received from W. Evans (17/5/93; 23/5/93). (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 370, 380; Letter received from B. Day (19/5/93). (10) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370; Digest, Vol. I., p. 31; Letter received from A. Sopwith (17/5/93; 25/5/93). (11) Letter received from I. Evans, (16/5/93). (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16; Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 38, 377; Letter received from R. Guthrie (20/5/93). (13) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 41, 382; Letter received from J. Connel (3/6/93). (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 379; Colonel Cochrane, 10898-10902; Letter received from Colonel Cochrane (22/5/93). (15) Letter received from J. Knight (1/6/93). (16) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8; Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 37, 376; Letter received from R. Guthrie (20/5/93). (17) Digest, Vol. I., p. 12; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 381. (18) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370: Letter received from L. Ridsdale (25/5/93). (19) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31; Letter received from J. Keir Hardie (19/5/93).

[§ 6 (a.)]

(a.) *Local peculiarities.*

(a.) In addition to the full rates of wages, in Durham and Northumberland, free houses are allowed to married hewers and some other classes of workmen. These cottages in Northumberland are said to be worth from 2*s.* to 5s. per week, and an allowance towards rent is usually granted in both districts if the employer has not a sufficient supply of cottages. In West Lancashire, Lanarkshire, Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan, only officials, as a rule, are allowed free houses and fuel. The practice of allowing all workers in the mines a certain supply of coal is more general, and where no allowance in this direction is granted, the colliers are frequently able to purchase the coal at less than its market price. In Northumberland, the coal allowance was stated to be equivalent to 1*s.* 6*d.* per week. The monetary value of these forms of remuneration are not given in most cases, but it was stated that the additional allowances in the Tamworth district, Staffordshire, raised wages in the case of skilled labour from an average of 4*s.* 11*d.* to 7*s.* or 7*s.* 6*d.* a day.

Deductions.

7. With regard to deductions, in the greater number of districts these are fixed by agreement, and only occur when more than a specified quantity of material other than the mineral contracted to be gotten is sent out in the tubs.

(a.) *Local peculiarities.*

(a.) In the Cannock Chase district, if the tub contains more than a certain "reasonable quantity" of dirt or "fine slack," it is confiscated (1). A fine is also imposed in Northumberland and Durham if a tub is sent to the surface containing a lesser quantity of the mineral contracted to be gotten than a certain agreed quantity (2). In South Lancashire and Cheshire (Manchester district) and in South Yorkshire, further deductions are made by agreement for oil, sharpening and repairing of tools, &c. (3), and in North Lancashire, for lamps and broken lamp glasses amounting to 6*d.* per week (4). In South Wales, fines are sometimes imposed for absence from work, and in the West Lancashire mines, to enforce discipline, fines are imposed for certain minor offences with the consent of the workmen (5). These are few in number and insignificant in amount. Fines are also imposed in the district of Manchester, for breaches of the special rules laid down in the Coal Mines Regulation Acts (6). It may be noted, however, that the deductions in Cleveland average only 5*d.* or 6*d.* per man per annum (7). Complaints were made in the oral evidence in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire of the "arbitrary" and "unjust" nature of the scales of deductions. In the former district, the employer was stated not only to claim deductions for dirt sent up with the coal, but in some cases to make a certain deduction off every tub as a set off against the dirt that may be sent up with it. Further, a sulphurous combination, called "brassies," is commonly found in Lanarkshire coal. These, it was stated, were sold in the market from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* a ton, although they are thrown out from the coal and deducted from the weight of the tub. The charges for pick sharpening were also considered excessive. It was further stated that in some mines in Ayrshire the deductions are so heavy that a man after working all day may find himself in debt to his employer at night. The employers, however, stated that the scales are always fixed by agreement with the men, and denied that they were unjust (8).

Wages—how calculated.

8. Hewers are paid by the piece, other classes of labour, generally speaking, are paid by time. In Durham, the great majority of cokemen also work piece-work; about 1 per cent. at the outside work by day, and these are chiefly ordinary labourers employed about the coke yards. "Putters" in Durham and Northumberland, and, generally speaking, "onsetters" and "stonemen" are also paid by the piece. This is also the method of payment for "rock" and "coal headers" in the Cannock Chase district; "holers" and "loaders" in the Tamworth district; "rippers," "packers," and some coke makers in North Lancashire, and, to some extent, for other classes of labour in South Yorkshire and the district of Manchester (9). In certain districts in the Midlands and in the Scotch mines, wages are calculated according to the "stint" or "darg." The "holers' day" or "stint" is "the measure of undercutting, undermining, or curving a length of seam, so that the coal can be brought down by blasting or wedging (10)." This "stint," or nominal day, is the standard on which contracts are based, and in relation to which advances or reductions in wages are given. Hewers in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire are able to do 1¼ to 1¾ "stints" per day (*i.e.*, 1¼ to 1¾ nominal days' work) according to the circumstances of their different working places (1). In Scotland a certain quantity of coal called the "masters' darg" has been accepted both by employers and employed as representing a fair day's work. The wage per "darg" is about 5*s.* 3*d.* in Ayrshire and 5*s.* 6*d.* in Lanarkshire. A good workman can, however, produce considerably more than a "darg" per day, unless prevented by scarcity of trucks (2).

[§ 8.]

Sub-contracting.

9. The system of sub-contract prevails to some extent in the mines in the Midlands, South Wales, and Scotland. It was stated that in Derbyshire and Leicestershire (3) hewers and stallmen employ and pay their own fillers or loaders, and the wages of the latter are fixed by bargain "with the stallmen." Other contractors convey coal from the face to the pit bank, and employ for that purpose boys and youths from 14 to 21 years of age. The contractors are, however, servants of the company and have no power of dismissal. In South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire (4), "chartermasters" undertake to deliver the coal to the surface at a certain price, and make their own arrangements with the men. In some pits as many as 150 or 200 persons work under these contractors. The chartermasters are, however, bound to pay the men employed by them according to the rate provided for in the sliding scale. The coal in this district is also got by miners who work as sub-contractors, and surface contractors arrange for the loading of the coal. In many mines in South Wales (5) the repairing of roads, and whole districts of coal are let out to sub-contractors. This chiefly occurs in the Waen Llwyd Pit, and No. 1 pit of the Ebbw Vale Collieries. In Fife and Kinross (6), mention was made of the practice by which contractors take a seam and employ miners, possibly at a lower ton price, or possibly by the day. The sub-contract system was also stated to exist in Ayrshire (7). The contractor undertakes to take out a certain piece of coal at so much a ton, and he has authority to engage and discharge his employés, although the colliery officials are responsible for their safety.

QUARRIES. Method of payment.

10. Quarry work is chiefly bargain or contract work. A rockman and quarryman or slater acting in partnership contract with the proprietor. They are paid according to the quality of the slate, so much per ton or per thousand. The quantity of slates produced is ascertained and valued according to a standard scale of payment, and an additional wage is given in the form of "poundage," according to the terms of the contract. The "bargainers" employ "day men." They are also assisted by a class of irregular workmen called "rubblers," paid and engaged by the "bargainers," subject to the approval of the proprietor. "Rubbishers" * are employed and paid directly by the proprietor (8).

Rates of wages.

11. No tabulated statement of the average rates paid in the different districts could be obtained from the evidence given in connection with quarries. It was stated that no uniformity of prices and wages exists in the quarries in North Wales. The wages of quarrymen in the Pen-yr-Orsedd Slate Quarry Company were stated to vary from 4*s.* to 5*s.* a day. The average would therefore probably be somewhat lower than 4*s.* 6*d.* a day. Four shillings and sixpence was also given as the average daily wage in the Penrhyn quarries, but it was stated that a fortnight before the date on which the evidence was given, the rate had been 5 per cent. lower. The average wage of "bargain takers" in the New Welsh Slate Company, Merioneth, was stated to be 5*s.* 2*d.* per day (9). It may be noted, however, that the same witness gave the average weekly wage of this class of labour as 32*s.*, according to which, the bargain takers would have to work on an average more than six days a week. The wages of skilled quarrymen in this district were alleged by the employers to average 24*s.* a week (10). It was stated by the employed in the oral evidence that the average rate varied from 3*s.* to 4*s.* a day. The number of days worked on an average in each week is, however, not given, and the exact class of labour to which the wages of 3*s.* to 4*s.* applies is not specified (11). According to the written evidence received from the Quarrymen's Unions in Rossendale, Leicestershire, and North Wales, (12) the average rates of wages are 31*s.* 6¾*d.*, † and 25*s.* to 26*s.* a

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 378. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 16. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 372, 381. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 371. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 373. Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (6) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 372. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 381. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 24, 30, 31. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 41. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 37–41, 370–83. Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 11, 16. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 80.

* "Rubbishers" carry the material from the rockmen to the place where the slates are made, and remove from the slates the stuff which is of no value. Digest, Vol. II., p. 9.

† The average rate per hour is 7½*d.*, and the number of hours worked per week 50½.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 26, 30. (3) Digest Vol. I., p. 34. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 8, 111. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 25. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 36. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 29, 30. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 9, 12. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 9–11, 15. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 202. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 11–12. (11) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 42.

Royal Cor

TABLE OF ADVANCES AND REDUCTIONS II

PERCENTAGE OF WAGES ABOVE OR BELOW 1879	NORTH WALES	WEST LANCASHIRE	WEST YORKSHIRE	SOUTH YORKSHIRE	NORTH STAFFORDSHIRE	SOUTH STAFFORDSHIRE AND EAST WORCESTERSHIRE	CANNOCK CHASE	NORTHUMBERLAND	DURHAM	CUMBERLAND	SOUTH WALES	EAST OF S
75												
72½												
70												
67½												
65												
62½												
60												
57½											5/91	
55	8/90										2/91 11/91	
52½											11/90	
50	4/90	8/90					3/90				8/90	
47½						4/90						
45	1/90	4/90					11/90				5/90 1/92	
42½						1/90					2/92	
40		1/90		8/90	8/90		1/91			2/90 11/90	1/92	
37½			8/90							6/90	6/92	
35	10/89				4/90	10/89	10/90			7/92	8/92	
32½			4/90	1/90			2/90 2/91				1/90	
30	7/89	10/89			1/90	7/89	3/90			12/89		
27½			1/90	10/89							10/92	
25	10/88	7/89			10/89	10/82 10/88	10/89				10/89	
22½			10/89	7/89							9/89 12/92	
20		11/82 11/88			7/89	1/80	7/89			9/89	3/93	
17½			7/89	10/82 10/88							11/83 5/89	
15	11/82				10/82 11/83 7/89	12/79 1/80 2/81 10/81	10/88			1/83 7/83	6/82 3/85 4/89 4/93	
12½			11/82 11/88				1/80 11/82			4/83 1/64	7/85	
10	11/81	7/84			8/79 2/81 11/88	1/82 10/84				5/89	11/81 11/85 6/93	
7½	3/80 2/81 10/81 5/82						11/81 7/83		2/53	4/81 12/83 3/84 12/88	7/81 3/86 3/88	
5			STRIKE 8 WEEKS		11/81 5/83 5/85				11/82 8/84 2/89	7/81 6/84	2/80 11/86	
2½				STRIKE 8 WEEKS					4/85 5/86 5/88	11/29 8/81 1/85 2/67	3/82	
BASIS 1879	5/11 6/82		8/81 4/85		3/81 8/86	NOV 6/80 4/81	3/80		12/80	2/61 10/84 6/87		
2½	3/60		8/80	4/85	6/80			1/80 1/86		2/80 6/85		4/85 2/87
5								1/80 4/81		9/86		12/88
7½								Strike				
10								11/88				
12½								5/87				2/86 2/88

Note: The Variations in Wages in this district are said to be compounded. Calculated in this way, the present rate of Wages would be 60 per cent. above 1879, compared with 50 per cent. shown above.

Note. It was stated in a letter received from Mr Sopwith (15-6-93) that "the figures are correct according to the Standard on which wages are based but as a matter of fact, very considerable concessions were made independently of the Standard. Although the percentages are therefore somewhat misleading they cannot be put in any other way."

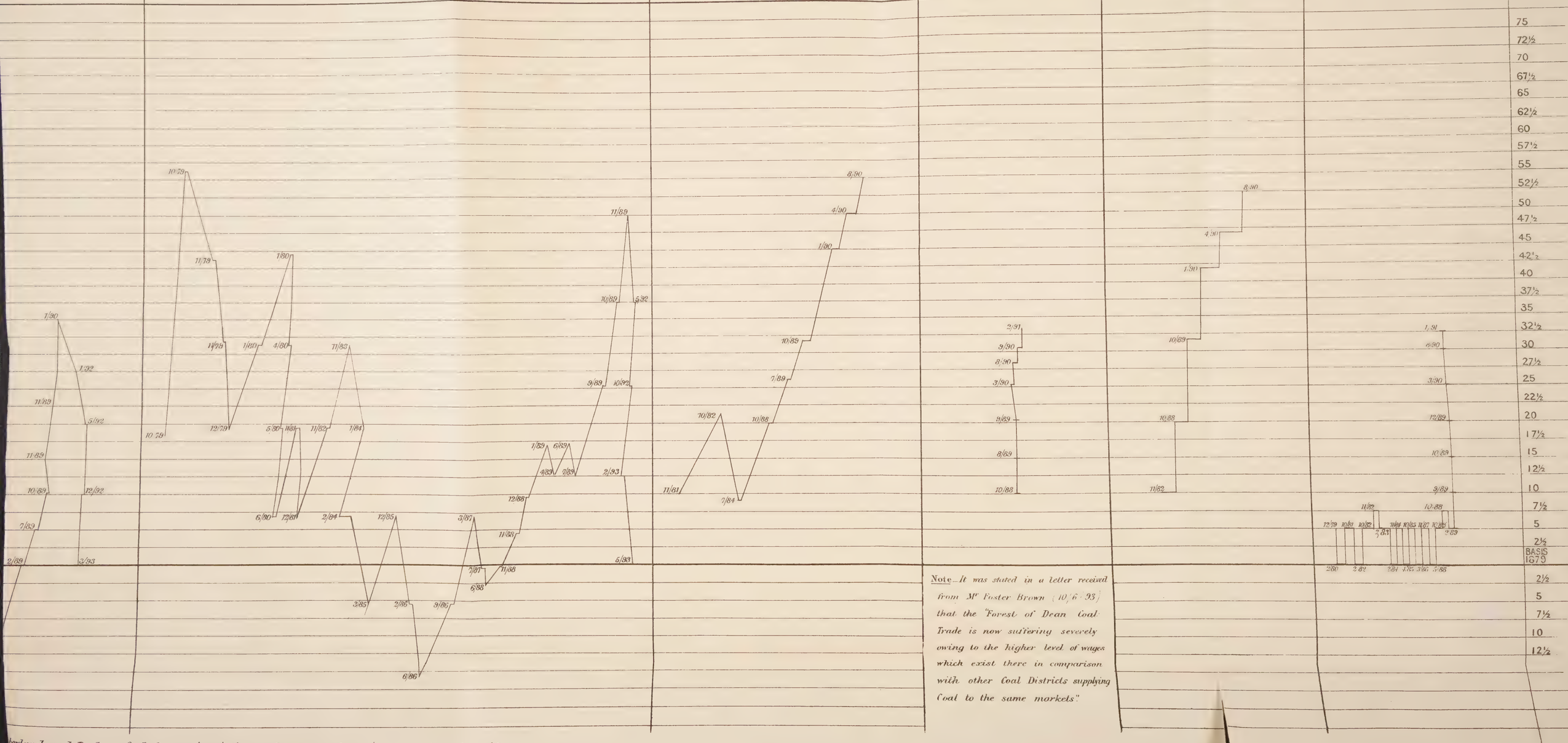
3 MONTHS STRIKE TO GET THIS REDUCTION OF 10%

* *Tables furnished by the North Wales Coal Owners Association and the Northu*

nmission on Labour.

(To face page 42.)

N WAGES IN VARIOUS MINING DISTRICTS SINCE 1879.



Note.—*It was stated in a letter received from Mr Foster Brown (10/6/93) that the "Forest of Dean Coal Trade is now suffering severely owing to the higher level of wages which exist there in comparison with other Coal Districts supplying Coal to the same markets."*

berland and Durham Coal Owners Association and correspondence in connection therewith

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§ 11.] week, respectively, in the two former districts, and 3*s.* to 5*s.* a day in the latter district. It is not clear, however, whether reference is made in each of these districts to the same class of labour. The wages of quarrymen in Gloucester average from 4*s.* 4*d.* to 5*s.* a day, or 26*s.* to 30*s.* a week (1).*

Deductions and allowances.

12. Fines and other deductions from wages appear to exist only in Merionethshire. In that district deductions are made for powder, tools, and candles. Fines are sometimes exacted for blasting out of the specified time. There are no additional allowances to wages, except in the Penrhyn quarries. It was stated that Lord Penrhyn spends between 1,200*l.* and 1,400*l.* a year in the form of pensions to widows and aged quarrymen. Workmen who live at a distance from the quarry are allowed free use of the private railway to travel to and from their homes (2).

(ii.) SLIDING SCALES.

Sliding scales.

13. In certain districts in the mining industry the rates of wages are made to vary automatically under a scale with the selling price of coal and pig-iron. (3). The sliding scale is a method by which wages, based on a standard wage payable at a standard price, rise or fall an agreed percentage with every agreed rise or fall in the average price, such price being ascertained at fixed intervals from the books of a given number of employers, by accountants chosen respectively by employers and employed. The relation which the rate of wages had borne to the selling price over a previous period of some duration is ascertained, and the scale is based upon this relation. The price agreed on is called the "standard" price, and the corresponding wage the "standard" wage. The scale is guaranteed to operate for a certain period, and is then terminable, generally speaking, by a three months' notice from either side, but otherwise, if neither party is dissatisfied, the scale continues in operation, subject to the stipulated notice (4). The scales are, however, modified from time to time, because considerations other than the price of the product, such as the conditions of the labour market and other matters affecting the cost of production, after a certain period, interfere with the basis (5).

(*a.*) *Modifications in sliding scales.*

(*a.*) The general outlines of past scales, and scales now in existence, are substantially similar, although certain alterations have been introduced in matters of detail. Larger gradations of change have, in several cases, been inserted at certain stages in the scales, by which the movements of wages upwards or downwards are accelerated. The ascertainment of prices is also in some cases made more frequently, and the change in the price necessary to effect a corresponding change in wages has been lessened. The fluctuations in wages under the scale have thus become more "sensitive" to changes in the selling price (6).

History of sliding scales.

14. Sliding scales are at the present time in operation in the Aberdare and Merthyr district, the Rhondda Valley, Neath, Swansea and Llanelly, Monmouthshire, South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, and in the Anthracite Collieries, South Wales.

(*a.*) *Durham.*

(*a.*) The sliding scale was first adopted in the Durham coal trade in 1877. (7) The standard wage was to be paid when the standard price of between 5*s.* 8*d.* to 6*s.* 4*d.* was realised. If the price was between 5*s.* 8*d.* and 5*s.* 4*d.*, the wages of hewers and other "below-ground" workmen were to be 5 per cent., and for "above-ground" workmen, 4 per cent. below the standard rate. If the price was lower than 5*s.* 4*d.*, the wages of the former class were to be 7½ per cent., and of the latter class, 6 per cent., below the same point. If, on the other hand, the price was higher than 6*s.* 4*d.*, a rise of 5 per cent. for hewers, &c., and of 4 per cent. for "above-ground workmen" was to correspond to every advance of 8*d.* in price. A minimum wage of 2*s.* 9*d.* per day was fixed for "able-bodied men above ground." "The price of coal regulating the wages" . . . was "the average net price realised for all coal raised at the pits' mouth during the four months preceding March, July, and November of each year," such price to be ascertained "by two properly accredited and certificated accountants, pledged to secrecy, one chosen by the owners, and the other by the workmen, and at their joint expense." The agreement was to continue for two years, and arrangement was made that in the event of any dispute "as to the carrying out of" the scale, the question should "be submitted to the decision of the chairman of the Joint Committee," who, if he could not act himself, should "appoint some other umpire to act in his place," whose award "should be final." During the currency of this scale prices fell below 5*s.* per ton, and as there was no provision for any further reduction of wages than corresponded with a price above 5*s.*, the scale was terminated by the owners; and after the wages had been settled by arbitration, a second scale was instituted on 11th October 1879, in which (the men seeing that if they followed prices up they must also follow them down) there was no longer any minimum point. In this scale, the then prevailing daily wages and piece-work rates, and a price between 4*s.* 2*d.* and 4*s.* 6*d.* per ton were made the standards for changes of 2½ per cent., corresponding with every 4*d.* advance or reduction in prices. This terminated in December 1881. A third, drawn up in April 1882, terminated in December 1883. Both these scales were abolished by notice from the men. The third scale was, however, practically renewed in June 1884. The standard price was now lowered to between 3*s.* 10*d.* and 4*s.*, and the rate of advance or reduction was fixed at 1¼ and 1 per cent. in wages for the respective classes of workmen for every 2*d.* in prices. Between 5*s.* 10*d.* and 6*s.* 2*d.*, the variations in wages were fixed at 2½ and 2 per cent. for each 2*d.* in prices. It was further provided "that the quantity of all coals disposed of otherwise than for colliery purposes, be ascertained and priced at the average selling price of coal of a similar description, and the sum thus arrived at (should) be added to the sales," and "that the quantities raised be checked by the quantities sold, consumed, and stocked." The ascertainment of prices was to take place every three months, and the scale to "continue in force absolutely, till 31st July 1886," and then to be terminable by two months' notice from either side. This scale was also terminated by the men in July 1889. The objections urged were principally that the scale was too slow in giving advances when prices were rising rapidly, and also that the advance in wage was not proportionate to the advance in price of coal. Since 1889, the wages of all classes of workmen have been regulated by arrangement between the Owners' Association and the Federation Board, a body comprising miners, mechanics, enginemen and cokemen.

(*b.*) *Northumberland.*

(*b.*) The first scale (1) was adopted in Northumberland in 1879, and provided that when the average selling price of all coals sent to bank rose or fell 4*d.* per ton above or below 5*s.* 1·28*d.* (the agreed basis price), the wages of hewers and other underground workmen should be increased or reduced 2½ per cent., and above ground men 2 per cent. An extra advance of 2½ per cent. was given for every rise of 1*s.* 4*d.* per ton in the selling price. In March 1883, the basis price was reduced from 5*s.* 1·28*d.* to 4*s.* 8*d.*, and wages were advanced or reduced 1¼ per cent., and 1 per cent. for every rise or fall of 2*d.* in price. At the end of 1886, this scale was terminated by the owners, and notice of a reduction in wages given to the men. The reduction was not accepted, and after a strike of 17 weeks, the men returned to work at the reduced wages. In May, 1887, on the conclusion of the strike, the scale was re-established, and provided for an advance or reduction of 1¼ and 1 per cent. for every 1*d.* rise or fall in price under 5*s.* 5*d.*, and every 2*d.* rise or fall in price over 5*s.* 5*d.* This scale was terminated by the workmen at the end of 1887, and, since that date, wages have "been settled by conference between the representatives of the workmen and the general body of owners." The Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association stated, however, that they were "in favour of a sliding scale as th best and most satisfactory method for the regulation of wages. (They) are also of opinion that with the experience gained during the operation of the scale, and since its termination, it would be possible to form one of a more equitable character than any of those abandoned; and also, that provision might be made for the consideration and settlement of any unforeseen factor that might arise to endanger the scale." (2)

(*c.*) *Cleveland.*

(*c.*) At the end of 1879, the iron trade in Cleveland was emerging from a very troubled time, and the high prices of preceding years had been followed by a rapid fall. (3) The Ironstone Mine Owners then negociated with the men for the establishment of a sliding scale. This sliding scale was based on the assumption that wages at the Cleveland mines would follow the price of Cleveland pig-iron, and the average price of No. 3 iron was ascertained each quarter from the books of six firms in Cleveland by accountants representing employers and employed respectively. The ascertained price regulated wages for the

[§ 14 (*a.*)]

* Labourers earn in this district 3*s.* 2*d.* a day, or 19*s.* a week. They work on an average, therefore, six days a week. The average weekly earnings of quarrymen has been calculated at the same rate.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 210. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 11 14. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 42. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 59 62. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 59, 60–2, 64, 66. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendices I., III., XIII. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 60, 62. (6) Appendices I., III., XIII., Digest, Vol. I., p. 62. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 59, 60. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix I.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 63. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group A., p. 13. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 61, 62.

[§ 14 (c.)] following three months. The books of eight firms were afterwards inspected, instead of those of six firms. When the net average selling price reached 34*s.* per ton, the wages were to be those prevailing immediately prior to the sliding scale agreement, and an increase or decrease of 2*s.* per ton in price gave a rise or fall of 2½ per cent. in wages, in some cases, and 2 per cent. in other cases. (1) Between the years 1879 and 1889 several fresh sliding scales were made; on most occasions of a fresh scale being formed, changes were effected slightly in favour of the men. According to a scale agreed on in 1881, and scales of subsequent date, movements in wages at the Cleveland mines were regulated by the decimal system, under which the change in the price of iron was more rapidly and completely reflected on the wages. There were five scales between 1879 and 1889. In 1889, the miners, by giving the required three months' notice, terminated their scale, and their wages have since been regulated by negociations between the men's association and that of the employers. Reasons alleged by the miners for terminating the scale were, that it did not advance wages sufficiently in relation to the price of iron, and that when an understanding had been come to for so long a time as two years, men failed to keep up their subscriptions to the Miners' Union. Any question in dispute as to the carrying out of the arrangements mentioned in the sliding scale agreements had to be submitted to the decision of a joint committee of mine owners and miners, with power to appoint an umpire in case of failure to settle the question in difference.

(d.) South Wales.

(*d.*) The first sliding scale in South Wales came into operation in January 1876. In 1878, the employers, owing to the existence of a minimum in the scale, made a request to the workmen for a five per cent. reduction, which was granted. They shortly demanded a further reduction of 10 per cent, and, in consequence of the refusal to submit to the reduction on the part of the workmen, gave notice to terminate the scale (2). Under this scale, prices were ascertained every six months by an accountant for each side, and no advance was given in wages unless the market price had advanced 1*s.* per ton. For every advance in the price of 1*s.*, wages were increased 10 per cent. A second scale was established in February 1880, based upon the wages standard of December 1879. The standard prices were 8*s.* for house coal, and 8*s.* 6*d.* for steam coal; the ascertainment of prices took place every four months, and an advance of 2½ per cent. in wages corresponded to a rise of 4*d.* in the market price. According to the agreement of 1892, the standard price was between 7*s.* 10½*d.* and 8*s.* per ton, and the wages were "advanced or reduced at the end of each period of two months by additions or reductions of 1½ per cent. upon the mean monetary result found by the joint auditors as between the scale dated 6th of June 1882, and the scale dated 15th of January 1890." The scale was to continue in force for six months from 1st January 1892, and thenceforth "until either party gives six months' notice of termination." The last revision of the sliding scale was stated to have given greater satisfaction than any previously made. Any questions in dispute as to the carrying out of the arrangements mentioned in the sliding scale agreement are submitted to a permanent Wages Board.

(e.) South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire.

(*e.*) A scale was formulated in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, under Mr. J. Chamberlain's award in 1874, on the following terms. (3) For "thick" coal colliers, 5*s.* 6*d.* per day was fixed as the maximum, and 3*s.* 6*d.* as the minimum rate. When "thick" miners' wages stood at 4*s.* 6*d.* per stint, "thin" miners were to be paid 3*s.* 3*d.*, and were to experience a rise or fall of 3*d.* as the rate for "thick" coal varied by 6*d.* The difference between the wages earned by "thick" and "thin" coal workers respectively is more nominal than real, because the "stint" of the latter is smaller, and he is consequently able during the day to earn a larger sum in excess of that paid for the nominal day's work. All hewers perform in the course of the day from 1¼ to 1⅝ nominal day's work, according to the circumstances of their various working places. At a conference held in 1877, an agreement was made abolishing maximum and minimum rates, fixing the scale of payment at 3*s.* a day on a standard price of coal of 9*s.* per ton, this being the price at which Lord Dudley's coal was at that time being sold, and providing for a rise and fall of 3*d.* per day for every variation of 1*s.* in the Earl of Dudley's price. The "thin" wages were to be 2*s.* 6*d.* when the "thick" were 3*s.*, and the former were to rise and fall 1½*d.* in correspondence with each change of 3*d.* in the latter. This arrangement was guaranteed a continuance of three months, after which it was to be terminable by a three months' notice from either side. In December 1881, this scale underwent a slight modification. When the price of Lord Dudley's coal was over 9*s.* per ton, the wages for "thick" coal were to rise and fall 4*d.* instead of 3*d.* for every 1*s.* variation, the relation between the rates for "thick" and "thin" coal remaining undisturbed. On 2nd May 1883, the men gave notice to terminate the agreement in consequence of Lord Dudley having lowered the price of his coal by 1*s.* a ton. The arbitrator to whom the matter was referred decided that during the three months that the scale remained in force, wages should continue at the same rate as if the price of coal had not been reduced. The settlement of a new basis he left to the consideration of the then proposed conciliation board. At the expiration of the three months, in August 1883, such a board was formed, and the men's representatives at once proposed that wages should be calculated on the basis of a minimum rate of 3*s.* 8*d.* per day, and, upon the objection of the employers to accede to this, the matter was referred first to Mr. Haden Corser, and then to Mr. Rowlands, but in both cases unsuccessfully, a disastrous strike, lasting from the 28th of June to the 13th of October 1884, being the result. Upon the reconstitution of the board in 1888, an automatic sliding scale was drawn up, based not as before on the price of one quality of coal at one particular colliery, but upon the average selling price of all qualities of coal throughout the district. That price was to be ascertained by submitting the books of 12 employers, six selected by the representatives of their own body on the board, and six by those of the men, to the examination of a firm of accountants approved by both parties. Under the agreement of 1890 (1), when the average selling price of coal was 4*s.* 9*d.*, "thick coal" wages were 3*s.* 4*d.*, and "thin coal" wages, 2*s.* 8*d.* Two pence per ton rise or fall in the average selling price varied thick coal miners' wages one penny per day, and two pence per day rise or fall in thick coal miners' wages varied thin coal miners' wages 1½*d.* per day. Any alteration in the scale could only take effect after three months' notice. Subject to a few minor modifications, effected without friction by mutual agreement, the scale adopted in 1888 still continues to operate, and is giving perfect satisfaction. [§ 14 (c.)]

(f.) Cannock Chase District.

(*f.*) From 1874 to 1883, wages in the Cannock Chase district were regulated by a sliding scale, based on the average selling price of coal, and modified at different intervals (2). The last re-arrangement was made in 1882, and in 1883 the scale was abandoned by notice from the men in consequence of a general feeling of dissatisfaction on their part with the system. According to the agreement drawn up in 1882, the rate of 2*s.* 4½*d.* per "stint" was fixed as the minimum rate of wages payable, and for every increase of 4*d.* in the average selling price, there was 1¼*d.* rise in the colliers' stint, or 3¾*d.* to every 1*s.* advance in price. The stint, however, is really only the measure of one-half day's work, *i.e.*, the average wage of men working in the face is at the rate of two stints per day, and the average advance of the colliers is really twice 3¾*d.* or 7½*d.* to 1*s.* advance in price. Thus, taking the scale: When the average selling price was 6*s.* 1*d.*, the stint was 2*s.* 4½*d.*, and the average wage 4*s.* 9*d.* When the price rose to 7*s.* 1*d.*, the stint was 2*s.* 8½*d.*, and the average wage 5*s.* 4½*d.*, the other classes of labour were in proportion; thus, a boy getting 2*s.* 4½*d.* when the price was 6*s.* 1*d.*, got 2*s.* 8½*d.* when the price was 7*s.* 1*d.* The ascertainment of prices took place quarterly, and the agreement was binding for 12 months, and then subject to six months' notice from either side. Every advance in prices under these scales gave the men a certain fixed advance in wages. Wages have been arranged by negotiation since 1883.

(g) Leicestershire.

(*g.*) An unsuccessful attempt was made in 1875 to establish a scale at one colliery in Leicestershire (3). The scale was based on high prices, although prices were no longer rising, and during the six months for which the scale operated, two reductions took place. The men then became dissatisfied, and the scale was abandoned by mutual consent.

(h) Lancashire and South Yorkshire.

(*h.*) Attempts have also been made to establish sliding scales in Lancashire and South Yorkshire, but they have proved unsuccessful (4).

(i.) Lanarkshire and Ayrshire.

(*i.*) In 1887, the Lanarkshire Associated Employers imposed a sliding scale upon the men employed in a large number of the collieries, especially in the Lanarkshire district. The men had not been consulted in its formation, and in 1889 they rebelled against it. The employers

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix III. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 64, Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix XIII. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 95.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group A., Appendix II. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 66–7. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 66. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 67–8.

[§ 14 (i.)] attributed their action to impatience. It was stated that a rapid revival of trade had caused several owners outside the Lanarkshire Masters' Association to raise their rate of wages, and the men employed by members of that society demanded an immediate advance like their neighbours had obtained, and refused to wait for the regular ascertainment of prices under the scale. The representatives of the men, however, stated that the men approved of the principle of a sliding scale, but they objected to being governed by one which they had taken no part in framing. Had they been consulted when the scale was drawn up, they would have made it successful. As it was, a scale was imposed upon them which was too technical, and rested on too low a basis. In Ayrshire, a scale was adopted in 1873, but it was stopped by a strike against an imminent reduction in wages after it had been in existence for 12 months (1).

dvantages nd dis- dvantages f sliding cales.

15. It is stated in the evidence that the system of sliding scales is more adaptable to the "simpler industries," in which wages form the chief item of cost as in mining, and where the cost and selling price of the standard product is consequently not disturbed by the varying market price of purchased materials. In this industry, "wages are governed in the main by the rise and fall in prices, and must always be so, sliding scale or no sliding scale," and advances or reductions conceded by negotiation are in reality based on changes in the selling price (2).

a.) *Advantages.*

(*a.*) Under the sliding-scale system, however, an agreed and recognised relation is established between wages and ascertained prices, and the fluctuations are worked out automatically without the frequent disputes which otherwise occur. In the absence of a scale the men may, by refusing to submit to the slight reductions necessary from time to time, at length force the owners, when trade is bad, to insist upon a large reduction, and a strike becomes imminent, while, on the other hand, the sliding scale, in so far as it is "sensitive" to changes in the selling price, "lets the men down gradually, and they (can) accommodate themselves gradually to the altered circumstances, and so (do) not feel the effect of the reductions so much as when they are called upon to forego a considerable amount of their wages (3)." The chief advantage which the sliding scale method possesses over that of periodical negotiations or informal conferences which, as before stated, are based upon the same principle, is alleged to lie in the stability which is given to trade by the settlement of wages for a considerable period compared with the uncertainty caused under other systems by the periodical demands for advances on the part of the men, and reductions on the part of the owners (4). It is represented in the evidence that, provided a fair basis can be found, the sliding scale is the best system for avoiding disputes (5). It is best for the men, because it "gives permanent peace and contentment," and best for the employer, because "it settles everything ; owners know what is coming, and how they can regulate their trade and everything else," and it leaves (their) mind free to deal with other matters." The scale, in consequence of this steadying effect on trade, gives higher wages, but the evidence points to the fact that it is only "over a lengthened period" that this influence is felt. "It is impossible that any scale shall ever . . follow with anything like parallelism the rising price, particularly in its higher ranges, and . . . on the other hand, it is almost sure that wages will descend to the lower levels of price," but there is "a considerable advantage to the workmen on a falling market, which counterbalances the disadvantages on a rising market."* The "ideal scale would produce for the men working under it rather better wages than they were entitled to at its lower end, in return for rather smaller wages at its higher end." With regard to the objection urged that the tendency of the scale is to keep down prices, it was stated "that it is the interest of every party to keep up prices . . . . the man wants them up, because he wants better wages ; the master wants them up, because he gets more profits (6)."

b.) *Disadvantages.* i.) *General.*

(*b.*) (*i.*) The main disadvantages in connection with the formation of a sliding scale, to which attention was drawn in the evidence, are firstly the difficulty of obtaining a satisfactory basis, and secondly the effect of a more or less permanent wage settlement upon the union. Although it is necessary for both parties to be organised in order [§ 15 (*b.*) (*i.*)] that sliding scales may be satisfactorily arranged, the membership of the miners' association in Cleveland had decreased under the scale by "nearly one-half." On the other hand the secretary of the Associated Iron and Steel Workers of Great Britain stated that his experience was that the membership increased considerably under a scale, and it was suggested by another witness from Cleveland that "probably the sliding scale altogether had not had the effect on the union which was apparent," because "when (the) union suffered so severely for lack of membership, it was in very bad times (1)." Difficulties in connection with the operation of the scales have been found to arise "either when wages are very high and trade is very good, or when trade is very low," and, at these times, there is a tendency for the scale to be broken through (2). It was proposed that a new scale should give more relief to the owners when "prices fall to about the cost of production," that there should be a "neutral zone" in which the "principle" of former scales should operate, and above that zone there should be a greater proportionate advance than the old scale gave, and for the consideration of complaints from either side an umpire should be appointed, either as occasion demanded or for the period of the scale (3).

(*b.*) (*ii.*) Special difficulties, however, prevent the establishment of a sliding scale in certain districts ; in Leicestershire, for example, the qualities of coal are so various that a different basis of wages would be needed in almost every colliery. It was suggested in this case that an average could be struck of all the coal sold in the district within a certain period to form a basis of price, while the actual wages which each colliery was paying at that time might become the basis upon which a certain advanced or reduced wage would be paid according to the rise or fall in the average price (4). (*ii.*) *Local.*

(iii.) PROFIT SHARING AND CO-OPERATION.*

Profit Sharing.

16. With regard to the system of profit sharing, an employer from Gloucestershire (iron ore miners) stated that the plan of profit sharing had "been often considered "but never attempted, in consequence of special difficulties which would apply to iron miners. These consist "chiefly of : (1) the roads of exploration, which are specu- "lative only, and often unproductive ; and (2) the ir- "regularity of demand for the ore, which necessitates the "holding of considerable stock, while the real value of the "ore stocked cannot be ascertained until it is sold and "sent off"(5). On the other hand, it was stated by the manager of the New Welsh Slate Company, Merionethshire, that this system has a greater chance of success in the quarrying trade than in many others, because so much depends on the skill and industry of the workmen. A system of profit sharing is in operation in these quarries by which workmen can take shares in the Company. In addition to the interest payable on his capital, every workman that holds a 5*l.* share is entitled to receive a bonus to the payment of which 10 per cent. of the profits is devoted. 250 workmen are employed by the Company. Of these, 80 have already taken shares, and it was stated that 40 more were about to do the same. This Company has, however, only been working for two years and has not yet realised any profits. The men are, therefore, deriving no immediate benefit from the scheme (6). A system of the nature of profit sharing had been introduced by the Pen yr Orsedd Slate Quarry Company at one time and was found impracticable. The workmen were charged "a "price per yard of rock removed," and were paid the "value at an agreed list of slates made" (7).

Co-operative production.

17. One quarry in North Wales only was stated to be worked on co-operative principles at the present time in the industries under consideration (8). Instances were given of unsuccessful productive co-operative enterprises which have been abandoned both in the mining and quarrying industries. It was stated by the representative of the Northumberland and Durham Miners' Mutual Confident Association that the society, "in 1874, initiated a movement for the purchase of a "colliery." After considerable difficulties, "one was "obtained in Derbyshire. 1,000*l.* from the funds of the "society was invested in it, and the members individ- "ually subscribed about 3,000*l.* more." "The colliery

* It was pointed out by Mr. Bell that the complaint on the part of the workmen to the effect that the sliding scale does not give them the full advantage of an upward movement in prices is partly due to the fact that the quoted prices are frequently higher than the ascertained prices. This difference, Mr. Bell stated, is "inherent in the nature of things" and "the "mineowner can only pay what he receives." Bell, 1422-3. See also *infra*, § 108 (*b.*)

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 97. (2) Bell, 14,620-3, 14,634. Digest, Vol. I., pp. 17, 62. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 62-3. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 62, 63. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 60. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 62.

* It appeared convenient to treat the subjects of Profit Sharing and Co-operation at this stage, inasmuch as they are methods of industrial remuneration, and sliding scales are an automatic method of Profit Sharing.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 62, Question 926. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 66, 67. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 63. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 66. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 347. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 11. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 340. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 165.

[§ 17.] "was worked for 2½ years at a great loss" and was then resold to the vendor. The loss on the venture was stated to have been 20,000*l.*, *i.e.*, about 4*s.* 3*d.* a ton for the first twelve months, and 2*s.* 9*d.* a ton during the last fifteen months, on every ton sold. The miners in Yorkshire at one time made a similar attempt and failed (1). The North Wales Quarrymen's Union stated that "a Limited Liability Company" had been "established to work a quarry, but it failed to raise sufficient "capital to carry it on" (2). The Lofthouse Colliery Company stated that "the colliery was commenced on "the co-operative system in 1878 but was abolished in "1880, owing to the workmen not working in harmony "with the principle of co-operation" (3). The system of co-operative production in mines was stated, however, hardly to have had a "fair trial" in 1874. "Nearly "everybody who took collieries . . . in 1873, 1874, "1875 failed." The "Corresponding Secretary" of the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association stated, however, that he had some doubt whether a colliery worked by co-operators would be as successful as one worked by private enterprise. "It is," he stated, "an exceedingly difficult thing to work a colliery success-"fully" (5).

Co-operative distribution.

18. Reference was made to the existence of co-operative stores in Northumberland and Ayrshire. A co-operative dairy was established in the former district in 1873. It was stated to be still in existence, and for the last nine or ten years it has been paying 10 per cent. There is also a store at the North Seaton Colliery, Northumberland, which was stated to provide members with tailoring, grocery, butchery, &c. Nine-tenths of the members of the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association were said to deal with co-operative stores (6). Contradictory evidence was given by employers and employed with regard to the co-operative stores connected with the Eglinton Iron Company, Ayrshire. The representatives of the Miners' Union in that district stated that they were only nominally co-operative, that they were managed exclusively in the interests of the employers and were the means of introducing a "very insidious form of the old truck system" (6). It was alleged that only employés of the firm are allowed to deal at the stores. After 4½ per cent. has been paid on the invested capital, the remaining profit is distributed among the purchasers as a dividend, in proportion to the amount of their purchases. A person leaving, or dismissed from his employment, forfeits all claim to his share in the dividend. In this manner it was alleged that the employers exercised a great deal of "terrorism" over the employés towards the time when the dividend becomes payable. It was stated that the men established co-operative societies on their own account, whenever possible (*e.g.*, Tribby Colliery). The witness alleged, however, that owners, and landlords in league with them, will not let their lands, or give any facilities for opening stores other than those already established (7). On the other hand, it was stated by one of the coal masters from the district that the system is "highly appreciated by the great body of workmen." This, he stated, was proved by the fact that the blast-furnacemen continued to deal at the stores during the period of the Gartsherrie strike (October, 1891—March, 1892). Moreover, some of those who had previously bought their goods elsewhere came to the stores, because circumstances then compelled them to practise a severer economy. It was stated that there is "absolutely "no compulsion brought to bear upon the men to induce "them to deal at the stores." A dividend is paid to employés of the firm from the profits on their purchases. The profits on the purchases of outsiders form a fund which is administered by the committee for the benefit of workmen in distress through accidents, &c. The dividend due to any workman who has left the employment of the firm is also credited to the fund. 8 per cent. interest is paid on the invested capital. The sales of the stores amount to between 80,000*l.* and 90,000*l.* a year. The profit is disposed at the discretion of the committee. This committee is elected annually by the shareholders. The cashier of the firm is an *ex-officio* member, and the firm acts through its cashier as banker. Otherwise, it was alleged, it exercises no control over the stores. No shareholder is allowed to take more than 20*l.* of shares. All the capital, amounting to between 5,000*l.* and 6,000*l.*, was stated to be owned by the employés of the company, and the greater portion of it by ordinary workmen. It was stated that the stores were formerly in the hands of the employers, but, 30 years ago, they were re-organised on a genuine co-operative basis (1). [§ 18.]

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 159. Digest, Vol. I., p. 17. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 165. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 355. (4) Young, 2210. Digest, Vol I., p. 17. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. (6) Keir Hardie, 12493. (7) Digest, Vol. II. p. 29. Question 12493.

2. HOURS.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF HOURS.

MINES. (*a.*) *Sources of information.*

19. (*a.*) The tabular statements of hours worked by underground and above-ground workmen in mines, have been drawn chiefly from the Parliamentary Returns on the Hours of Labour ordered by the House of Commons on Mr. Provand's (284, 1890), and Mr. Broadhurst's motions (375, 1890) respectively. The details given therein for certain districts have been supplemented by the oral and written evidence. In Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, and certain other districts noted in the tables, the average hours per day from bank to bank at the face and the number of days worked per week at the face have been quoted from the former Return. The allowance for meal-times to above-ground workmen has been obtained from the same source. It may be noted that the information in these districts obtained from sources other than the above has, generally speaking, verified the figures in the table. Thus, the hours of hewers in the Whitfield Colliery, North Staffordshire, were stated in the oral evidence to average 9 from bank to bank (2). This is in almost exact agreement with the estimate (8·95) given in the Parliamentary Return. Again, the hours of hewers in Northumberland were stated to average 7½ from bank to bank at "long hour" collieries and 6½ at "short hour" collieries (3). Taking the arithmetic mean, the average for the county as a whole would be seven hours. The average given in the Return to which previous reference has been made is 7·08. In West Yorkshire, the hours of colliers and ordinary underground bye-workmen were stated to vary from eight to nine. In South Yorkshire, (4) the hours of hewers were stated to be "practically" eight hours from bank to bank. The average for the whole county of Yorkshire would, therefore, be about 8½ hours. This again differs but slightly from the estimate (eight hours) given in the table. There are apparent discrepancies in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire in the evidence received from associated employers and employed, and the figures given in Mr. Provand's Return. It was stated by the Ayrshire Miners' Union that there was no standard average of hours, and that they varied at the face from 7 to 10 (5). The average number of hours at the face would, therefore, probably be about 8½. The average given in the Return is 7·55. This difference may, however, be accounted for by the fact that in the answers from the Ayrshire Miners' Union, it is not stated whether the hours given are inclusive or exclusive of meal-times. In Lanarkshire, it was alleged by the associated miners that the average bank to bank hours for underground labour were 10. The employers stated that they varied from 9½ to 10; the average would, therefore, be 9¾ hours (6); these figures are not in agreement with the average quoted from Mr. Provand's Return. With reference to Table B., it may be similarly observed that the information received from the various sources is in agreement. Thus, it is stated in Mr. Provand's Return that the hours per day of surfacemen in Cleveland, exclusive of meal-times, average 9·21, that they work six days a week and that the allowance per day for meal-times amounts to 1·25 hours. Information on these points was also received from the secretary of the North Yorkshire and Cleveland Miners' Association. He stated that about nine hours per day for six days in the week are worked on an average, and that about 1½ hours were allowed per day for meals.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. McCosh, 13618. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 380–1. Digest, Vol. I., p. 36. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 41. (6) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 383. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 25, 31, 32.

STATEMENT showing the Average Number of Hours worked by Hewers per Day from Bank to Bank, and at the Face, in the Chief Mining Districts, 1890, &c.

[§ 19 (a)]

A.—UNDERGROUND LABOUR (Hewers or Coal-Getters).

DISTRICT.	Hours from Bank to Bank per Day.	Hours at the Face per Day, exclusive of Meal Times.	Allowance for Meal Times.	Days per Week at the Face.	Hours per Week at the Face.	Variation in Hours between Summer and Winter.	Rules imposed on Hewers with regard to the Time at which they leave the Mine.
* Northumberland (1) -	7·08	6·07	"Hewers and other piece workmen take what food they require at such times as they desire it, as they are paid on the quantity of coal produced."	5·26	31·92	No variation - -	"The miners are required to stay the agreed hours of work, and not to leave the mine earlier, except in case of illness, or when they have been working wet."
* Durham (2) - -	7·21	5·87	"Hewers take what food they require at such times as they desire it, as they are paid on the quantity of coal produced." The stoppage generally varies from 20 minutes to half an hour.	5·60	32·87	No variation - -	"Except in case of illness or other legitimate cause, there are definite times for descending and ascending the mine for all classes of workmen," and the miners are not free to leave the mines when they choose.
* Yorkshire (3) - -	8·8	7·5	West Yorkshire: no stated allowance. "The miners take their meals as they please." South Yorkshire: no stated allowance, generally speaking.	5·0	37·50	West Yorkshire: no variation in hours of work per day. South Yorkshire: "practically," no variation.	West Yorkshire; miners not allowed to ascend pits before 2 p.m., unless on account of illness or accident. South Yorkshire: Hewers leave at the end of the shift, except in cases of sickness, accident, or necessity.
Cleveland (4) - -	8·04	6·99	Half an hour; no fixed meal time. The men generally get their "bait" when they like.	5·5	38·44	No variation - -	Generally speaking, the miners are allowed to leave when they choose, but they are "expected to do a day's work."
Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan (5).	8·5	7·5	Half an hour to three quarters of an hour.	5·0	37·5 The number of hours worked at the face varies from 35 to 40.	No variation - -	Miners are free to ascend, with the permission of the overman.
*Lanarkshire (6) - -	9·28	7·88	No fixed time allowed for meals, but from 45 to 75 minutes may be taken as the minimum and maximum time given.	5·5	43·34	No variation -	As a rule, free "in practice" to leave the mines when they choose. "The masters have the power of preventing them leaving before the usual time as settled by arbitration, the arbitrator stating that this was as much in the interests of the workmen themselves, as in that of the employers."
Ayrshire (7) - -	9·26	7·55	"In some cases 30, in others 60, minutes is allowed," according as the pits stop working at 4 or 4.30 p.m.	5·2	39·26	No variation - -	Miners generally free to leave the mines when they choose; in some mines they are not allowed to come up till 4 p.m.
Mid and West Lothians (8).	9	About 8.	No stated allowance -	5·5	About 44	No variation - -	In mines where "the miners can travel up," they are free to leave when they choose. Where they "require to be drawn up," they have to wait till 3 p.m., unless an accident takes place, and keeps them at work beyond this time.
North Lancashire (9) -	8 to 8·5, up to an hour or an hour and a quarter more.	7·92	Pits stop winding 20 minutes for breakfast and 30 minutes for dinner.	About 5	About 39·60	No variation - -	Not free to leave the mine when they choose, with the exception of some collieries. Except in cases of emergency, not permitted to leave before 2.30 *without permission*.
West Lancashire (10) -	9·32	7·86	·96 hours - - -	4·83	37·96	No variation - -	The miners are allowed, generally speaking, to come up any time after 2. In about three or four collieries they are obliged to stay in the mine till 3 p.m.
* North Staffordshire (11)	8·95	7·63	·62 hours - - -	5·22	39·82	No variation - -	"The miners are not free to leave the pit except with the consent of the manager or other authorised person."

(1) Letter received from R. Guthrie (20/5/93); Digest, Vol. I., p. 17. (2) Letter received from R. Guthrie (20/5/93); Patterson, 302. (3) Letter received from B. Day (19/5/93); Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 380–1; Digest, Vol, I., p. 36; letter received from F. Rhodes (12/6/93). (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 381; letter received from J. Toyn (7/6/93); letter received from J. Dennington (17/5/93). (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 382; Digest, Vol. II., p. 36; letter received from J. Connel (3/6/93). (6) Letter received from R. Baird (17/5/93). (7) Letter received from J. Keir Hardie (18/5/93); (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 41; letter received from J. Wilson (12/6/93). (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31; letters received from G. W. Macalpine (18/5/93, 26/5/93). (10) G. Caldwell. 5825, 5931; letter received from G. Caldwell (13/6/93). (11) Letter received from J. White (1/6/93).

A.—Underground Labour (Hewers or Coal-Getters).—*continued.*

[§ 19 (*a.*)] [§ 19 (*a.*)]

District.	Hours from Bank to Bank per Day.	Hours at the Face per Day, exclusive of Meal Times.	Allowance for Meal Times.	Days per Week at the Face.	Hours per Week at the Face.	Variation in Hours between Summer and Winter.	Rules imposed on Hewers with regard to the Time at which they leave the Mine.
South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire (1).	About 9·25	6 to 7 hours.	50 minutes - - -	5·5	About 44·0	No variation - -	Hewers and other colliers working by "stint" are free to go up when their "stint" is finished. Colliers working by the day have to remain in the mine for the full working hours.
* Derbyshire (2) - -	9·28	7·88	Half an hour - -	5·11	40·26	No variation n hours worked from bank to bank.	"Stallmen" free to go up the shaft after about 1 p.m. If they wish to go up before that time, they must have special permission from the under-manager.
* Nottinghamshire (3) -	9·6	8·23 †	·52 hours - - -	4·93	40·57	No variation - -	The miners are not free to leave the mines when they choose, except in case of illness.
Tamworth District (4) -	9	7·50 ‡	Allowance for meal times varies from 35 to 45 minutes in the different collieries.	6·0	45·00	No variation - -	The miners not free to leave when they choose, except in cases of emergency.
Cannock Chase District (5).	8·5 to 9	7·5	Half an hour - -	4·291 (days of 8 hours).	34·3275	"The hours vary occasionally as much as from three to nine hours from bank to bank, or, say, two to eight at the face, as the pits frequently stop drawing at one-quarter day during the summer."	Not free to leave when they choose, except in case of illness or accident, or with permission of officials. The latter is very freely granted.
Rhondda Valley (6) -	9·5	8·67	Two hours per week, in most collieries 20 minutes daily.	6·0	52·02	No variation - -	Not free to leave the mines when they choose. It was stated that there is no rule as to how long a man shall remain in the pit, and many stay 11 or 12 hours.
Aberdare and Merthyr (7).	9·66	6·66 §	On an average 30 minutes	6·0	39·96	No variation - -	Not free to leave the mines when they choose unless permission be given.
Ocean Collieries (8) -	9·75	7 or 7·25	Colliers take their meals at times convenient to themselves, without any definite regulations on the part of the management. Lunch time occupies about 20 minutes, and dinner 20 to 30 minutes.	6·0	42 or 43·50	No variation - -	"Subject to permission of manager and overman, the miners are free to leave the mines when they elect to do so."
Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly (9).	9	7·5 ‖	Half an hour for meal times at some pits, no stop time at others.	6·0	45·0	No variation, summer and winter alike collieries work in accordance with demand for coal.	Not free to leave mines when they choose.
Anthracite Collieries (10)	9	8½ (inclusive of meal times).	No stated allowance -	6	51·0	No variation - -	Not free to leave mines when they choose.
* Monmouthshire (11) -	9·22	8·01	None, the men get their meals as the circumstances of work permit; *i.e.*, during short stoppages.	5·61	44·93	No variation - -	Not free to leave when they choose; if they require to do so for any particular purpose, permission is granted by one of the officials.
* Glamorganshire (12) -	9·13	7·66	Underground workmen take as long as they like for meals.	5·7	43·66	No variation - -	Men not allowed to leave the mine, except at regulation hours, without the consent of the manager. This is "never withheld when the men show any necessity or good reason for ascending the pit."

Note.—It was stated in a letter received from G. W. Macalpine (18/5/93) that "the average hours per week worked at the face during the whole year range from 37 to 42, or 43, for in collieries where the longer hours are worked the attendance of the men is not so good." For the Altham Collieries 7½ hours are worked at the face by the miners who are engaged in "driving."

* Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries. (Return ordered on Mr. Provand's motion. 284, 1890.)

† In a letter received from F. C. Corfield (26/5/93) the average number of hours at the face per day was stated to be 7 or 7½.

‡ In a letter received from L. Ridsdale (25/5/93) the average working hours per day at the face were stated to be 6½.

§ 6·66 hours at the face is the average given for the Cwmaman Collieries. In a letter received from the secretary of the Aberdare, Merthyr and Dowlais Miners' Association (17/5/93), the number of hours at the face was stated to vary from 8 to 8½ per day.

‖ The number of hours at the face was stated in a letter from I. Evans (16/5 93) to be 8 per day. This has been taken to be inclusive of meal times The rate of hours in the district was stated to be 9 hours on Monday, 9½ on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday, 7 on Saturday, *i.e.*, an average of 9 hours a day for six days (I. Evans, 4533).

(1) Digest, Vol II., p. 8; letters received from Col. Cochrane (22/5/93, 29/5/93); Col. Cochrane, 10,908–19 (2) Letter received from J. P. White (17 5/93). (3) Letter received from F. C. Corfield, 26/5/93). (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370; letter received from L. Ridsdale (25/5/93). (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370; letters received from A. Sopwith (17/5/93, 25/5/93). (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 16; letter received from W. Evans (15/5/93). (7) Digest, Vol. II. p. 17; letter received from D. Parker (17/5/93). (8) Digest, Vol II., p. 21; letter received from W. Jenkins (17/5/93). (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 23; letter received from I. Evans (16/5/93). (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 26; letter received from E. Rees (25/5/93). (11) Letter received from E. Jones (18/5/93). (12) Letter received from W. Hood (17/5/93).

[§ 19 (a.)] STATEMENT showing Number of Hours Worked per Day and per Week in different Districts in 1890–91. [§ 19 (a.)]

B.—ABOVE-GROUND.

DISTRICT.	Hours per Day, exclusive of Meal Times.	Allowance for Meal Times.	Average Days per Week.	Total Hours per Week, exclusive of Meal Times.	Variation in Hours between Summer and Winter.	REMARKS.
*Northumberland (1)	9·34	One hour	5·60	52·30	No variation.	
*Durham (2)	9·43	1·10 hours	5·84	55·07	No variation.	
*Yorkshire (3)	9·00	·87 hours	5·20 (winding enginemen and stokers are at work every day.)	46·80	(1) West Yorkshire; no variation for winding enginemen, &c., screeners, &c., work only such days as the pits work, and "as a general rule, more days per week are worked in this district during the winter than in the summer."	
*Cleveland (4)	9·21	1·25 hours	6·0	55·26	No variation.	
Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan. (5)	—	About 1·50 hours	—	—	No variation.	
*Lanarkshire (6)	9·05	·98 hours	6·0	54·30	No variation.	
*Ayrshire (7)	8·75	1·05 hours	5·95	52·06	No variation, save for stoppages due to the weather.	
Mid and West Lothians (8)	9·50 (inclusive of meal times.)	1·50 hours	6·0	57·0	Work 1½ hours less per day in winter.	
North Lancashire (9)	9·00 (mechanics, &c.)	1·50 hours	A little over 5·50	49·50	No variation.	
*West Lancashire (10)	9·41	1·26 hours	5·34	50·24	No variation.	
*North Staffordshire (11)	8·57	·92 hours	5·86	50·22	No variation.	
South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire. (12)	8·50	·83 hours	5·00 (engineers, 6 days.)	42·50	No variation.	
*Derbyshire (13)	8·70	·72 hours	5·25	45·67	No variation.	
*Nottinghamshire (14)	8·57	·58 hours	5·05	43·27	No variation.	
Tamworth District (Carpenters, Smiths, &c.) (15)	9·00	One hour	§ 5·00	45·0	No variation.	
Cannock Chase District (16)	8·50	·50 hours	4·25	37·0	(*See* Table A.)	
Rhondda Valley (17)	†8·66	·33 hours (20 minutes.)	6·0	52·0	No variation.	
Aberdare and Merthyr (18)	9	·50 hours (Smiths, carpenters, and fitters, get 1½ hours for meals.)	5·5	49·5	No variation.	
Ocean Collieries (19)	‡8·66	‡·33 hours (20 minutes.)	‡6·0	‡52·0	No variation.	
Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly (20)	10 (inclusive of meal times.)	·50 hours at some pits, no stop time at others.	6·0 (when working full time.)	60·0 (inclusive of meal times.)	No variation. "Winter or summer make no difference . . . if trade remains the same."	
Anthracite Collieries (Pitbank Labourers). (21)	9 (inclusive of meal times.)	·33 hours (20 minutes.)	6·0	5·40 (inclusive of meal times.)	No variation.	
*Monmouthshire (22)	9·24	No regular allowance	5·57	51·46	No variation.	
*Glamorganshire	8·85	1·10 hours	5·70	50·44	—	

* Figures obtained from Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries. (Return ordered on Mr. Provand's motion, 284, 1890.)

† In a letter received from W. Evans (20/5/93), it is not clear whether the hours given for above-ground workmen are inclusive or exclusive of meal times.

‡ It was stated in a letter received from W. Jenkins (22/5/93), that "during the hours of 7 and 4 o'clock, there are various short spells which enable the workmen to take short rests." "The number of days per week, is, as a rule, 6, except one week in every month, when the number of days worked is only 5." Winding enginemen work 48 hours per week. There are also "employed on the surface at each colliery, mechanics and artisans of various trades. . . . These men would work 54 hours per week, divided so as to yield 9½ hours for 5 days, and 6½ hours on Saturday. These men commence work at 6 o'clock in the morning, and leave off at 5 o'clock in the evening on each day of the week, except Saturday, when they cease work at 1 o'clock. They are allowed half an hour for breakfast and an hour for dinner."

(1) Information received from L. Wood (30/5/93). (2) Letter received from R. Guthrie (20/5/93). (3) Letter received from B. Day (26/5/93). (4) Letter received from J. Toyn (22/5/93). (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 22; letter received from J. Connel (3/6/93). (6) Letter received from R. Baird, (22/5/93). (7) Letter received from J. Keir Hardie, (22/5/93). (8) Letter received from J. Wilson (12/6/93). The workmen are employed for 10 hours on the first five days and for seven hours on Saturday. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 371. (9) Letter received from G. W. Macalpine (26/5/93). (10) Letter received from G. Caldwell (13/6/93). (11) Letter received from J. Knight (1/6/93). It was stated therein that about 30 minutes is allowed for meal times. (12) Letter received from Colonel Cochrane (29/5/93). (13) and (14) Letter received from F. C. Corfield (26/5/93). (15) Letters received from L. Ridsdale (25/5/93, 9/6/93). (16) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. The above details refer to "banksmen." These constitute 55 per cent. of the whole number of surfacemen employed. Letter from A. Sopwith (25/5/93). (17) Letter received from W. Evans (23/5/93). (18) Digest, Vol. I., p. 22. Letter received from D. Morgan (23/5/93). (19) Letter received from W. Jenkins (22/5/93). (20) Letter received from I. Evans (23/5/93); Digest, Vol. I., p. 23. (21) Letter received from E. Rees (25/5/93). (22) Letter received from E. Jones (9/6/93).

(b.) Connections between nature of work and length of hours.

(b.) It was stated by a witness from Durham that the difference in the class or nature of the labour accounts for the variation in the number of hours worked. Thus, the "hewers" and "stonemen" in Durham were said to perform the most laborious work in the mines. These men work seven and eight hours per day respectively. The boys who sit on the shafts or limmers have comparatively light work (their hours vary from 10 to 12), and the men who work 12 hours have little to do beyond watching the "fan" and "ventilating engines." (1)

(c.) Local peculiarities.

(c.) It appears from the above tables that the hours at the face and the average number of days worked per week are, generally speaking, less for underground than for surface labour. The hours of hewers from bank to bank are below nine in the chief mining districts in Great Britain, with the exception of South Wales, the Mid and West Lothians, Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, North and West Lancashire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and parts of Staffordshire. Even in these districts the hours are not more than eight at the face, except in Nottinghamshire, Monmouthshire, and the Rhondda Valley. The hewers in every district work 45 or less hours per week. The hours of surface labourers vary from 43¾ to 55¼ hours per week, and from 8½ to 9¾ per day. Generally speaking, there is no variation in the hours worked in summer and winter, either in the case of "underground" or "above-ground" labour. With regard to the allowances for meal times, the amount varies from 20 minutes to an hour and a quarter per day among hewers or coal getters, and from half-hour to an hour and a half among "above-ground" workmen. Hewers and other workers by the piece have frequently no stated allowance for meals, and take them as the circumstances of their work permit. It may be noted that in the greater number of the above

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8.

[§ 19 (c.)] districts miners are not allowed to ascend the pits before the stated time, except in cases of emergency or with special permission. In most collieries in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, on the other hand, the miners are free "in practice" to leave the mines when they choose. In South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, the hewers are free to leave the mine when they have finished their "stint." In some districts the hours of work vary on different days of the week. Thus, in Aberdare and Merthyr, for some years after the passing of the Coal Mines' Regulation Act, nine hours were wound every day. The employers stated that it had been mutually arranged, in order to suit the convenience of the men, that seven hours should be worked on Mondays and Saturdays, and ten on the remaining four days. (1) The representative of the Aberdare and Merthyr Miners' Association stated, however, that the men dislike this uneven distribution of hours on different days of the week. (2) In the Ocean Collieries, South Wales, some pits wind four days of 10 hours and two of 7, others four days of 9, one of 10, and one of 8 hours. (3) *

Hours of Boys.

20. The hours worked by boys below ground vary in the different districts. The hours of boys under 16 years of age are limited by the Coal Mines' Regulation Act to 54 hours per week as a maximum; and, in Northumberland, it was stated that, in many cases, these boys work only 50 hours a-week, or 100 hours a fortnight. (4) The average number of hours worked since 1880 in this district by the boys over 16 is 10½. Some work only 10 hours; but others, who work in connection with endless ropes and chains, are employed for 11 hours. (5) In Durham, since 1890, the average number of hours worked by boys over 16 is 58 per week; *i. e.*, 10 per day for five days and 8 on Saturdays. (6) The average number of hours worked by the boys in South Lancashire and Cheshire was said to be 8¾; and it was stated that very few boys of 12, if any, work as long as 48 hours a-week underground. (7) In the Rhondda Valley and district, boys under 16 are never employed more than 10 hours a day. They are sent down in the last cages in the morning and allowed to come up first in the afternoon. It was stated that boys over 16 in this district never work more than 54 hours in any one week. In those collieries that work two short and four long days, the boys are sometimes 10 hours from the foot of the shaft back to the foot of the shaft. (8) In Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan, the hours of boys were stated to be 8¼ from bank to bank.

(a.) Effect on health of boys.

(*a.*) The witnesses from Durham and Northumberland were of opinion that it would be better for the health of the boys if their hours of labour could be shortened, although it was stated in the latter district that the work is not hard or injurious to their welfare. (1) [§ 20 (a.)]

(b.) Reduction in hours of boys.

(*b.*) Great technical and economic difficulties are stated to exist in connection with any method which has been proposed for limiting their hours. A representative of the coal owners in Northumberland stated that he could see no practical way of reducing the hours of boys, "except at a disadvantage" to all the workers in the mine, and to the "boys themselves, if you take their whole career as workers." Recent efforts, it was stated, had been made through the "Wage Committee" in the district to shorten the hours of boys. These have been, to some extent, successful. The Miners' Union has also from time to time taken steps in this direction. From 1859–71 the boys in the district collieries worked from 12 to 12½ hours a-day. In 1871–72 their hours were reduced to 11, and at the end of 1872 to 10. Ten hours a-day were worked by all boys in the county till the year 1878. "Commencing in the autumn of 1879, bit by bit the boys' hours were lengthened, as the employers lengthened the hours of coal-drawing from 10 to 11." In 1879–81 many boys over 16 were induced by means of increased wages to work 11 hours; but in 1890 the hours of some of the boys were again reduced by half-an-hour to an hour a day. It was stated that the main difficulty involved in any further reduction was the impossibility, even under the present system, of obtaining a sufficient supply of boy labour. It was stated by the employers that, if the hours of boys were reduced at the present time to the extent of two hours for three or five years, after the termination of this period the hours would be increased by 30 minutes to an hour and a half per shift(2).

(a.) Recent reduction in hours of labour.

21. (*a.*) It may be noted that hours of labour in mines have been reduced considerably by voluntary effort in late years. Thus, in Northumberland, between 1850 and 1890, the hours of hewers appear to have been reduced from 66 to 44 hours a week, and the hours of boys from 72 to 66 or 60. The short hours of hewers in this district were said to be dependent on the double shift system, which was brought about by the different method of working the mine. The "wedge" system required two men working together, the "blasting" system requires only one man to be at the coal face at a time (3). The hours of mechanics in Durham have also been reduced in this same period by 13½ hours a week. In Derbyshire, the hours of "miners generally" have been reduced by 14½ hours a week, in the Wigan district by 6 to 12 hours, in Staffordshire (Burslem) by 11 hours, in the Burnley district by 20 hours, and in the Barnsley and Normanton district by 18 hours. A similar reduction has taken place in other districts. It was stated that in Aberdare and Merthyr the Mines' Regulation Act had had the effect of reducing the hours from "something like 60 hours a week to 54," by not allowing boys under 16 to work more than 54 hours a week (4).

* In Northumberland and Durham the hours worked are shorter on "Baff" Saturdays. On "Pay" Saturdays, most of the collieries do not work, and the others work short time.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 17. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 22. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. (4) J. G. Weeks, 2987–8. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8; J. Toyn, 115–6. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 16.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 16, 19–20. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 22.

STATEMENT showing the Hours of Work per Week in Coal Mines 1850—1890, and the Reduction of Hours in 1890 on 1850. *

DISTRICTS.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.	Decrease in 1890 on 1850.
Northumberland, Newcastle:						
Hewers †	60	54	35½	35½	38	22
Shifters †	48	48	47	47	47	1
Boys † §	72	72	60 and 66	60 and 66	60 and 66	6 to 12
Durham County: ‖						
Deputy overmen ‡	48	48	48	48	48	—
Mechanics ‡	66½	66½	66½	54	53	13½
Counties of Durham and Northumberland:						
Labourers ‡	54	54	54	54	54	—
Lancashire:						
Miners generally † (Wigan)	72	72	60½	60½	57½	14½
Underground men † (Bolton)	54	54	54	50	50	4
Colliers † (Burnley)	56	56	50	45	36	20
Other workmen † (Burnley)	64	64	60	58	56	8
Hewers † (Clifton)	50	48	46	45	44	6
Surface men † (Clifton)	61	60	57	55	55	6
Miners generally † (Wigan)	60 to 66	60 to 66	60 to 66	54	54	6 to 12

* Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890). † Employers' return. ‡ Trade Union return.

§ Boys' hours in 1890 are not as much as 66 or 60, because "Baff Saturday" is a short day, and "Pay Saturday" an idle day. The over age boys (*i.e.*, over 16) at 11 hour pits, if the colliery works full time, work 65 hours one week and 55 the next, or 60 per week on the average. Boys under 16 do not work more than 54 hours per week, and in the pay week they only work 50 hours.

‖ Deputy overmen now work 45 per week. Mechanics used to work 70 hours, including meal times, and now work 61. The hours of the former have thus decreased by 3, and the latter by 9, per week. The reduction in the hours of labourers is also about 9 per week.

Statement showing the Hours of Work per Week in Coal Mines 1850—1890, and the Reduction of Hours in 1890 on 1850.*—*continued.*

DISTRICTS.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.	Decrease in 1890 on 1850.
Derbyshire: †						
Miners generally	66	66	64	51½	51½	14½
Staffordshire: †						
Miners generally (Burslem)	59	54	54	48	48	11
Yorkshire: †						
Miners generally (Barnsley)	60 †	60	54	48	42	18
" " (Normanton)	60 to 66†	60	50 to 54	48	42 to 48	18
South Wales: †						
Miners generally (Aberdare)	58 to 72	58 to 72	58 to 72	58 to 54	54	4 to 18
Scotland: ‡						
Miners generally (Fife and Kinross)	60	60	44	44	44	16

* Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890). † Employers' Return. ‡ Trade Union Return.

(*b.*) It was pointed out in the "Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries" in connection with the above table, that the difficulties experienced in obtaining reliable information with regard to the hours of labour are increased "where any attempt is made to compare the hours worked at one period with the hours worked at another." The precise application of the term "colliers" is not clear. When the hours in any district are given for "miners generally," it is impossible to say "whether the hours of hewers, labourers, and other employés are averaged, or whether it is meant to convey the idea that all employés alike work the same number of hours." The term may include all underground labour, and the hours of hewers may be taken at the face or from bank to bank. Further, "if these qualifying conditions were uniform and understood as for one period, it is not always possible to say if the same conditions are taken for another." Finally, it is not always clear whether meal times have been taken into account in the returns given.

22. Oral and written evidence has been received both from employers and employed in connection with the hours of labour in the quarries in North Wales. Evidence concerning the hours of labour in the Leicestershire quarries and the district of Rossendale, on the one hand, and Gloucestershire on the other, has been obtained from the quarrymen's unions, and the associated employers respectively (1). The evidence received from these sources has been tabulated as follows.

HOURS from Bank to Bank.

QUARRIES.

District.	Number of Hours Worked on an average from Bank to Bank. (1) Summer.	(2) Winter.	Average Number of Hours Worked per Week.
North Wales (1)	8½ to 10	7	—†
Rossendale District (1)			50½
Leicestershire (1)	10†	8†	—
Different Districts in North Wales:			
Carnarvon (2)	8½ to 9†	7†	—
Merioneth (2)	10†	7†	—
Nantlle Valley (Pen yr Orsedd Slate Company).	10*		(1) Summer 55½* (2) Winter 45.
New Welsh Slate Company (Merioneth) (3).	March to middle of October, 9½*	Feb. to March, 10; Dec. to Feb., 8½*.	—
Penrhyn Quarries, Bangor (4).	9½*	7*	—

* Evidence from Employers, Digest, Vol. II., p. 10.
† Evidence from Quarrymen's Unions.
(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 42, Digest, Vol. II., p. 11.
(2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 11. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 15.

In order to include the various statements of the hours of labour in the different districts in North Wales, in the above table they have been said to vary during the summer months from 8½ to 10. The representatives of the employed in North Wales stated, however, that the hours 8½ to 9 excluded the time allowed for meals (2). The number of hours worked from bank to bank would therefore range from 9 to 10. No other reference was made to the question of meal times in the evidence. It may be noted that all the men directly employed on the rock in the Penrhyn quarries have a rest of five minutes in every hour during blasting (1). The hours in the Gloucestershire quarries were stated to be 10 in the Forest of Dean (including one and a half hours for meals) and 7½ to 8 hours in Coleford. It is not stated whether this is the average for the whole year, nor, in Coleford, whether the time allowed for meals has been deducted. (2)

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 42, 210. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 10, 11, 15. (2) Question 6902. Digest, Vol. I., p. 29.

(ii.) LIMITATION OF HOURS BY LAW.

"The Eight Hours' Day."

Arguments for an Eight Hours' Day.

23. Both employers and employed agree that an eight hours' day would be desirable for the physical welfare of all workers in and about mines. They differ, however, as to the advisability of legal interference and the difficulties likely to arise therefrom. The Miners' Federation of Great Britain* and the Miners' Association in Derbyshire, Cleveland,† Aberdare, and Merthyr, South Wales and Monmouthshire, Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly, the Rhondda Valley, the Anthracite Collieries, Fife and Kinross, the Cannock Chase and other districts advocate a uniform eight hours' day for all workers in and about mines.

Non-economic.

(i.) Physical moral, and social gain to the workers.

24. In the first place, they state that the hours of labour in the mining industry are longer and that the work is of a more laborious and unhealthy nature than in the other staple industries of this country. They claim that the proposed limitation in the number of hours worked would conduce to the moral and physical welfare of the miners (3), and that they would have more leisure for "recreation and self-improvement," in order "to be better able to perform their duties as citizens generally" (4). In the second place, the supporters of an eight hours' day urge that it would cause a decrease in the number of accidents. They assert that "a great portion of the accidents resulting in persons killed or injured occurs during the later hours of the shift," and that this is partly due to the mental and physical exhaustion from which the men suffer (5).

(ii.) Diminution in the number of accidents.

Economic.

(a.) Diminution in the output would be compensated for by greater efficiency and regularity on the part of the men, and by improved machinery.

25. (*a.*) Dealing with the question from an economic standpoint, in the majority of districts from which evidence has been obtained in this connection, the miners state that any diminution in the output caused by the limitation of hours would be only temporary. In time, the change would be more than compensated for by the invention of improved machinery and by the greater efficiency and regularity shown by the employed (6). It was stated that by this means the output in Fife and Clackmannan was only temporarily reduced when the hours were shortened from ten to eight. "Engine haulage" was adopted, "boring machines" were introduced by the miners, and use was made of "extra blasting by gunpowder" (7). In this connection it may be convenient to compare the effect of past reductions in the hours of work on the productiveness of labour in mines in different districts. The following table has been drawn up from the "Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries," to which reference has already been made.

* It may be noted that Mr. Woods in a letter dated 29th April 1891 offered to give evidence before the Commission on behalf of the Lancashire miners. Subsequently, however, Mr. Woods, Mr. Pickard, and Mr. Ashton refused to appear, in accordance with a resolution of the Miners' Federation, (*See* also *infra* footnote to page 79). For statement of views of Miners' Federation on the subject of an eight hours' day, *see* Appendix.
† For recent change of attitude in Cleveland, *see* page 56.
(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 15. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 210. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 51–2,57. Digest, Vol. II., p. 84. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix XVI., p. 485. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix VI., p. 485. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix XVI, 485. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix, XVI., p. 485. (7) Council, 3747.

[§ 25 (a.)] STATEMENT showing the Quantities of Coal produced per Male Employé, for each of the the Years 1861, 1871, 1881 and 1890, compiled from the Reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Mines, except where otherwise stated.*

District.	1861. † Tons raised per Employé.	1871. Tons raised per Employé.	1881. ‡ Tons raised per Employé.	1890. Tons raised per Employé.
1. Northumberland, North Durham, and Cumberland	381	348	336	314
2. South Durham		417	342	354
3. North and East Lancashire	294	290	290	296
4. West Lancashire and North Wales		272	309	295
5. Yorkshire	293	331	301	290
6. Derby, Notts, Leicester, and Warwick.	277	298	310	308
7. North Staffordshire, Cheshire, and Shropshire	213	306	270	261
8. South Stafford and Worcestershire		338	430	391
9. Monmouth, Somerset, &c.	297	260	201	248
10. South Wales	254	240	317	266
11. East Scotland	308	325	336	307
12. West Scotland		335	251	305
Average	305	316	314	299

* Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries, p. 444.
† The figures showing the coal raised in 1861 are abstracted from the "Mineral Statistics" for that year.
‡ These years include a limited number of shale and iron ore miners under the Coal Mines Act. It was stated that this would not materially affect the averages.

[§ 25 (a.)] It is pointed out in the Memorandum in connection with the above table that the returns of the number of hands employed, &c., was not made compulsory until the year 1872, and that the voluntary returns made previous to that date are not "entirely reliable." Further, the output from the mines in any particular year is affected by temporary cessations of work in consequence of labour disputes and other causes. It is stated, therefore, that it is safer to select, for the purposes of comparison, longer periods "over which these disturbing influences, are likely to find an equilibrium as between one period and another" (1). The following table shows the average number of tons raised per male worker per annum in the chief mining districts in Great Britain during the periods 1861–69, 1870–79, 1880–90. It was stated in the "Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries" from which the figures showing the average output have been obtained, that the five districts named represent about 70 per cent. of the total output of the country in 1890, and may therefore be regarded as "fairly typical" of the country generally (2). The figures showing the reduction in hours in the periods under consideration have been obtained from the Parliamentary Return ordered by the House of Commons on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890).

(1) Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries, pp. 436–7. (2) Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries, pp. 436.

TABLE showing Average Number of Tons raised per Male Worker per Annum, and corresponding Number of Hours Worked.

DISTRICT.	Average Tons. Period 1861–9 (1).	Reduction in Hours per Week in corresponding Period (1860-70) (2).	Average Tons. Period 1870–9 (1).	Reduction in Hours per Week in corresponding Period (1870–80) (2).	Average Tons. Period 1880–90(1).	Reduction in Hours per Week in corresponding Period (1880–90) (2).
1. Northumberland and Durham.	403	(Newcastle.)—Hewers, 18½ hours; shifters, 1 hour; boys, 6 to 12 hours. (Northumberland County.)—Boys, 3 to 6 hours. (Durham County.)—Mechanics, no change. Miners generally.	312	(Newcastle.) — No further reduction. (Northumberland County.)—Hewers, 1 hour; boys, 12 hours. (Durham County.) — Mechanics, 12½ hours. Miners generally.	332	(Newcastle,) — Hewers, increased by 2½ hours. (Northumberland County.)—No change. (Durham County.) — Mechanics, 1 hour. Miners generally.
2. South Wales	367	Aberdare.—No reduction. Rhondda Valley.—6 hours.	277	Aberdare.—No reduction in one mine, 18 hours in another. Rhondda Valley.—18 hours in one mine, and less in others.	290	Aberdare.—No change in two mines, 4 hours in two others. Rhondda Valley.—12 hours in one, no change in others.
3. Yorkshire	274	(Barnsley.)—Miners generally, 3 hours. (Normanton.)—Underground men, 3 hours.	266	(Barnsley.)—Miners generally, 3 hours. (Normanton.)—Underground men, 12 hours.	300	(Barnsley.)—Miners generally, no reduction. (Normanton.)—Underground men, no reduction.
4. Scotland	299	Fife and Kinross.—Miners generally, 12 hours. Ayrshire. — No change for hewers and boys.	276	East Scotland.—No change. Ayrshire. { Hewers, no change. Boys, „	307	Fife and Kinross.—No change Ayrshire. { Hewers, no change. Boys, „
5. North and East Lancashire.	262	Manchester.—Miners generally, 5 hours. Clifton, Manchester.—Hewers, 2 hours.	274	Manchester.—Miners generally, 5 hours. Clifton, Manchester.—Hewers, 1 hour.	318	Manchester.—Miners generally, 5 hours. Clifton, Manchester.—Hewers, 1 hour.

(1) Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries, p. 436. Information on this point is not given in the Reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Mines for the years 1862–63. They have, therefore, been omitted in the calculation of the above average. (2) Parliamentary Return ordered by the House of Commons on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890).

It was pointed out in the Memorandum in connection with these figures, that the suspensions of labour in recent years due to trade disputes and other causes, may have had more effect upon the resultant output than the number of hours worked, or "the character of the mechanical conditions under which the men are employed" (1). Apart, however, from this consideration, it appears from the above table that there has been an increased average output for all districts in the period, 1880–90, compared with the previous period, 1870–9. In North and East Lancashire alone, the output in 1870–9 was greater than in the first period. A considerable reduction in hours took place during the period 1860–80, and the hours were still further reduced during the later period, 1870–90. Corresponding to the reduction in the former period, there has been in every case, with the exception of North and East Lancashire, a diminution in the output per employé. Corresponding to the further reduction in hours in the later period, there has been, in every case, an increase in the output per employé. It may also be noted, that in spite of the reduction in hours between 1860 and 1890, in Yorkshire, Scotland, and North and East Lancashire, the output in the period 1880–90, was greater than in the period 1861–9. This table may, therefore, perhaps serve to support the statement that "any diminution in the output caused by the limitation of hours would be only temporary." (See *supra*, page 51.)

(1) Memorandum as to Mining and Iron Industries, p. 437.

(*b.*) On the other hand, it must be noted that, in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, the miners advocate the introduction of an eight hours' day as a means of restricting the output of coal, and thus maintaining wages in some districts and finding work for the unemployed in others. The witnesses complained of the "want of knowledge and enlightenment," shown by the employers in objecting to any change which would involve restriction of output. They allege that a restricted output gives "better wages, a better price, and bigger profits," increases the cost of production in all trades and raises prices. "Under a natural condition of things this would be both immoral and illegal; but under the artificial condition in which we are living, it is requisite to regulate trade as far as possible in the interest of the workmen in all industries." (1) The secretary of the Ayrshire Miners' Union was prepared to advocate a further restriction of the hours, if the population increased so fast that there were more men seeking work than could obtain it for eight

(b.) A diminished output would now cause wages to be maintained in some districts, and work to be found for ployed in others.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 87–8.

hours a day. (1) These views, however, do not appear to be held by the miners in other districts.

26. The chief argument for an eight hours' day is that it would result, firstly, in a physical, moral, and intellectual gain to the working men themselves, and secondly, in an economic gain to the community at large, owing to the increased efficiency of the work and the impetus given to invention.

27. The employers in most districts, the unionists employed in and about the mines in Northumberland and Durham, and certain non-unionist miners in the Midlands are opposed to any Legislative interference with the hours of labour.

(*a.*) With regard to the alleged unhealthy nature of the miners' occupation, Dr. Ogle stated in his evidence given before the Commission as a Whole, that coal miners were "one of the healthiest set of men in all the trades that (he had) examined. The death rate of coal miners in every country in which (he had) examined, was lower than the death rates of males of corresponding ages in the rest of the county or of the whole county including them." (2) He also stated that "the death rates of coal miners are surprisingly low. In spite of their terrible liability to accident, and their constant exposure to an atmosphere vitiated by coal dust, by foul air, and by an excessively high temperature, the comparative mortality of these labourers is considerably below that of all males; nor is this only true of coal miners in the aggregate, but it is true, with one single exception, for the miners in each great coal area taken separately." (3) The following table shows the mortality of coal miners in the different districts from all causes, compared with that of all males.

TABLE showing the comparative mortality in Coal Mines,* 1880–1–2 (4).†

Coal Mining District.	Comparative Mortality of Miners from all Causes.	Comparative Mortality of all Males from all Causes.
Durham and Northumberland	1,570	1,723
Lancashire	1,671	2,246
West Riding	1,388	1,854
Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire	1,320	1,522
Staffordshire	1,671	1,811
South Wales and Monmouthshire	1,944	1,809
England and Wales (mean)	1,603†	1,799

* The standard of clergymen, the lowest mortality of all, is taken as 1,000. Dr. Ogle, 1674.
† Mean for coal miners only.

It appears from the above table that "the one exception to this rule is furnished by South Wales and Monmouthshire, ... but, even here, if deaths from accidents be left out of account, the rule holds good; the mortality of miners from all other causes together is below that of the general male population" (5). It was stated by the vice president of the National Association of Colliery Managers that when the Ancient Order of Foresters proposed an increase in the contributions of miners, on the score of the unhealthy nature of their occupation, the miners themselves produced figures to prove that this was not justifiable (1). In the joint conferences held between representative coal owners and the Miners' Federation on the eight hours' question in 1891, the coal owners stated that, as far as they had ascertained, only one life assurance company (*i.e.*, the Scottish Temperance Insurance Company) makes an extra charge in the case of miners and railway servants, and that of one per cent. (2). [§ 27 (*a*)]

(*b.*) It was further asserted that "a great portion of the accidents resulting in persons killed or injured occur during the later hours of the shift, and that this is partly due to the mental and physical exhaustion from which the men suffer." (See *supra*, page 51). Statistics were produced showing the number of fatal explosions notified to inspectors of mines in the last 10 years, the number of lives lost, and the approximate hour of the shift at which the explosion occurred. These figures show the following results:— *(b.) Length of hours not causally connected with number of accidents.*

COAL Mines, fatal explosions during last 10 years, showing the hour of shift during which they have occurred.

1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	5th.	6th.	7th.	8th.	9th.	10th.	15th.
48	22	29	26	24	17	11	16	10	1	1

Total in first four hours - - - - 125.
Total after fourth hour - - - - 80.

COAL Mines explosions (fatal) during 10 years. Number of deaths in each hour of employment.

1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	5th.	6th.	7th.	8th.	9th.	10th.	11th.	15th.
136	317	278	481	333	69	182	60	95	2	-	3

Total in first four hours - - - - 1,202.
Total after fourth hour - - - - 744.

It appears from the above tables, that, during the first four hours, 125 fatal explosions have taken place and 80 after the fourth hour. The total number of deaths caused in the first period of the shift was 1,202 and in the later period, 744. With regard to accidents from falls of roof and sides, it was stated that "the general experience of mining engineers is, and the contention of the men themselves, when the last Mines' Act was passed, was, that a larger proportion occurs during the first two or three hours of the shift." During the time in which the working places are not occupied, the gradual weight, which is always at work, has loosened both roof and sides, and thus the working place is rendered more liable to accident in the first hours of the shift. No statistics could be obtained by the coal owners (3) in proof of this assertion, but the following tables obtained from the Reports of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Mines for the years 1890, 1891, 1892, serve to show the proportion of fatal accidents from all causes which occur in the earlier and later hours of the shift.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 88. (2) Minutes of Evidence taken before Royal Commission on Labour (Sitting as a Whole); Dr. Ogle, 1683. (3) Dr. Ogle, 1683. (4) Table D., handed in by Dr. Ogle. (5) Dr. Ogle, 1683.

(1) Brain, 6645–7, 6675–6, 6677–82; Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix XVI., p. 490. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Appendix XVI., p. 490.

HOURS of the Shift, that is during what Hours after the commencement of their shifts, the fatal accidents happened to Persons employed in and about the Mines (Schedule A. and B.), but excluding those on branch lines, &c. (Schedule C).

A.—UNDERGROUND.

Name of District.	1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	5th.	6th.	7th.	8th.	9th.	10th.	More than 10 Hours.
England, Wales and Scotland:—											
1890	74	83	92	89	89	83	82	79	48	22	19
1891	94	103	89	101	90	101	67	83	43	29	15
1892	68	73	4	90	92	91	75	66	56	25	9
South Wales:—											
1890	13	18	10	12	15	12	16	10	12	9	6
1891	23	18	11	11	29	13	9	23	11	6	5
1892	18	13	19	16	15	13	13	18	16	11	3

Total in England, Wales and Scotland in first four hours of shift:—
1890 - - - - - - - - - 338
1891 - - - - - - - - - 387
1892 - - - - - - - - - 325

Total in England, Wales and Scotland after fourth hour of shift:—
1890 - - - - - - - - - 422
1891 - - - - - - - - - 428
1892 - - - - - - - - - 414

Total in South Wales in first four hours of shift:—
1890 - - - - - - - - - 53
1891 - - - - - - - - - 63
1892 - - - - - - - - - 66

Total in South Wales after fourth hour of shift:—
1890 - - - - - - - - - 80
1891 - - - - - - - - - 96
1892 - - - - - - - - - 89

[§ 27 (b.)] It appears from the above table that, taking the coal mining districts in England, Wales, and Scotland together, the number of accidents from all causes which occurred during the first four hours of the shift in 1890, 1891 and 1892, constituted rather less than half the total number of accidents. In South Wales, where the largest number of accidents occur from falls of roof and sides, the proportion is somewhat lower. The figures, however, do not show any apparent increase in the number of accidents, as the men become "physically and mentally exhausted." Statistics of accidents had also been prepared by a member of the Monmouthshire and South Wales Colliery Owners' Association. From these it appeared that the majority of accidents take place about mid-day in the dinner hour. The figures for the eighth, ninth, and tenth hours were stated to be almost identical. But the majority of miners are in the habit of leaving off work at the end of eight hours. The number of accidents during the ninth and tenth hours is, therefore, greater in proportion to the number of workmen employed than the number during the eighth hour. (1) In Lancashire and Ireland it was stated that the greatest number of accidents underground occur during the third hour. In other districts no particular hour can be assigned. (2).

(c.) Shorter hours would lead to increase in number of accidents.

(c.) Apart, however, from the statement that the number of accidents in mines is not causally connected with the present length of hours, it was stated that, under a legal eight hours' day, the safety of the mine would be endangered by the attempt to obtain the same output in the shorter time, because the men would be tempted to hurry over their work and neglect to examine their working places carefully. (3) Moreover, unless the double-shift system were adopted, the faces would travel more slowly, in consequence of the loss of working power in the pit, and would, therefore, be more liable to be broken and crushed. (4) Finally, the reduction in hours, it was stated, might also lead to winding the men out of the mine at greater speed, which would increase the danger of the operation. (5)

Economic.

28. Economically, the statements made by the opponents of an eight hours' day are again directly opposed to those made by its supporters.

(a.) An eight hours' day would result in diminution of output, and increased cost of production.

(a.) The miners alleged that the invention of improved machinery, and greater efficiency and regularity on the part of the workmen, would maintain the output at its present level. On the other hand, the owners stated that the machinery in most collieries is already run to its full capacity (6); that hewers (who already work by the piece) cannot work harder without exhausting their strength prematurely (7); and that the miner "likes a day or two's holiday in the week under any circumstances." (8) With regard to the maintenance of the output in Fife and Clackmannan, in spite of the shorter hours, the owners' representative added that the cost of working the mines had "very much increased," and that "from the use of the machines and the use of gunpowder," the quality of the coal had "deteriorated." (9) The owners, therefore, claim that under a legal eight hours' day the output of coal would necessarily be diminished, and its cost of production increased.

(b.) Reduction in hours would involve a corresponding reduction in wages.

(b.) They also state that, in order to get the work done, the repairing staff in the mine would have to be increased in a ratio corresponding with the reduction in hours. The permanent charges would be thus increased to the extent of the wages paid to the additional staff. The output from the mines has, however, to pay not only for the hewers' labour but also for that of the other workmen. The reduction, it was stated, must, therefore, result in a corresponding reduction in the wage fund of all persons employed about the mines. (10) The employers in Staffordshire stated that if a reduction in hours involved a corresponding reduction in wages, it would cause extreme dissatisfaction. (11)

(c.) Increased cost of production would lead to increased price. Undesirable in view of foreign competition.

(c.) Further, it was stated that the increased cost of production would result in an increase in the price of fuel; and this, in view of foreign competition, it would be impossible for the industry to support. (12) It was asserted that so long as, by the operation of natural laws, prices rise in this country from causes which are also affecting other countries, the rise in price does not very much influence the course of trade. An artificial rise, on the other hand, limited in its effect to one country alone, must of necessity handicap the country which is restricted. (13) It was alleged that, although "the maintenance of our supremacy in foreign markets is essential for our existence," foreign competition is becoming more severe each year. (1) For many years the rate of supply from French and German collieries has been increasing more rapidly than the rate of supply from England in those markets in which we compete. Thus the amount of coal imported to Hamburg from Westphalia in 1879 was about 310,000 tons. In 1888 it had increased to 627,000 tons. In the same period, the imports from England increased from 936,000 tons in 1879 to 1,500,000 tons in 1888. The Westphalian coalfield had thus augmented its supply at the rate of 100 per cent.; the English imports at the rate of 50 per cent. (2). The following tables (3) obtained from the "Memorandum as to the Mining and Iron Industries" to which previous reference has been made, may be inserted in this connection. They show the average production of coal per employé in the principal coal mining countries in the years 1882 and 1889.

[§ 28 (c.)]

I.—PRODUCTION of coal per workman (underground and surface labour).

Country.	1882.	1889.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Great Britain	345	317	—	28*
United States†	370	435	65	—
Germany	274	317	43	—
France	190	215	25	—
Belgium	167	184	17	—

*It has been shown previously that, taking one period with another, the individual output in Great Britain has not diminished, although there is a reduction as between these two years, which are only given in order to obtain uniformity of dates.

† Bituminous coal only; census years 1880 and 1889.

II.—PRODUCTION of coal per miner (underground).

Country.	1882.	1889.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Great Britain	428	387	—	41
United States*	—	823	—	—
Germany	346	425	79	—
France	265	305	40	—
Belgium	221	246	25	—

* Bituminous coal only; census years 1880 and 1889.

From the above tables it appears that in recent years "in foreign countries, and notably in the United States and Germany, the efficiency of labour has improved greatly, (and) that the number of tons produced per man per annum has increased." The average hours in this country are about 9 from bank to bank, in the United States they vary from 9½ to 10 hours per day, and in France, Germany, and Belgium from 9½ to 11 hours, "except in Dortmund and Saarbruck, where the average is shorter." In fact, it was stated that, "England is not in the same relative position that she formerly occupied" (4). Moreover, the fact that the hours are already less in this country than abroad was regarded by the coal owners as a strong reason against our taking the lead in adopting an eight hours' day.

(d.) Even if international, it might damage our foreign trade.

(d.) They also stated that it is quite possible that even if the adoption of an eight hours' day were international, it would affect this country more prejudicially than the continent, because the cost of bringing coal to bank is less on the continent than in England (5).

(e.) Influence on home competition would lead to further legislation.

(e.) Another objection was urged to the adoption of a legal eight hours' day in connection with its effect on home competition. It was stated that a legal eight hours' day would have a different effect in the different districts, and even in different pits in the same district (6). Any rigid limitation of the hours from bank to bank would seriously handicap collieries whose workings are far from the pit, and many would necessarily be closed (7). Moreover, it was stated that throughout the country, the hours of labour have adjusted themselves to meet the conditions of the different districts. If, therefore, an eight hours' day became law, "it is not at all improbable that certain districts would wish to revert to longer hours, and then special legislation would be necessary, so that Government would really have to interfere with all questions in the future arising with respect to trade." Government, it was stated, "might (then) legislate for a rate of wages to adjust itself to the various ways in which the different districts have been prejudiced by the eight hours' day" (8).

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 86. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 85. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 54, 57. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 85–6. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 86. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix XVI., p. 491. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 53. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 89; Connel, 13747, 13801–2, 13806. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 86. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 84. (12) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix XVI., p. 491. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix XVI., p. 490. (2) Digest, Vol. I, p. 57. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 437. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 436–7. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. (6) Digest, Vol. I. p. 56. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 85. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56.

[§ 29 (a.)]

Minor points:—

(a.) Difficulty in application to individual miners and to bodies of miners.

29. (*a.*) Besides the foregoing difficulties, it is further stated that the miners' work is of such a nature, that he cannot leave it at a given moment, and that any legal restriction of hours would be to the disadvantage of the individual miner, who would have no latitude allowed him in his working arrangements (1). Thus, according to the witnesses from Derbyshire, the miners in that district, if they realised what was meant by a "legal" eight hours' day, could no longer be in favour of the scheme. These witnesses stated that the men, when called upon to vote, were not clear as to the difference between a "legal" day and a day "by arrangement". They thought it would restrict the period of coal-drawing, but did not realise that they would also be restricted by a hard and fast rule to "give over" work at a certain time (2). Similar difficulties would be felt by bodies of miners. Thus, it was stated in the written evidence received from the West Yorkshire Coalowners' Association, that, "a forced restriction of hours would be especially impracticable in the case of day workmen and boys, who, from the nature of their employment, must be at their work some time before and after the hewers of coal" (3).

(b.) Eight hours' day ignores the difference in strain of various kinds of work, and the varying capacity of individual miners for work.

(*b.*) Finally, it was stated that a legal eight hours' day ignores the different amounts of strain involved in different occupations, and prevents the men from making up for shorter hours in slack times, by longer hours in good times. It would be unjust to the slow workers, because it would throw out of employment the men with the least advantages of strength and skill (4).

Summary of arguments against an eight hours' day.

30. The opponents of an eight hours' day claim therefore, in direct opposition to its supporters, firstly, that it would not necessarily result in a physical gain to the workers themselves, and, secondly, that it would result in an economic loss to the community.

Attitude of unionists in Northumberland and Durham.

31. The miners in Northumberland and Durham, districts in which the hewers at the present time work for less than eight hours a day, and other classes of workers for more, regard a uniform eight hours' day as impracticable (5).

(a.) Cokemen oppose eight hours' day on technical grounds.

(*a.*) The cokemen state that it would be impossible in their trade to fix a normal working day of any number of hours. "The task has to be completed whatever it may be, and you cannot say definitely how long the task will take." If an eight hours' day were fixed by Act of Parliament, and a man, when he has done his eight hours, were to leave the oven in such a state that the charge would be spoilt, it would mean a serious loss to the owner, and the man himself when he goes to that oven again at the proper time the next day, would not have any work to do" (6).

(b.) Technical and economic difficulties involved in.

(*b.*) Great technical and economic difficulties are involved in any method which has been proposed in connection with the shortening of the hours of boys under a legal eight hours' day. Three methods have been suggested: One uniform eight hour shift for all workers, including boys; a double shift of eight hours for men and boys; three shifts of hewers and two of boys.

(i.) One uniform eight hours' shift for all workers.

(*i.*) Only one lodge out of 56 belonging to the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association voted for the first of these methods. It would involve a reduction of about 30 per cent. in the number of hewers, and an increase of an hour and a-half in their day's work. The period of coal drawing would be limited to six and a-half hours. The expenses of the colliers would be increased so much that they could not compete with other districts (7).

(ii.) A double shift of eight hours for all workers.

(*ii.*) The second method, a double shift of eight hours, would involve a double output. This difficulty could be removed in certain districts, by the restriction of the area worked. The safety of the mine would, however, be endangered, under this system. In the first place, the repairing work done in the period intervening between the two shifts would not give the mine time to cool, and the increased production of gas would be dangerous, especially in South Wales. In the second place it was complained that "workmen will not leave the stall or heading to one anothers' advantage." On the other hand, a witness from the Ocean Collieries, though not strongly in favour of a double shift for its own sake, thought that it would tend to reduce accidents by concentrating the work on a smaller area and enabling the faces to travel faster. It would also diminish the area which required ventilation and both the roof and the coal would be improved (1).

[§ 31 (b.)(ii.)]

(iii.) Three shifts of hewers and two of boys.

(*iii.*) The third method, three shifts of hewers with two shifts of boys, was stated to be a more possible solution of the peculiar difficulties in connection with the adoption of an eight hours' day in mines (2). No lodge, however, belonging to the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association voted in favour of this suggestion (3). It would involve a great deal of night work, and the workmen would probably raise serious objections to any extension of this system. Difficulty would be found in obtaining the requisite number of boys. The output of coal would be largely increased, and the time for examining the mine as to safety and allowing it to cool would be too short. The "stonemen" could not do the work in time. The hewers in working forward in the coal face, would get in front of the "stone-canches," and "their work would be rendered enormously more difficult." It was further stated that the danger of accidents in the mines would be increased if the "stonemen" fired shots while the hewers and other regular day-workmen were in the pit. A considerable amount of time would be lost in the changing of the various shifts of men and boys, and there would be greater liability to accidents in consequence of "the increased travelling on the engine planes." Finally, a large increase of surface labour and two sets of horses and ponies would be necessary, without proportionate increase of the work to be performed. Even if these fundamental difficulties were overcome, the owners' and miners' associations in Durham and Northumberland still consider that legislative limitation of the hours of under ground labour would injure the coal trade. It was stated that "some time since, a committee of the Miners' Association (in Northumberland) was appointed to consider the advisability of adopting" this scheme. "After very careful consideration," this committee "came to the unanimous conclusion that it was quite impracticable." A certain number of collieries in Durham at the present time are, however, worked according to this system. "These are nearly all deep mines, where the workings are carried on to a considerable distance from the shafts owing to their great depth. The extremely heavy cost of working these mines" made it necessary to "secure the greatest extension of time for coal drawing." The system of three shifts of hewers and two of boys was, therefore, adopted. An eight hours' day from bank to bank for all underground labour would reduce the actual average working time at the face for coal hewers in these mines from five hours 20 minutes to four hours. This would involve a "serious loss of output and enormously increase the cost of working." It is stated that it would "not be practicable to work this system (in these mines) with less than the existing hours of work" (4).

(iv.) Scheme proposed by Mr. Jaques, alleged to overcome the above difficulties.

(*iv.*) A witness from Northumberland, representing the Eight Hours' League, advocated "a simple and workable plan by which all who work over eight hours a day could be limited to eight hours, while at the same time all who now work less than eight hours a day would still do so." This plan was to the following effect:—The boys, onsetters, banksmen, screeners, &c., would work in two eight-hour shifts, from 3 a.m. to 7 p.m. The hewers would work in three shifts of six hours, from 2 a.m. to 8 p.m. The off-hand shift, the stonemen, shifters, and tub-loaders, would go in at 8 p.m. and come out at 2 a.m. the following morning. "At 7 a.m. and 1 p.m. there would be a uniform stand of all machinery, horses, men and boys, for rest and bait." The hours of coal drawing would be 13 hours a day, less by the time required for getting to the face. All the necessary blasting could be done between 8 p.m. and 2 a.m. All shifts, hewers included, would change weekly or fortnightly. The witness believed that this would remove any objection to night work on the part of the men. He also stated that the scarcity of boy labour was exaggerated. The witness had had no experience of the largest collieries (5).

Method of adopting an eight hours' day:—

(a.) Legislation. Districts in favour of.

32. (*a.*) With regard to the general method of enforcing the eight hours' day, the employés in Fife and Kinross, North and South Wales, the Pelsall District, Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, and Cleveland, are in favour of legislation. In the first place, they allege that an eight hours' day secured by organisation in good times would be lost in a period of depression. In the second place, it was stated that the miners in Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly had failed to reduce their hours by organised effort, and that, in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, the miners' organisation is too weak to obtain any reduction by this means. Legis-

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 55. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 54–5. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 428. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 54, 56. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 85–6. (5) Digest, Vol. I. pp. 47–8. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 47. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 47–50.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 51–2. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 48. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 48, 50. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 447–9. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 49–50; Jaques, 3346–7.

[§ 32 (a.)] lation, moreover, was stated to be preferable to the "miscry and loss" of a strike (1). It may be noted that when the Cleveland miners gave evidence before the Commission, they stated that they regarded legislation on this matter as "unnecessary" and "objectionable" (2). "Owing to the action of some of the mine managers and a portion of the workmen," they have, however, now "come to the conclusion that if the eight hours' principle is to be real, it will be required to be made so by Act of Parliament." It was stated in a letter from the President of the North Yorkshire and Cleveland Miners' Association that this change "has been brought about by the fact that a portion of the machine miners work 10 to 12 hours per day, three and four days per week." "The men were apprehensive of a system of extended hours creeping in" (3). The owners believed, however, that the men had attached an "exaggerated importance" to "trifling incidents" (4).

(b.) Trade and district option.

(*b.*) It may be noted that the miners' representative from Ayrshire, though personally of opinion, "that it would be expedient and desirable in the interests of the community that there should be a rigid limitation to eight hours in all industries" was willing to consent to some form of option. This, however, he stated, was only "in deference to the apprehensions of weaker brethren, and in order to secure the passing of such a measure." "The eight hours' day, in the first instance," according to this witness, "would apply to all trades and all workers, save where a majority of the organised workers" . . . "declared that the operation of the Act would injure them and their trade." In this case, an option should be given "to trades to seek a dispensing power from the Secretary of State." The latter should have power to declare that "it would not be necessary that the coal trade of the United Kingdom as a whole should be united in seeking such a dispensation, but that he would be willing that the coal trade in a particular district should seek such a dispensation" (5). On the other hand, the miners' representative from Fife and Kinross, though in favour of trade option, was opposed to district option, "because, take it, as between district and district, it might have a very serious effect on some districts as against others." "The coal trade of the United Kingdom (only) would . . . be justified in declaring whether the Act was to become operative in respect of that trade" (6).

3. INSPECTION AND REGULATION OF MINES AND QUARRIES, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

MINES:—Condition of mines in different districts.

33. In the majority of districts no complaint was made with regard to the conditions, sanitary and other, of the mines. It was stated in Durham that the condition of the mines is good, and the work fairly safe, although many places underground are very badly ventilated and very hot (7). The pits in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire were stated to be healthy and well ventilated, and plenty of timber is provided (8). It was also stated that the diminution in the number of accidents, and the general improvement in the conditions of mining, is to be very largely attributed to the operation of the Coal Mines Regulation Acts (9). The conditions of employment in Monmouthshire and South Wales were stated to have improved greatly in late years. The methods of ventilation have developed, and the work has become less laborious (10). In North Yorkshire and Cleveland, the miners state that, since the passing of the Mines Acts, the dangers attendant upon mining have been considerably lessened, and the ventilation greatly improved (11). On the other hand, according to the evidence given by the employed in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, in almost every colliery "the miners complain that the provisions for safety and sanitation are not sufficiently enforced according to the terms of the Act. In many collieries the quantity and quality of the materials supplied is inferior and limited" (12). "The disorganised condition of the men in the county is a reason for the Act not being as well carried out as it is in other parts of the country," and it was alleged that "many of the grievances of which (the miners) in Lanarkshire complain are directly due to want of organisation" (13).

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 51–3. Digest, Vol. II., p. 87. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 161. (2) Norman, 1213. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LXIII. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LXIV. (5) Keir Hardie, 13087, 13231, 13275–6. (6) Weir, 3782, 3863, 3867. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 34, 69–70, 71. Digest, Vol. II., p. 106. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 25. Digest, Vol. II., p. 20. (11) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 79. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 81. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 106.

[§ 34.] 34. Various complaints were brought forward in connection with the terms and administration of the Coal Mines Regulation Acts. With regard to the sections regulating the employment of boys, girls, and women, it was desired that the Act should be so amended that no boy of or above the age of 14 years should be employed below ground in a mine for more than 108 hours in any one fortnight. Under the present Act, no boy of or above the age of 12 years may be so employed for more than 54 hours in any one week (1). It was, however, stated that it had proved difficult in Northumberland, under the conditions stipulated in the Act, to obtain a sufficient supply of boy labour. This difficulty is increased by the fact that boys are allowed to work in the factories at the age of 11. It was further complained that these sections conflict with the Education Act, because, under the former, the children can go down the pit to work at the age of 12, and, under the latter, unless they have passed the local standard, they cannot go down to work until they are 13. Complaints were further made in connection with the operation of those clauses which referred to the deductions for foreign material, the appointment of check-weighers, the employment of inexperienced workmen, timbering, the prohibition of single shafts, and other matters (2).

Complaints in connection with Coal Mines' Regulation Acts.

(a.) Deductions for foreign material.

(*a.*) With regard to the deductions for foreign material, it was complained that the clause which provides against improper filling is "unsatisfactory" and "difficult in application." At present, the "owner, agent, or manager of the mine" is not precluded "from agreeing with the persons employed in the mine that deductions shall be made in respect of stones or substances other than the mineral contracted to be gotten, which shall be sent out of the mine with the mineral contracted to be gotten, or in respect of any tubs, baskets, or hutches, being improperly filled in those cases where they are filled by the getter of the mineral or his drawer, or by the person immediately employed by him; such deductions being determined in such special mode as may be agreed upon between the owner, agent, or manager of the mine on the one hand, and the persons employed in the mine on the other, or by some person appointed in that behalf by the owner, agent, or manager, or (if any checkweigher is stationed for this purpose as hereinafter mentioned) by such person and such checkweigher, or in case of difference, by a third person to be mutually agreed on by the owner, agent, or manager of the mine on the one hand and the persons employed in the mine on the other, or in default of agreement appointed by a chairman of a court of quarter sessions within the jurisdiction of which any shaft of the mine is situate." This part of the clause, Mr. Jones stated, should be repealed (3). It was alleged by a witness from Lanarkshire that the agreement between employers and employed as to the terms of the scale sometimes means no more than an arbitrary notice under which the men work under protest. The employers in some cases it was said enforce any scale of deductions "by merely posting it up on the pit bank." The fines are, as a rule, put on by the manager, and in some mines constitute a condition of employment. Sometimes it was stated that the owners fix a standard weight beyond which coal is not weighed, although the Mines Act requires that "mineral contracted to be gotten" shall be "truly weighed." In Scotland, the deductions were stated to be frequently arbitrary and unjust and a source of continued dispute between workmen and employers. "Some of the owners," on the other hand, "treat the employés with every consideration, and ask them to consider the scale. . . . When such is the case, things move smoothly and amicably" (4).

(b.) Appointment of checkweighers.

(*b.*) A fruitful source of complaint in Scotland arises in connection with the appointment of checkweighers. Although the employers state that they prefer that the men should have a checkweigher, and are willing to afford him every reasonable facility, the men complain that he is not given sufficient power upon the pit-bank. They state that he has not every facility to fulfil his duties, "including the facilities for examining and testing the weighing machines, the checking and taring of tubs and trains, when necessary." The employed state further that employers have in some cases refused to appoint their checkweighers, and have dismissed them indirectly by dismissing their men and re-engaging them on condition that they appoint another checkweigher. Thus, it was stated that "some two years ago, at the Merryton Colliery, the employer brought an action against the checkweigher . . . he presented a petition to the Sheriff to have him removed on the ground of a certain alleged breach of the Act. The case was defended; the Sheriff

(1) Weeks, 2987–8; Jaques, 3582–6. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31, 69–70. (3) Richards, 5832, 5447; Jones, 11685. (4) Smellie, 9871. Digest, Vol. I., p. 70. Digest, Vol. II., p. 107.

[§ 34 (b.)]

heard the case, and he refused to dismiss the checkweighman . . . The employer posted up a notice saying that all the workmen in the colliery were dismissed, but that all would be re-engaged on the condition that they would not have the checkweighman as checkweighman . . . They might appoint any other person . . . The Procurator Fiscal of the county raised a prosecution against the employer for interfering with the checkweigher. The employer took the case to Edinburgh, and they decided there that the employer had the right to dismiss all the workmen and to re-engage them on condition that they would dismiss the checkweigher." The inspector for the East of Scotland stated that he did not think the facts were disputed. The employers were "within the letter of the law, but not within its spirit" (1). The workmen desire a clause to be inserted in the Act to the effect that "where a majority of the workmen appoint a checkweigher it shall be compulsory on the employer, if the workmen desire it, to deduct the checkweigher's wages from their wages and hand them over to a committee, or the checkweigher himself, as directed" (2).

(c.) Employment of inexperienced workmen.

(*c.*) It was stated in the evidence from South Wales and Monmouthshire, Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, that the Coal Mines Regulation Acts had failed to prevent inexperienced workmen from being employed in the mines. It is alleged that in the former district, unskilled workmen are constantly employed and cause much anxiety to experienced miners. A considerable number of accidents in South Wales may be traced to the increasing number of unskilled men who manage to obtain employment. The condition of the roof and the quantity of gas in a miner's working place, in many of these coalfields, may be different on different days. The number of props necessary to ensure safety on one day may be unnecessary on the next. Moreover, the most dangerous fissures in the roof can only be tested by sound, and it was alleged that long experience is required before a miner can thoroughly understand the meaning of the sounds. The owners deny, however, that any attempt is made to evade the Act, and further state that the men, in going from pit to pit, frequently misrepresent the period of their employment (3). In Lanarkshire, the employés state that "very little attention is paid to the requirements of two years' experience, and that "when men ask for employment they are seldom asked by the manager or overman whether or not they are skilled miners" (4). Moreover, there is a provision under a later section of the Act (Section 65) to relieve the manager from responsibility if the overman employs inexperienced men (5). At some of the collieries contractors engage their own men, and it is left to them to inquire "whether they are miners or not." "Where contracting exists," it was alleged that "six or seven out of every ten in a section are unskilled men ; they are employed as fillers, and there are three or four to hew the coal, and in the course of a week or two the fillers become hewers themselves and go to another colliery and pass themselves off as miners" (6). It was stated, on the other hand, by the employers that sub-contracting exists only to a limited extent ; where the system is in vogue, "the officials of the colliery generally supervise the work done by them by seeing that they carry out the provisions of the Mines Act." It may be noted further that the Government Inspector for the East of Scotland knew "of no case where an unskilled workman has worked alone, and the miners' agents have never reported such a case. . . . . Some managers . . . . . have refused employment to persons whom they considered to be unskilled miners, and who, they believe, got employment in other mines." The inspector stated, however, that he "could never get particulars so as to trace a case," and similar evidence as to the observance of this clause was given by the Inspector for the West of Scotland (7).

(d.) Inquiries into accidents.

(*d.*) Further complaints were made by the witnesses from Scotland, in connection with those clauses in the Act which refer to official inquiries into accidents, timbering, double shafts, and the conditions as to ventilation. With regard to inquiries into accidents, the Inspector for the East of Scotland stated that the present system is too "private." No person except the public officials can obtain the facts unless a prosecution ensues. In England the coroner's inquiry places all the facts at the disposal of any person who wishes to ascertain them (8).

(e.) Double shafts, timbering and conditions as to ventilation.

(*e.*) One of the clauses in the Coal Mines Regulation Act provides that there shall be at least two shafts or outlets in communication with every seam in the mine, furnished with proper apparatus for winding persons up and down.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 108–9. (2) Keir-Hardie, 12564. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 24, 26–7, 72–3. Digest, Vol. II., p. 20–22. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 23,120. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 72. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 120. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 122. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 33, 115.

[§ 34 (e.)]

It was stated, however, that there are many collieries in Ayrshire, employing over 100 men, where the second shaft does not conform to the requirements of the Act, and is not available for miners. This second outlet is used as a furnace shaft, and has no winding machinery attached. It was also alleged that, with the exception of six collieries in Ayrshire, no pit is properly ventilated according to the requirements of this Act. These statements were subsequently denied in detail by the Government Inspector for the district (1). It was also complained in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire that the supply of timber for propwood is inadequate with respect to quantity and quality. The supply of rails, brattice cloth, and other material necessary for the safety and comfort of the workmen was alleged to be frequently insufficient in the former district (2). On the other hand, the Inspector for the East of Scotland stated that neither he nor his assistants have generally to complain of the scarcity of timber, although, in a few cases, the carriage of timber between the pit and the face is not properly organised (3). The employers allege that they are not aware of "any attempt to evade the Act" in this direction. "Any difficulty that there has been hinges" on the meaning of the word "convenient" in the Act (4). About 50 per cent. of the accidents which occur in Scotland arise from falls of roofs and sides. The miners in the district do their own timbering. The Government Inspector for the West of Scotland stated that it would be advisable that the owners should undertake the timbering by means of a special staff, until a law is passed enacting that a certain area of the roof at the working face shall never be left unsupported. The principal cause of accidents in this district was alleged to be the neglect on the part of the sufferers to set their props, and the failure on the part of officials to compel them to do so (5).

Inspection by the miners.

35. The miners in all districts, with the exception of Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire, the Cannock Chase district, Lanarkshire, and Ayrshire, and certain collieries in the Rhondda Valley, sometimes avail themselves of their power under the Act to appoint some of their number to inspect the mines (6). The permission, however, with the exception of some collieries in South Wales, is not systematically taken advantage of. In fact it was stated that the workmen avail themselves of their powers of inspection in only 10 per cent. of the collieries in the kingdom (7). In Northumberland, South Yorkshire and Cleveland the workmen were stated to exercise their power under the Act occasionally (8). In Fife and Kinross miners generally appoint two or three of their number to inspect each colliery (9). The workmen in about 80 per cent. of the collieries in the Aberdare and Merthyr district inspect the mines periodically and the employers give them every encouragement, even to the extent of paying half or more than half of the cost (10). Inspection takes place every month in all the mines in the Ocean Collieries, with the exception of the Lady Windsor Pit. The miners in the Rhondda Valley, generally speaking, examine the pits once a month. The management pays a portion of the expenses in order to induce the men to continue to do so. The workers in those collieries in the district in which periodical inspection does not take place state that they are thoroughly satisfied with the condition of the pits (11). In the Blaenavon district the working places are examined by the miners at least twice a quarter (12). The fact that the men do not avail themselves more largely of their privileges under the Act was stated to be due to a fear of victimisation, and to the absence of a strong organisation to provide the necessary funds (13). One witness from Lanarkshire stated that there was a great deal of laxity and carelessness among the miners on this matter (14). Three proposals were brought forward by the miners' representatives in connection with this subject of periodical inspection on behalf of the workmen. Mr. Morgan and Mr. John desired that the miners should be allowed to appoint an "independent man," not directly under the control of the colliery manager, to go down the pit and make an independent investigation. Mr. Toyn proposed that the men should be allowed to appoint within the terms of the Act persons "who are or have been" practical working miners, and Mr. Small desired that the checkweigher be allowed to inspect the mine (15).

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 27, 110, 116. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 80. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 28, 116. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 117. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 117. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 34. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 33–4, 72. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 118–9. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 397. Digest, Vol. I., p. 72. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 401. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 16. (11) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 16, 17, 212, 119. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 80. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. Digest, Vol. II., p. 119. (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 25. (15) Morgan, 3979 ; John, 11908, 11950 ; *Cf.* Keir-Hardie, 12564 ; Toyn, 879–81 ; Small, 10080.

[§ 36.]

Government Inspection.

36. The present system of Government inspection under the Act was, however, stated to be irregular and ineffective. Complaints of its inadequacy were made by the miners' representatives from Fife and Kinross, Aberdare and Merthyr, the Rhondda Valley, South Wales and Monmouthshire, Lanarkshire and Ayrshire. In Aberdare and Merthyr it was stated that the Government Inspector seldom descends the pit. He pays occasional visits lasting from two to four hours, when a thorough examination of the mine would take six days. In the Rhondda Valley, the inspector devotes an hour to examining a mine which cannot be properly inspected in less than four days (1). On the other hand, it was stated that the inspection of the mines in Derbyshire and Leicestershire was satisfactory (2). In the Cannock Chase district and North Staffordshire every case of an accident is carefully investigated and the site examined by the chief inspector or his assistant (3). Three hundred and seventy-two mines in South Wales, 86 of which do not employ more than 30 men underground, come under the Coal Mines Regulation Acts. In 1891, 334 inspections were made in the district. Of these, about half are undertaken in consequence of accidents; 14 complaints, requiring underground inspection, were received during the year. In 1890, the number of inspections was 323: several collieries were visited three or four times. The inspections are either of the whole mine or portions, according to its size. In all cases, the ventilation, the several working places up to the face, the roadways and one or more of the air-courses are inspected (4). There are five inspectors for the whole of Scotland. The Inspector for the East of Scotland mining district, with two assistant inspectors, has charge over a district extending about 300 miles from and about 60 miles from east to west. More than 50,000 men are employed in the district under the Coal Mines Regulation Act, and more than 700 under the Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act (5). It is suggested in the evidence that the present standard of qualification for inspection should be lowered in order to allow the appointment of practical working men as sub-inspectors (6). In addition to the monthly inspection by the workmen, there should be further inspection by these sub-inspectors, who should possess the same functions and responsibilities as the other inspectors, with power to call in the chief inspector, when necessary (7). On the other hand, it was contended that the inspectors must possess qualifications at least equal to those of the managers whose actions they have the authority to supervise. "If an inexperienced Government inspector visited a colliery," and, "if the officials found that, through his inexperience, he whose duty it would be to check their doings failed to find their weak points, it would greatly tend to make them negligent." Moreover, it was stated that the Government inspectors should be men to whom colliery managers can look for advice. "It is easy enough . . . . . to find fault, but it requires a man of experience to suggest a remedy for the evil (8)." Finally, it was stated that it is not always possible to carry out the provisions of the Coal Mines Regulation Acts "to the letter," and it is important that the inspector should have sufficient "knowledge of management to see whether" the employers "were doing all that was reasonable and practicable" (9).

Increase in the number of inspectors.

37. It was, however, suggested by the owners either that "practical colliery managers of long experience and standing" should be appointed Government Inspectors, or that a "staff of real practical working men" might be appointed "with a less authority than the present inspector has, but with an about equal qualification." Experience as a manager, it was stated, need not, in this case, be insisted on in the case of men who have held several other high posts about a colliery (10). The employers in Aberdare and Merthyr and the Ocean Collieries alleged that no increase in the number of inspectors was demanded in the interests of safety. They stated that an increase, either in the sphere of inspection or in the staff of officials, would tend to relieve the managers of responsibility (11). No Act of Parliament, no inspectors, and no scientific appliances can eliminate from the mines the natural sources of danger or remove from the miners the necessity for constant care (12). The colliery officials in the Ocean Collieries carry out four inspections daily of every working place, and measure, at stated intervals, the amount of ventilation passing through the mine (1). In the Cannock Chase and Tamworth districts, in Durham, and in Northumberland, the collieries are examined daily by persons appointed for the purpose (2). The manager and under-manager, aided by competent practical men, constitute the staff for the purposes of inspection in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire (3). It was stated by the Inspector for the East of Scotland that an increase in the number of inspectors would not be followed by a corresponding decrease in the number of accidents, and is, therefore, not to be recommended. This witness stated that it is not advisable to trust primarily to Government inspection for the safety of the mines. It is "most expedient" to rely on the inspection conducted on behalf of the owner by the manager, under-manager, overman, fireman, and roadman. The inspection made by the miners and Government respectively serves merely to supplement and to check the inspection by the owner, the former by the exercise of a controlling authority and the latter by calling attention to irregularities (4).

[§ 37.]

Proposed amendments in the Coal Mines Regulation Acts, other than those to which previous reference had been made.

38. Certain amendments other than those to which reference has already been made were suggested in the evidence. These relate to the clauses in connection with the appointment of checkweighers, inspection, and employment of inexperienced workmen.

(a). Appointment of checkweighers.

(*a.*) Under the terms of the present Act, a checkweigher is not in any way authorised to impede or interrupt the working of the mine, or to interfere with the weighing, or with any of the workmen, or with the management of the mine. Mr. McCosh desired that the checkweigher should not only not be authorised, but should be debarred from so doing by his official position, and Mr. Small desired further that he should be debarred from giving any third party information about a man's time or output of material without that man's consent. It was also suggested by Mr. McCosh that weighing should be done for both parties by neutral sworn weighers (5).

(b.) Inspection.

(*b.*) With regard to inspection, Mr. Thomas desired that the Act should be extended so as to include with "mines of coal, mines of stratified ironstone, and mines of shale," mines of fireclay, and limestone quarries (6).

(c.) Employment of inexperienced workmen.

(*c.*) Suggestions were brought forward in connection with the employment of inexperienced workmen by Messrs. Small, Davies, Jones, and Onions. It was suggested that the two years' experience required under the present Act should be changed to 18 months' experience of such work, six months of which should be specialised work under a skilled collier. Moreover this experience should be required from persons employed in knocking out timber, as well as the getters of coal and ironstone. It was further proposed that the manager should be required to obtain from all applicants for work certificates from their former employers, showing the time which that person had worked in accordance with the terms of the Act, and that it should be made compulsory on the part of managers to give these certificates; that in a fiery seam, where safety lamps are used, every person who goes to work in the pit, and who is going to work by himself, should prove to some impartial body that he understands the use of a safety lamp; that an examination for certificates for firemen and roadsmen should be instituted; that the number of men and the section each was to superintend should be defined in the Act; that a clause be introduced to "prevent contracting, except directly to a responsible miner, who will not be allowed to have anyone under him, except maybe his neighbour working with him, but employed by the owner;" and, finally that the mines should be placed in the service of the Government, under the control of the Inspector for the district, and inferior Inspectors appointed by the Master of Metals for the kingdom (7).

QUARRIES: Present system of inspection.

39. A petition was presented to Parliament in 1886 signed by upwards of 5,000 quarrymen, urging the desirability of placing all quarries, both open and underground, under special government inspection (8). Under the present system, underground quarries are subject to inspection under the Mines Regulation Acts, and the work of "slate-splitting," which is performed in sheds, comes under the Factory Acts. Open quarries are not under any system of government inspection (9). According to the present system the task of inspection falls principally on the proprietor, his foreman, and his two time-keepers. Every man is allowed to inspect the quarry and report

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 23, 25, 27, 70, 71. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 111-114. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 79-81. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 34, 71. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 71. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 33. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 13, 24-5, 70-71. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 25, 28, 112. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 71-2. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 34. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 17, 19-20, 113-4. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 16, 113. (10) Ray, 11096-8; Davies, 11617-8, 11620. Digest, Vol. I., p. 113. Digest, Vol. II., p. 17. (11) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 18-19, 21, 114. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 70.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 392, 395. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 33, 115. (5) McCosh, 13630-3; Small, 10680. (6) Thomas, 11803-6. (7) Small, 10175, 10572; Davies, 11577-9; Jones, 11684, 11793; Onions, 4980-1. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29; Vol. II., p. 10.

defects. In some quarries a committee of the men has been established to look after the safety of the pits and call the attention of the management to any defect (1). It was stated by one witness that two-fifths of the accidents which take place in quarries are due to causes which would cease to operate under an efficient government inspection (2). The danger in open quarries was, however, stated to be due to atmospheric conditions, and the face of the rock is continually changing after every blasting. Moreover, it was alleged that, in the majority of cases of accidents, the men are the victims of their own carelessness. Thus, during the last ten years, it was stated that the percentage of fatal accidents due to carelessness was 84, and the remaining 16 per cent. were unavoidable (3). The workmen themselves are divided in opinion as to the desirability of government inspection (4). The employers regard any alteration in the present system as a needless expense, and consider that a more accurate administration of the present law would be more effective. They fear that State interference would tend to diminish the responsibility of men, owners, and managers (5).

4. ACCIDENT FUNDS, EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.*

istory of ermanent elief cieties:— a.) North-mberland d Durham.

40. (*a.*) The first society for insurance against accidents in mines and quarries was established in Northumberland and Durham in 1862†. It is stated to have originated in consequence of two terrible accidents known as the "Burradon Explosion" and the "Hartley Calamity." It was then found that the existing friendly societies did not make sufficient provision for the liabilities arising out of accidents of this nature. The membership of this society was stated to have increased from 4,000 in the year 1863 to 107,997 in the year 1890. Since the formation of the society, 3,200 members have been killed out of 52,000; that is, about two per 1,000 per annum. 1,823 widows, 3,845 children, and 3,200 permanently disabled members have been provided for during the same period. For temporary disablement through accident, 750,000 weeks' allowances have been paid to 246,000 members since the year 1870. A superannuation fund was established in 1874, which has since given relief to 5,737 aged members. In the year 1875, 206*l.* was paid to aged and infirm members; in 1890, the sum of about 12,000*l.* was paid for this purpose. Figures showing the progress of this society, its total revenue and expenditure since its formation, are tabulated below (6). It was stated that in 1891 the society was relieving 17,000 non-fatal accidents each year, the average duration of which is 3½ weeks. It was also granting an allowance to 600 permanently disabled workmen, whose accidents have continued beyond the period of 26 weeks, about 1,000 widows and guardians, 1,280 children, and 2,500 aged members. The formation of this society by the miners of Northumberland and Durham was followed in the year 1869 by the establishment of a similar society in North Staffordshire. In 1872, 1877, 1878, and 1879, other associations of the same nature were formed in Lancashire and Cheshire, the West Riding of Yorkshire, North Wales,‡ and the Midland Counties respectively.

b.) West Riding of Yorkshire.

(*b.*) At the end of the first year of existence of the West Riding Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society, the number of members was stated to be 3,941. In 1890, the numbers had risen to 13,832. Since the formation of the society, the total of fatal accidents has been 448; the number of permanently disabled members admitted to benefits, 638; the number injured in minor accidents, 33,728; and the number of aged and infirm members granted a superannuation allowance, 73. The total revenue and expenditure are given, together with that of the society in Northumberland and Durham, in the following table.

c.) Monmouthshire and South Wales.

(*c.*) Previous to the year 1880, it was stated that many attempts had been made to form a permanent fund in Monmouthshire and South Wales, but they had all failed (7). A society was, however, established in 1881, which now was stated to have a membership of 56,111 out of 69,645 employed at those collieries in which the fund is in operation. The total number of fatal accidents has been 1,164. Benefits have been granted to 575 widows and 72,778 disabled members during the same period. The total number of officials on the various committees of the society is 115, and of workmen 577 (1). It was alleged that the rapid growth of the society is due to the fact that its management, especially in its local branches, is chiefly in the hands of the workmen themselves (2). [§ 40 (*e.*)

(d.) South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire.

(*d.*) An attempt was made to form a permanent relief society in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire in 1882. It was stated to have proved unsuccessful for two reasons. In the first place, the principal collieries in the district, those belonging to Lord Dudley, did not join in the movement, because they already had a permanent relief fund of their own. In the second place, this failure was alleged to be due to the "activity of the insurance companies in that district. They receive the contributions of miners, pay some allowance in all cases of accident, and they agree also to insure the employers against liability; so that the men actually provide the fighting funds for their masters" (3).

(e.) Midland District.

(*e.*) The Miners' Accident Society in the Midland District, established in 1883, has over 18,000 members. This was, however, stated to constitute only a small proportion of the men in the district. The rest in many cases subscribe to "field clubs," and funds peculiar to individual collieries. It was stated that many of these clubs make provision only for accidents and sickness, and not for old age, or for children and widows in case of death (4). The membership of this society was stated to have increased from 16,745 to 18,065 in the year 1889–90. At the end of the first half-year of the society's existence the number of its members amounted to 9,300. From 1883 to 1887, 96 members were killed, and 59 widows and 145 children came on to the funds of the society (5).

(f.) Thorncliffe Collieries.

(*f.*) The origin of the Thorncliffe and Rockingham Permanent Relief Society is stated to be as follows: In 1889 it was found necessary to raise the fortnightly contributions to the West Riding Relief Fund from 6*d.* to 8*d.* The men at the Thorncliffe collieries, 3,500 in number, therefore requested the owners to form a separate fund for the colliery on the basis of the original 6*d.* contribution. In 1891 the membership had risen to 3,682. It was stated that the society had been most successful. Nearly every man and boy belongs to the fund (6)

Tables showing the membership, income, and expenditure of the above societies.

41. The extent of the benefits granted by these societies and their rapid development since their formation may be seen from the following Tables:—

I.—*Increase of Membership of Permanent Relief Societies up to the Year* 1890.

Date.	Northumberland and Durham, &c.	West Riding of Yorkshire, &c.	Monmouthshire and South Wales, &c.	Midland District, &c.
1863	4,000	—	—	—
1870	12,556	—	—	—
1875	44,008	—	—	—
				(1883—9,300.)
1880	70,633	9,725	—	—
1885	86,866	15,374	—	14,012
1890	107,997	13,832	52,760	18,065

II.—*Total Income of Permanent Relief Societies up to the Year* 1890.

Income.	Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society. Established 1862.	West Riding of Yorkshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society. Established 1877.	Monmouthshire and South Wales Miners' Permanent Provident Society. Established 1881.	Midland District Miners' Fatal Accident Relief Society (up to 1887). Established 1883.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
(i.) Members' contributions.	953,141	113,576	229,260	11,748
(ii.) Entrance fees	129	—	—	
(iii.) Coal Owners' Percentages.	81,096	8,420	56,163	
(iv.) Honorary subscriptions.	879	1,756	8,391	4,555
(v.) Donations	11,690			
(vi.) Interest	59,105	7,682	—	
		Other sources: 7,961	—	—

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27 *cf.* p. 25. (3) Campbell, 8286. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 35. (5) Actuarial Report and Statement of Accounts for Year 1890 of Midland District Miners' Fatal Accident Relief Society. (6) Digest, Vol. I. p. 36.

* For the relation between the common law on the subject of employers' liability, and the terms of the Employers' Liability Act, *see* Summary, Group B., Part I., footnote to pages 164–5.

† 14th Annual Report of West Riding of Yorkshire Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society.

‡ A witness from the New Welsh Slate Company, Merionethshire, stated that he did not think the miners and quarrymen in North Wales had anything of the nature of a permanent relief fund, though sick and accident funds existed in every quarry.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 10, 15. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13 (Error corrected in pamphlet forwarded to the Commission). (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 10, 15. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 10. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. Table handed in by Mr. Steele. (7) Campbell, 8286.

[§ 41.]

III.—*Expenditure of Permanent Relief Societies up to the Year* 1890.*

Expenditure.	Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society. Established 1862.	West Riding of Yorkshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society. Established 1877.	Monmouthshire and South Wales Miners' Permanent Provident Society. Established 1881.	Midland District Miners' Fatal Accident Relief Society (up to 1887). Established 1883.
	£.	£.	£.	£.
(i.) Legacies paid for deaths by accidents.	31,807	4,710	12,299	864
(ii.) Allowances to widows and children.	245,912	25,386	21,280	3,368
(iii.) Allowances for permanent disablement.	132,242	24,371	—	—
(iv.) Allowances for aged and infirm.	244,339	4,255	—	—
(v.) Allowances for minor accidents.	185,174	37,532	—	—
(vi.) Expenses of Management, Local and General.	108,333	15,592	—	—
			Payment to disabled members. 21,078	

* The figures for Tables I., II., III., obtained from Twenty-ninth Annual Report of Relief Society in Northumberland and Durham, Fourteenth Annual Report of Relief Society in West Riding of Yorkshire, Digest, Vol. I., p. 27, Actuarial Report (1887) of Midland District Miners' Fatal Accident Relief Society.

Statistics of number of accidents in recent years.

42. It was stated in the evidence that there had been a considerable diminution in the loss of life in recent years caused by accidents in mines and quarries (1). The rate of deaths per thousand in the Northumberland and Durham Permanent Relief Society was 3·83 between 1862 and 1867; 2·98 between 1867 and 1872; 1·96 between 1872 and 1877; 2·64 between 1877 and 1882; 2·0 between 1882 and 1886; 1·6 between 1886 and 1890 (2). Among the Northumberland miners alone it was, however, stated that the death rate from accident is practically the same per thousand persons as it was 20 years ago. The average number of deaths for the seven years ending in 1880 was one in 973, and for the last three years it was stated to have been one in 974 (3). It was stated by the witnesses from Durham that the Employers' Liability Act had been productive of great pecuniary benefits to the miners. It was also alleged that, together with other influences, it had resulted in a decrease in the percentage of lives lost (4). In the Midland district, between the years 1884 and 1889 inclusive, the rate of deaths was stated to have been 1·43 per thousand. * In 1890, in Great Britain and Ireland, one life was lost for every 528 persons employed and every 167,763 tons raised. In Scotland alone, one life was lost for every 638 persons employed and every 194,228 tons raised. These figures were stated to have been obtained from the reports on accidents for that year issued by the Government Inspectors of Mines (5).

Causes of accidents.

43. Statistics were handed in by a witness from South Wales and Monmouthshire showing the number of fatal accidents from falls of roofs and sides and the number of fatal accidents from all causes underground. The following Table has been drawn up from these figures:—

I. Number of Fatal Accidents.

District.	Number of Accidents from Falls of Roofs and Sides.	Number of Accidents from Causes other than Falls of Roofs and Sides.	Total Number of Fatal Accidents.
East Scotland	32	28	60
West Scotland	20	26	46
Newcastle, Cumberland, and North Durham.	30	44	74
Durham (S.), Westmoreland, &c.	38	25	63
Yorkshire, East and West Riding, and Lincoln.	47	38	85
North and East Lancashire, and Ireland	26	21	47
West Lancashire, and North Wales	55	23	78
Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Notts, Warwick.	31	25	56
North Staffordshire, Cheshire, Shropshire	18	16	34
South Staffordshire and Worcestershire	19	14	33
Monmouthshire, Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, &c.	31	20	51
South Wales	71	62	133

Figures obtained from Table handed in by A. Onions, Secretary of Monmouthshire and South Wales Miners' Federation.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 71. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 78. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9; G. L. Campbell, 8286. (5) Actuarial Report (1883) Midland District. Digest, Vol. II., p. 30. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 401.

[§ 43.]

It would appear from the above table that, with the exception of West Scotland, Newcastle, Cumberland, and North Durham, the most frequent cause of accidents is from falls of roofs and sides. It is also seen that the number and nature of accidents varies considerably in the different districts. It was stated by the Government Inspector for Wales that the dangers attending coal mining in the district were, no doubt, exceptional (1). More than 50 per cent. of the accidents are due to falls of roofs and sides. It was alleged that the "physical difficulties" were very great (2). One witness from the Glamorgan and Dinas Collieries, who was acquainted with the coalfields of Scotland, the North of England, and Belgium, stated that he had nowhere found such treacherous roofs as those in the South Wales Steam Coal Collieries. Large falls of thickly timbered roofs, and upheavals of the floors were stated to occur without the slightest warning (3). The strata were alleged to be of a peculiar and dangerous nature. The "slips" in the roof run in all directions, while in Durham the "cleat" runs in only one direction, and can generally be accurately inferred, and precautions taken accordingly (4). The "slips" which run through the coal affect the roof up to a considerable distance, while large balls of iron and brass called "pyrites" are apt to drop down and cause accidents. Moreover, the seams in South Wales are very thick, and, as a rule, very "free." They are subject to discharges of gas and firedamp. These occasion great pressure, suddenly force down large quantities of coal, and thus break down the roof. The roofs in the steam coal strata were also, generally speaking, stated to be brittle, uncertain, and liable to disturbances by "bumpers" and "blowers" (5). The superior means of ventilation adopted in the deep pits, where a current varying from 100,000 to 300,000 cubic feet per minute is circulated through the workings, diminishes the chance of explosions. When the gas is actually ignited, however, this serves only to fan the flame (6). It was stated that during the last 10 years one life had been lost for every 197,000 tons produced. The danger in this district, it was stated, would be diminished if some method were adopted to make the fans travel faster. The present slow progress at which they are worked was stated to be one of the chief defects in the Welsh system of mining (7).

Local peculiarities.

44. It may be noted that the Western or Swansea district was said to compare favourably in the matter of accidents with the North of England, in respect of those mines where similar conditions exist as regards the nature of the roof and the regularity of the strata (8). It may be further noted that in Ayrshire one life was lost in 1890 for every 657 persons employed and every 231,915 tons raised. In Scotland, as a whole, as before stated, one life was lost in that year for every 638 persons employed, and every 194,228 tons raised (9).

Permanent Relief Society. (*a.*) *Objects.*

45. (*a.*) The object of the Permanent Relief Societies, as stated in their rules, is to provide for workmen either temporarily or permanently disabled by accident, and for their orphans and widows in case of death. They do not come, therefore, into direct competition with the sick benefit societies (10). The benefits of each society are limited to a particular mining district. Oral and written evidence has been obtained in connection with the rules of the "Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society," the "Midland District Miners' Fatal Accident Relief Society," the "Lancashire and Cheshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society," and the "West Riding of Yorkshire Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society."

(*b.*) *Constitution and government.*

(*b.*) The government of these societies is vested in a board or committee of management, consisting of ordinary and honorary members. The president and vice-president of the society in the first of the above districts are chosen from the honorary or ordinary members. In the other districts they are chosen from the former class alone. The societies also have a treasurer, trustees, secretary, and auditors. The trustees continue in office during the pleasure of the society, and in the Midland District and the West Riding of Yorkshire are ex-officio members of the board. A chairman and vice-chairman are elected by the board. General meetings are held yearly. Special general meetings are summoned by the board of management or general committee, by one-third of the local officers of the agencies in connection with the society, or by a requisition signed by a majority of members. Fourteen clear days' notice of a special meeting is required by the rules of the society in Northumberland and Durham. Board meetings are held at least once a

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. (2) Vol. II., p. 16. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 17. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 16. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 20. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (9) Digest Vol. II., pp. 29, 30. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 28.

[§ 45 (b.)] quarter. Special meetings are called by the chairman and secretary, or on the requisition of three to five members of the board. Seven clear days' notice is required by the rules of the West Riding of Yorkshire Relief Society. At meetings of the board or committee of management, questions are decided by the majority of votes. In the event of the votes being equal, the chairman has a second or casting vote. In the West Riding of Yorkshire, at special general meetings, questions are decided by the majority of votes. Each representative has the right to register one vote for every 500 or fractional part of 500 members in the agency represented by him. In the other associations, questions are decided by the majority of members present. The rules of the societies, generally speaking, provide that, in the case of equality of votes, the chairman shall give a second or casting vote. Local agencies may be formed in any colliery, mine, or quarry, to receive contributions and forward the interests of the society. The local secretary or agent corresponds between the agency and the board. According to the rules of the relief societies in the Midland District, Lancashire and Cheshire, and the West Riding of Yorkshire, the secretary must also keep a register of the name, age, and condition, (whether married or single), of each member of the agency. Each such agency has the power of nominating, electing, and deputing, one representative to the general meetings of the society. The business of the agencies belonging to the societies in Northumberland and Durham and the West Riding of Yorkshire is conducted by a president, secretary or agent, and a committee of four persons. The society in Northumberland and Durham has also a local treasurer. Disputes between members and persons claiming on account of members and any officers of the society are referred to arbitration. In Northumberland and Durham such reference must be made within six months after the dispute has arisen. Each dispute in this district is decided by three arbitrators, the first elected by the claimant, the second by the society, the third by the claimant and society before the arbitration takes place. The third arbitrator must be a magistrate in one of the towns or counties over which the society extends, who is willing to act free of charge or remuneration. According to the rules of the society in this district and in the West Riding of Yorkshire, previous to the arbitration, the claimant deposits 10*s.* with the general treasurer. If the decision of the arbitrators is favourable, the money is returned, if adverse, it is forfeited towards defraying the expenses incurred. In the other societies, five or nine arbitrators are elected at each annual general meeting, one or three of whom are chosen by lot to settle each dispute. The arbitrators may in all cases demand the production of any evidence they may require. Their decision must be delivered within ten or three days after hearing the matter in dispute. One-fifth of the total number of members; or, if the number amounts to 1,000 and does not exceed 10,000, 100 members; or if it amounts to 10,000, 500 members; may apply in writing to the Chief Registrar: (1) For the appointment of one or more inspectors to examine into the affairs of the society, (2) For the calling of a special meeting, or (3) for an investigation into the affairs of the society with a view to dissolution. The rules of the societies may not be altered without the consent of a majority of members present at the annual meeting or at a special general meeting called for that purpose.

[§ 45 (b.)]

(c.) Conditions of membership.

(*c.*) Membership of the societies is limited to all persons employed in the particular district in any kind of work connected with mines or quarries. All persons who pay a certain fixed subscription or donation, and all coal owners who pay at least a certain percenatge of the total annual contributions of the members in their employ, are eligible for honorary membership.

Local Accident Funds.

46. The rules of the Thorncliffe and Rockingham Permanent Relief Society and of the Low Hall Colliery Sick and Burial Society were also forwarded to the Commission. In these, membership is restricted to all persons employed in coal or other mines, or works of Messrs. Newton, Chambers & Co., Limited, and to all persons employed about the Low Hall Colliery respectively. The constitution and government of the former society is similar to that of the societies already mentioned. The government of the Low Hall Society is vested in a committee. Its officers are a president, secretary, and two auditors, chosen from the members of the committee. Complaints of any members of the society against another member or any other matters connected with the society are laid before a member of the committee. He at once communicates with the secretary in order that the matter may be investigated.

Subscriptions and contributions.

47. The main sources of income of these societies are derived from members' contributions, owners' percentages, honorary subscriptions and interest on invested capital. The subscriptions vary from 1*d.* to 5½*d.* a week. They are higher in the Lancashire and Cheshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society in those collieries in which the owners are not honorary members. Honorary members pay not less than 1*l.* or 1*l.* 1*s.* a year, or life subscriptions of 10*l.* and 10*l.* 10*s.* respectively. Owners, lessees, occupiers or workers of mines and quarries, are required to pay a sum varying from not less than 12½ per cent. to 20 per cent. of the amount paid by members in their employment.

TABLE of Contributions for Ordinary and Honorary Members in the different Societies.

I.—SOCIETIES not connected with particular works.

Contributions.	Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society.	Midland District Miners' Fatal Accident Relief Society.	Lancashire and Cheshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society.	West Riding of Yorkshire Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society.
Ordinary members	Full members (above 18 years) 4*d.* a week. Half members, 2*d.* a week.	Full members (above 18 years), 1*d.* a-week. Half-members, ½*d.* a-week.	*In collieries where owners are Honorary Members:* (i) Underground workers, 4½*d.* a week. (ii) Aboveground workers, 3½*d.* a week. *In collieries where owners are not Honorary Members:* (i) Underground workers, 5½*d.* a week. (ii) Above ground workers, 4*d.* a week. Half members pay half the above sums. Women may choose whether they will be full or half members.	8*d.* per fortnight.
Honorary members	£1. per annum; life subscription, 10*l.*	(i) *Not owners or lessors of mines and quarries:* £1. 1*s.* annually; 10*l.* 10*s.* for life. (ii) *Owners, lessees, occupiers or workers of mines and quarries:* Not less than 12½ per cent. on amount paid by ordinary members in their employ, or not less than 10*l.* 10*s.* a year.	(i) *Not owners or lessors of mines and quarries:* £1. annually; 10*l.* life donation. (ii) *Coal owners:* Not less than 15 per cent. on amount paid by ordinary members and half members in their employ.	(i) *Not owners or lessors of mines and quarries:* £1. annually; 10*l.* life donation. (ii) *Coal owners:* Not less than 20 per cent. on amount paid by ordinary members in their employ.

[§ 47.]

II.—Societies connected with particular Works.

Contribution.	Thorncliffe and Rockingham Permanent Relief Society.	Low Hall Colliery Sick and Burial Society.
Ordinary members	6*d.* per fortnight.	3*d.* per fortnight.

In Monmouthshire and South Wales it was stated that sometimes, though not as a rule, the men's subscriptions are kept back out of their wages. It was stated, however, that they were at liberty to ask to have the sums refunded if they do not wish to join. In 1890, more than 33 *l.* was said to have been refunded in this manner (1). Membership of the Permanent Relief Fund is not made a condition of employment. There were stated to be 46 sick and accident funds belonging to the collieries situated within the scope of the society. In 26 of these, it was stated that the men sometimes ask the management to make membership a condition of employment (2). In this district it was stated that, although a few of the royalty owners contribute "very handsomely," the great majority contribute nothing (3). In 1890, a circular was addressed by the Board of Management of the Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund to the owners of mineral royalties in the district. In this it was stated that, although the Relief Society had existed for over 28 years, "not a single mineral owner (as a mineral owner) had ever contributed one penny to its revenues." The mineral owners are under no liability to pay compensation for accidents in the mines, "invest no capital, run no risks, yet derive large revenues from the production of minerals." In this district, "there is a growing impression amongst all classes of men that (the royalty owners) ought to contribute to these societies" (1). In spite of this appeal, it was, however, stated in the 29th Annual Report of the Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund that "only two lessors have contributed." These forwarded contributions of 1 *l.* and 10 *l.* respectively (2). In consequence of an appeal made by Sir Joseph Whitwell Pease, M.P., headed by the Marquis of Londonderry, there was stated, however, to have been an increase of 200 *l.* a year (3).

[§ 47.]

48. The benefits afforded by the Permanent Relief Societies have been tabulated below. Benefits.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 28. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27, E. Owen, 8454.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix IX. (2) 29th Annual Report of Relief Society in Northumberland and Durham. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18.

Table of Benefits afforded by Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Societies.

I.—Societies not connected with particular Works.

Benefit.	Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society.	Midland District Miners' Fatal Accident Relief Society.	Lancashire and Cheshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society.	West Riding of Yorkshire Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society.
Non-fatal accidents	For a member who has been off work for one week, but not less, 5*s.* per week or 10*d.* per working day, half member 2*s.* 6*d.* per week or 5*d.* per working day, from date of accident, such payments to include the day of accident, and to continue during disablement, but not exceeding a period of 26 weeks. For a member who has been off work for 26 consecutive weeks from the date of the accident, and is still unable to work from that accident, 8*s.* per week, half member 4*s.* per week, until recovery. *Note.*—The general committee shall have power, if they think proper, to give a fixed or lump sum to any disabled member in lieu of all further claims on the society for that accident.	——	Where colliery proprietors contribute 15 per cent. on workmen's contributions, 4*s.* for the first week, 8*s.* per week afterwards, half member 2*s.* for the first week, 4*s.* per week afterwards, during period of disablement. Where colliery proprietors contribute 25 per cent. on workmen's contributions, 5*s.* for the first week, 10*s.* a week afterwards; half member, 2*s.* 6*d.* for the first week, 5*s.* per week afterwards. *Also*, medical attendance and medicine, or relief at infirmary or hospital. *Note.*—The Board shall have power to grant to a disabled member a fixed sum in lieu of a weekly allowance.	For a member who has been off work for one week, 6*s.* per week, or 1*s.* per day (Sundays excepted) up to end of 26 weeks, 8*s.* per week afterwards. Permanent disablement, 6*s.* per week for first 26 weeks, 8*s.* per week afterwards. *Note.*—The Board shall have power to grant a fixed sum to a permanently disabled member in lieu of a weekly allowance.
Fatal accidents	*Sums payable at death.*—To widow of married member, 5*l.* To relatives of unmarried member, 23*l.* To relatives of half-member, 12*l.* *Allowances.*—To widow of married member, 5*s.* per week. To each child, 2*s.* per week, for boys up to 13 years of age (unless they go to work before, the allowance to cease in such case), for girls up to 14 years of age. On death of widower, or widow of member, 1*s.* 6*d.* per week for each child, in addition to 2*s.* before named, to be paid to the guardian. To a parent, sister, or brother, unable to maintain him or herself through sickness or other infirmity, entirely dependent on the member for livelihood, 5*s.* per week, and in such case the 23*l.* at death shall not be paid. *Note.*—The foregoing rules to apply in the case of members dying during disablement.	*Sums payable at death.*—For an unmarried full member, 10*l.*; for an unmarried half member, 5*l.* For the widow of a married member, 2*l.* 10*s.* *Allowances.*—To the widow of a member, 5*s.* per week. On her marrying again, 10*l.* instead of the weekly allowance, such re-marrying not to affect allowance to children. To each child of married member, 2*s.* 6*d.* per week; for boys up to 12 years of age, for girls up to 13 years of age. *Note.*—If a member meet with a fatal accident working at a colliery, mine, or quarry, where the owner, lessee, or occupier is not an honorary member of the society, the benefits shall be reduced by 12½ per cent. The Board has power to commute the allowances for a fixed sum.	*Sums payable at death.*—For full member leaving no dependent relatives, 15*l.* for half member, 5*l.* *Allowances.*—For the widow of married member, 5*s.* per week. To each child, 2*s.* 6*d.* per week. On death of widow or widower during time that any child is dependent on the funds, the guardian, 2*s.* per week for one child; 1*s.* 6*d.* per week for second child; 1*s.* 6*d.* per week for third child, in addition to 2*s.* 6*d.* per week, the extra allowance not to exceed 5*s.* per week. The payment to children to continue up to the age of 13 years. *Note.*—The foregoing rules to apply in the case of members dying during disablement.	*Sums payable at death.*—For married man, 5*l.*, for unmarried man, 23*l.* *Allowances.*—To widow of married member, 5*s.* per week; to each child, up to 13 years of age, 2*s.* per week. To each child being without a mother, 3*s.* 6*d.*, to be paid to such person or in such manner as the Board of Management shall direct. To father or mother, or both of unmarried member, being entirely or chiefly dependent on him for maintenance, and above 50 years of age, 5*l.* in lieu of 23 *l.* at death, and 5*s.* per week. If a father, 5*s.*, if a mother, 5*s.*, if both, 2*s.* 6*d.* each.
Funeral	——	——	——	——

48.] I.—Societies not connected with particular Works—*continued.* [§ 48.]

Benefit.	Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society.	Midland District Miners' Fatal Accident Relief Society.	Lancashire and Cheshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society.	West Riding of Yorkshire Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society.
Old age and infirmity	To member over 60 years of age, 4*s.* per week.	——	——	To Member over 60 years of age.

Age next Birthday.	3*s.* per week.	4*s.* per week.	5*s.* per week.
	Fortnightly Subscription for an Allowance of the above Amount.		
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
16	– 1½	– 2	– 2½
23	– 2	– 3	– 3½
30	– 3	– 4	– 5
37	– 4½	– 6	– 8
44	– 7½	– 10	1 –
50	1 –	1 3½	1 7½

II.—Societies connected with particular Works.

Benefit.	Thorncliffe and Rockingham Permanent Relief Society.	Low Hall Colliery Employés' Sick and Burial Society. Moss Hall Colliery Company.
Non-fatal accidents	Temporary disablement; to a member who has been off work for one week, 6*s.* per week or 1*s.* per day (Sundays excepted) up to the end of 26 weeks, 8*s.* per week afterwards. Permanent disablement, 6*s.* per week for first 26 weeks, 8*s.* per week afterwards. *Note.*—The board has power to grant a fixed sum in lieu of a weekly allowance to a permanently disabled member.	——
Fatal accidents	*Sums payable at death*, for married member, 5*l.*; for unmarried member, 23*l.* *Allowances*, to widow of married member, 5*s.* per week, to each child, up to 13 years of age, 2*s.* per week. To each child being without a mother, 3*s.* 6*d.* per week, to be paid to such person or in such manner as the Board of Management shall direct.	——
Sick	——	To a member who has been off work for one week, 1*s.* per day, or 6*s.* per week. After six months, 3*s.* per week for six months more, all claim for sick pay to cease then.
Burial	——	If death occur during 12 months for which a member receives sick pay, 5*l.* to such immediate relative or other person as the secretary may approve. *Note.*—Any member having been in receipt of sick pay for 12 months, and continuing unable to work, will by paying regularly the ordinary contribution, be entitled to the Burial Allowance of 5*l.*

Individual Peculiarities.

49. It will be seen, in the first place, that the society in the Midland District restricts its benefits to cases of fatal accidents. In the other societies, it appears that the system of insurance makes provision, firstly, for the disabled workman himself. This relief is either temporary or permanent, according to the needs of the member. In this matter it is seen from the table that the various societies proceed in different ways. Power is given to the Committee or Board of Management in all the societies to "commute the . . . allowances for such fixed sum as they may think reasonable." In the case of married members there is also provision for the widows and orphans. It will also be seen that the Northumberland and Durham Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society and the West Riding of Yorkshire Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society combine a superannuation fund with accident insurance. The Lancashire and Cheshire Miners' Permanent Relief Society also provides medical aid and medicines in the case of a non-fatal accident.

Conditions for receiving benefits.

50. Members in arrears for more than a certain specified period are either fined or excluded from the benefits of the society. Members of the West Riding of Yorkshire and the Thorncliffe and Rockingham Societies, excluded from arrears, are unable to renew their membership until "after the expiration of three calendar months from the date of the last payment to the Society." Benefits are only given to members in accordance with certain specified conditions.

Income and expenditure.

51. With regard to the income and expenditure of funds, the following provision occurs in the rules of the societies. "Separate accounts shall be kept of all moneys received or paid on account of every particular fund or benefit assured by the society, for which a separate table of contributions payable is adopted, distinct from all moneys received and paid on account of any other benefit or fund." A separate account is also kept of the expenses of management of the society, and of all contributions on account thereof. The real and personal estate of the societies is vested in the trustees. The treasurer is responsible for all money paid into his hands on behalf of the society. The funds are invested by the trustees in such way as the Board of Management or General Committee may direct. It is stipulated in the rules that they may be invested in the "Post Office Savings Bank, or in the Public Funds, or with the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt, or upon Government or real securities in Great Britain and Ireland, or upon debentures, mortgages, or securities of any company incorporated by Charter or Act of Parliament," or in certain other specified directions.

(*a.*) *Expenses of Management.*

(*a.*) In the Midland District, Lancashire and Cheshire, Monmouthshire and South Wales, the expenses of management of the societies are paid out of the donations and subscriptions of honorary members. If these prove insufficient for the purpose, then either a separate sum is devoted to them, not exceeding one-tenth of the contributions received from ordinary members, or the deficiency is met "by a separate levy . . . to such an amount as the Board of Management shall deem necessary." In Northumberland and Durham and the West Riding of Yorkshire, one-seventh of the contributions of ordinary members are used for this purpose. The details given in the evidence with regard to the expenses of management are as follows (1). In Northumberland and

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 29, 30, 18.

[§ 51 (a).] Durham, up to the year 1890, the overmen were receiving 7*d.* in the £., and the local secretary and treasurer 3½*d.* in the £., on the members' contributions. At the present time, however, 1*s.* 2*d.* in the £. is paid to the local officials of the fund, of this 9*d.* in the £. goes to the secretary and treasurer, and 5*d.* in the £. to the overmen for deducting the contributions at the office. In North Staffordshire, the local secretary is paid 10 per cent. on the first 100*l.* received for entrance fees and contributions, and 5 per cent. on the remainder. In Lancashire and Cheshire, the local secretary was stated to have received 5 per cent. on the original contributions of the society. The subscription had, however, recently been raised from 3*d.* to 4½*d.* a week, and the secretary now receives 3¼ per cent. In the West Riding of Yorkshire, the local agents are paid 2½ per cent. on all moneys they receive, unless it is deducted by an official at the colliery. 5 per cent. is paid in North Wales. In South Wales, the society's local officers receive 5 per cent. on the original contributions. The money is collected at the colliery office without charge in West Lancashire, North and South Wales, and Derbyshire. In the Midland Counties' Society the local agents receive 6*d.* in the £., and 6*d.* in the £. is also paid to the cashier at the colliery office where the contributions are taken. In the Midland District Society no payment is made either for collection or administration. Members of the Board of Management or General Committee are paid either 5*s.* or a full day's wage, and third class railway fare to and from their places of residence on the occasion of any meeting. The rules of these societies further provide that "no money shall be taken from the funds of the Society for entertaining the Board at any of their meetings on any pretext whatever."

Benefit funds other than the above.

52. Benefit societies of a similar nature have been established in other districts. In the Tamworth district, sick and benefit funds have been established at every colliery. The workmen when ill receive 7*s.* to 11*s.* a week. Masters and men in the district sometimes combine to work a joint insurance scheme, which secures a weekly sum, payable for a term not exceeding two years to each member in case of accident, and 50*l.* to his relatives in case of death (1). In South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, it was stated that accident and sick funds generally exist in connection with the collieries. The employer contributes a fixed weekly sum varying from 6*s.* to 8*s.* towards a man's support during disablement, and makes a certain allowance to the widow and children in case of a fatal accident (2). It was stated that sick, accident and death funds exist at most collieries in Lanarkshire. The whole of the funds are subscribed by the workmen, and the fund is usually administered by the cashier of the colliery, with a committee of workmen (3). Sick and accident funds have also been established at individual collieries in Ayrshire. The men pay a weekly subscription, and receive a certain weekly grant when idle through accident or sickness. It was stated that the owners were not in the habit of making any voluntary provision for the men injured at work, and the proportion of miners who make provision for accidents and sickness was stated to be small (4). A Mutual Insurance Society has been established in connection with the Eglinton Iron Company's works in Ayrshire. The contributions, which range from 9*d.* to 1*s.* per calendar month, are deducted from the members' wages. The firm adds 10 per cent to the amount thus subscribed. The society, it was stated, is managed by a committee of the men, and one of the officials of the firm is an *ex officio* member. The funds of the society are applied in case of sickness or accident, and to meet the funeral expenses of members and their families (5). No benefit funds, it was stated, have been established in connection with the collieries in Fife and Clackmannan. The majority of the miners in the district are members of clubs like the Odd Fellows and Foresters (6).

Employers' Liability Act and Permanent Relief Societies.

53. The permanent relief societies are, as already pointed out, supported by the joint subscriptions of employers and employed, and honorary contributions. It was stated that in some districts the Employers' Liability Act of 1880 had resulted in the withdrawal of the employers' percentages, and had thus seriously affected the financial position of the societies (7). In Northumberland and Durham, in 1864, the owners agreed to pay 20 per cent. of the workmen's subscriptions. This was paid till 1881. Since that date, it was stated that there had been a falling off in their contributions, which in 1890 only amounted to 5·7 of the men's. The agreed percentage would have amounted to 190,628*l.* The actual amount paid was 81,096*l.* The liabilities of the society in consequence exceed the accumulated capital by 90,000*l.* If the agreed percentage had been paid, the society would have had a surplus of 19,500*l.* It was alleged that the owners do not subscribe because they are liable for accidents under the Employers' Liability Act. The sum paid for compensation is, however, considerably less than the amount which would otherwise have been subscribed by the owners. It was stated that the employers had offered to pay 25 per cent. on the workmen's contributions, on condition that the men contracted out of the Act. Under that arrangement the owners would have paid 168,000*l.*, and under the present system they have paid 48,000*l.* The men stated that they were afraid to accept this proposal, lest it should relieve the owners of any responsibility for accidents. In South Wales and Monmouthshire, during the last 12 years, the owners have contributed between 50,000*l.* and 60,000*l.* to the relief fund for the workmen in the district who are members of the fund, whereas with respect to the remainder of the men who are not members they have not paid more than 1,000*l.* in indemnities under the Employers' Liability Act. It would, therefore, appear that one-fiftieth of the sum paid by the employers to the fund would have met their liabilities if the men had not contracted out of the Act. It was stated that for this reason a few of the owners have refused to contribute (1). [§ 53.]

(*a.*) "*Contracting out.*"

(*a.*) The increase in the number of members of the miners' permanent relief societies, who have contracted out of the Act, in the various districts since the year 1885 may be seen from the following table :—

TABLE showing the number of members who had, and members who had not, entered into mutual arrangements with their employers in view of the Employers' Liability Act, 1880—1885—1890.

Society.	1885.		1890.	
	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.
Northumberland and Durham	—	86,866	—	107,997
North Staffordshire	1,059	3,985	411	4,998
Lancashire and Cheshire	33,830	4,402	44,824	4,800
West Riding of Yorkshire	—	15,374	—	13,832
North Wales	10,568	—	12,978	—
Midland Counties	—	1,743	—	4,910
Monmouthshire and South Wales.	37,459	—	52,774	—
Midland District	—	14,020	—	18,065
Thorncliffe (Yorkshire)	—	—	—	3,596
Total	82,916	126,390	110,987	157,998
Totals for 1885			82,916	126,390
Increase			28,071	31,608

Figures obtained from Table A. referred to in Mr. Campbell's evidence.

* The figures given in Appendix 158, in a similar Table, supplement the above. It is there stated that in Monmouthshire and South Wales the number "not under arrangements" in 1885 was 59,817, and in 1890 was 70,036.

From the above table it appears that in 1885, 82,916 men out of 126,390, and in 1890, 110,987 out of 157,998 had contracted out of the Act, that is to say, 65 per cent. had contracted out in 1885, and 70 per cent. in 1890. It was stated in South Wales that the men who join the Permanent Relief Fund must contract out of the Act. At Burnley the men also "contract out," and the employers contribute 25 per cent. on the men's contributions to the fund. It was stated that there is no uniform system in the North Lancashire district, by which membership of the Relief Society and "contracting out" of the Act are conditions of employment. In the Altham Collieries, membership of the society was stated to have been entirely optional since 1890 (2). The existence of the joint insurance scheme in the Tamworth district, to which previous reference has been made, does not, it was stated, cause the men to "contract out" of the Act (2). In South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire the men in most collieries were stated to have contracted out of the Act, and, in many collieries, this was stated to be a condition of employment (4). A statement was made in the evidence to the effect that Messrs. Crawford and Pickard had ascertained that about 60,000 men in Lancashire are practically compelled "to sign out" (5). It

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 25. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 29. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 36. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 19. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 28, 31. (3) Digest Vol., I., p. 32. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 14.

[§ 53 (a.)] would appear, however, from the above table that in 1890 only about 45,000 men in Lancashire and Cheshire had entered into any mutual arrangement with their employers of this nature. In South Lancashire and Cheshire it was stated that the owners pay 25 per cent. of the men's contributions if they have contracted out of the Act. Otherwise they pay 15 per cent., and state that they consider themselves justified upon occasion in withholding their support altogether (1). It was stated by the owners in this district that, at the present time, membership of the Permanent Fund is a necessary condition of employment, and except in a few cases members of the fund must contract out of the Act. The employers, it was stated, would incur far less liability if the men did not contract out, because a policy of insurance would cost less than their present subscriptions to the fund (2). The miners in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire do not contract out of the Act (3). They complain, however, that the majority of employers are connected with Accident Insurance Associations, and the injured workman, in order to obtain compensation, has to fight one of the strongest combinations in the country. Moreover, it was stated by the Inspector for the East of Scotland Mining District, that the terms of the Employers' Liability Act are so uncertain that the insurance companies find it worth their while to fight every case (4). The employés in these districts and in Durham and Cleveland expressed a desire that all opportunity of forcing the men to "contract out" of the Act should be prevented (5). It was stated by one witness that the expression "contracting out of the Act" does not represent the nature of the existing arrangements between employers and employed. These are made, it was alleged, "in view of the Act," and are not an attempt to evade its provisions.* The men who have not contracted out of the Act have brought actions against their employers in a few cases only, and the matter was stated to have been decided in favour of the employers on every occasion. In consequence of these contracts, the workmen have been able to obtain higher subscriptions from their employers than they would if the Act did not exist (6).

National insurance.

54. The suggestion was made in Ayrshire of a system of National insurance, the benefits of which should not be confined to the coal industry. The funds, it was desired, should provide not only for old-age pensions, but also for pay during sickness, and in cases of accident (7).

Central Association for dealing with the distress caused by mining accidents.

55. An attempt was stated to have been first made in 1878 to form a Central Association for dealing with the distress caused by mining accidents. It was finally formed at a conference held in Manchester in 1879 "for the purpose of consolidating" the efforts of the various benefit societies, "extending their borders and promoting their mutual interests." The societies belonging to this Central Association were stated to have an "independent existence" and the latter society "only exists in the sense that it collects their membership and their effects. The Central Association has no funds of its own and does not dispose of its own relief" (8). It was, however, stated by the secretary of the Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund, that the Central Association has "neither a legal nor a recognised existence." It is a mere paper society which came into a phantom existence in 1875, but "which has not yet paid a single penny for the relief of distress arising out of mining disasters." The "several permanent funds of the United Kingdom have occasionally met for deliberative purposes and to discuss matters relating to their general interest" (9).

Suggested amendments in Employers' Liability Act.

56. Certain amendments, other than those to which reference has already been made, were suggested in the course of the evidence in connection with the clauses which refer to compensation for accidents in the Employers' Liability Act. Mr. Wilson desired that the period of six weeks, as required by the Act, during which notice can be given in case of accidents, should be abolished. Mr. Keir-Hardie proposed, firstly, that the doctrine of common employment should be eliminated, and secondly, that compensation in the form of money should be abolished and that employers or managers, or whoever was responsible for an action, should suffer for the injury to the person as if it had been a case of personal assault. Moreover, the State, he suggested, should, in case of death, make provision for the man's widow and family.(10)

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (2) Vol. I., Digest, p. 30. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 29. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 25, 33. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 13. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 28. (8) Campbell, 8266–72. (9) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXXV. (10) Wilson, 565–8; Keir-Hardie, 13,288–95.

5. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR. [§ 57.]

Other conditions of labour.

57. Two other matters to which reference has been made in the evidence remain to be mentioned; the effect of the introduction of labour-saving machinery in mines and quarries, and the complaints in Scotland with regard to the employers as landlords.

Introduction of labour-saving machinery.

58. The Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association, and the North Staffordshire Amalgamated Association of Miners, stated in their written evidence that they approved of the introduction of machinery, and considered it advantageous to the men as well as to the employers (1). One of the witnesses on behalf of the Cleveland Ironstone Miners said he knew of five of the Ironstone Mines at which costly drilling machines, worked by compressed air or other motive power were in use; he said, also, that experiments with the machines were being made elsewhere in the Cleveland district. Though the development of labour saving appliances was regarded as inevitable, he thought the workmen had not derived the benefit they should have done from these machines. It was estimated by the witness that the introduction of a machine caused the services of about 10 practical miners to be dispensed with; he would prefer that the men with a machine should themselves select the driller and charger, and all share their earnings equally, instead of some two men only, selected by the employers, benefiting by each machine,—12 or 13 persons being the total number employed in connection with a machine. The driller and charger have a contract with the employers, and the fillers have a separate contract; but the driller and charger obtain, according to this witness, about double the wages that the fillers receive. The witness, however, admitted that he would not be surprised if there were more opposition among a portion of the workmen to a change in the existing mode of dividing the earnings than among the employers. This witness expressed himself in the following words touching these machines: "I am of opinion, perhaps you will think it rather unique, that, where a machine is introduced and a number of labourers are put out, either the patentee or somebody ought to find work for the men or to get them removed to where they can get work, when they are turned out like that" (2). Another witness representing the miners stated that the employers selected "the best of the ground in the mines for working these machines and the miners have to work the worst," it being alleged that the machines are used where there is little timber and where consequently there is a maximum of safety (3). A Mining Engineer from the Cleveland district stated that these machines had been in use in the Cleveland Ironstone Mines for about 16 years. They were now used in seven mines, six of the seven being associated mines, and the other mine being a non-associated one. At four mines, all the stone was being won by the machines, and at the other three mines partly by machines and partly by hand miners. The machines were used in about one-third of the total number of mines, but less than 20 per cent. of the district output was won by the machines. They had been very gradually introduced, at the rate of not more than one or two per annum on the average, so that it was estimated that not more than 14 or 15 miners per annum at the whole of the associated mines had in the past been displaced by the machines (4). The witness thought that men thrown out of work need not have had great difficulty recently in finding employment, having regard to the large increase in the number of miners engaged at the Durham collieries which were close at hand. The witness said that men were not compensated for losing their employment any more than a shopkeeper was compensated for loss of business by persons who opened a co-operative store. The difference between the earnings of the driller and charger with the machines and the fillers following the machines was stated by the witness not to be so great as had been represented on the men's side (5). It was stated that these machines made it possible for certain mines to be worked which could not be profitably worked by hand-labour, because of the hardness of the stone and other causes (6). Under these circumstances it was questionable whether any labour had actually been displaced, the witness, contrary to what had been alleged on the men's part, stated that the best workmen, experienced miners, were generally selected as machine-men (7). Among the advantages attending the use of the machines was the fact that men worked amongst less powder smoke and in a clearer atmosphere, which contributed to their health and safety. Before the fillers came to fill the stone after the machines, the smoke had

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 78. (2) Toyn, 772. (3) Strong, 1255. (4) W. Walker, 1568–75. (5) W. Walker, 1581–4. (6) W. Walker 1622–5. (7) 1600–5.

[§ 58.] cleared away, which was not the case when working where the mining was done by hand. The air liberated by the machines accounted for the better ventilation (1).

Employers as landlords.

59. With regard to the second matter, viz., the employers as landlords, it was stated that about one-third of the miners in Lanarkshire live in houses which belong to their employers. The employed in this district allege that the houses are very small, sometimes consisting of only one room. For this, the rent was stated to vary from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per fortnight. The rent for two rooms varies from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 9*d.* (2). In Ayrshire the rents vary from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* a week, according to the nature of the accommodation. This was alleged to be in all cases very inadequate, especially as regards sanitary arrangements (3). It was, however, stated, both by employers and employed, that there has been a "marked improvement" in late years (4). The men's houses are, however, held on tenure of employment. This constitutes a further subject of complaint in these districts, and in Fife and Kinross (5). The representatives of the coal masters in Lanarkshire stated that, from the returns supplied by five firms (6), it appears that only 317, out of 1,464 houses belonging to them, do not possess more than a single apartment. One firm, owning 71 workmen's houses, has lately found it necessary, however, to build some single-roomed dwellings. The miners with small families, it was stated, are in the habit of letting all their rooms except the one they reserve for their own use. It was stated that water in all cases is supplied gratis, and frequently the tenants' taxes are paid by the landlord-employer. The return yielded by the property of one firm owning 289 houses, was stated to vary from 3·3 per cent. to 3·94 per cent., without making any allowance for depreciation. It was alleged further by the employers in Ayrshire (1), that "by far the greater proportion of the houses built in recent years are first-class specimens" of the type ordinarily occupied by Scotch labourers. Within the last 18 years the Eglinton Iron Company has built 820 houses for its workmen, at a cost of 90,448*l.* Each of these was stated to have "at least two apartments, with a wash-house and coal cellar outside," and to be "supplied with water by gravitation." All but 50 have gardens. The firm pays all rates and taxes, and undertakes all the repairs and the scavenging. It was stated that the "landlords' and tenants' rates and taxes amount to 12*s.* 6*d.* per house." Ground rent is 6*s.* 10*d.*, and repairs and scavenging 27*s.* 6*d.*, per house. The average rent charged is 5*l.* 10*s.* 8*d.* per annum. This represents a net annual return to the landlord-employer of 3*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* per house, or 2·89 per cent. on the cost of building, without making allowance for depreciation. This must, however, be estimated at 20*s.* per house per annum at least. [§ 59.]

B. ORGANISATIONS.

ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS, ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED, AND JOINT BOARDS.

I. NORTHUMBERLAND.

Organisations of Employers.

(*a.*) *Constitution and government.*

60. The Northumberland Coal Owners' Association includes 21 firms, which together own 50 working pits, employ 23,628 colliers, and produce an annual output of 7,388,000 tons out of a total output of 9,446,000 tons in the whole county (7).

(*a.*) The government of the association is vested in the Urgency, Finance, and Viewers' Committees; its officers consist of a chairman, vice-chairman, and secretary. General meetings are held annually and may be summoned at the request of the chairman, vice-chairman, any of the committees, or of six members of the association. With regard to the meetings of the sub-committees, the Urgency Committee is convened at the discretion of the secretary, who may also summon the Finance Committee with the sanction of one of its members. The Viewers' Committee meets at the discretion of the chairman, vice-chairman, or secretary The voting power of each member of the association varies in proportion to the annual output of his mines, but no member can possess more than eight votes. Appeal can be made from any decisions, except those given by the Joint Committee (see *infra*, page 68) to a general meeting, and if the member prove still dissatisfied, the question may be referred to arbitration. Two arbitrators are chosen, one by the member concerned, the other by a general meeting. In case of failure to agree, before proceeding to discuss the matter in dispute, these arbitrators appoint an umpire, whose decision is final. The rules may be altered by a majority of two-thirds at a general meeting. The alteration must be confirmed by a similar majority at the next general meeting.

(*b.*) *Entrance fees and conditions of membership.*

(*b.*) The regulations with regard to the conditions of membership and entrance fees are elaborate. Any member wishing to join must send the number and names of the pits worked by him, the tonnage raised at each pit during the previous year in the case of Soft Coal Collieries, and the tonnage "vended" in the case of Steam Coal collieries. He must further supply a statement of wages and prices paid, and must declare that he is engaged in no dispute with his workmen and has no anticipation of any and that he will not claim any compensation within a month of his admission. If he is accepted at the general meeting, he deposits promissory notes or bills of exchange to the amount of "6*d.* per chaldron of 53 cwts." on the quantity of round coal vended during the previous year, or in the case of a Soft Coal colliery, of coal raised, less 25 per cent., together with such proportion of the last call made as may be determined by the Finance Committee. No regular subscription is exacted, but expenses are defrayed by "calls" made from time to time. Any breach of rules is punished by a fine not exceeding 100*l.*, and "continued contravention" by a sum not exceeding 50*l.* a day. No assistance is given to members in arrears, and after two months, interest is charged on subscriptions due. A period of six months is required for notice of withdrawal, and payment is exacted for the amount due from the member up to the time of the expiration of such notice.

(*c.*) *Benefits.*

(*c.*) With regard to the benefits afforded by the association, when a strike or lock-out occurs, members are entitled to compensation for their loss of profits and other expenses incidental to the cessation of work. The amount of such compensation is ascertained by two impartial viewers, one chosen by the owners themselves, the other by the association, who, in case of failure to agree, have power to appoint an umpire. The receipts and expenses of the association are controlled by the Finance Committee.

(*d.*) *Dispute-regulations.*

(*d.*) A Joint Committee (see *infra*, page 68) has full power to settle disputes referred to its consideration by the parties concerned, except those which arise out of county questions or questions affecting the general trade. The rules of the association also provide for the appointment of representatives to consider disputes on questions outside the jurisdiction of the Joint Committee. If a dispute of this nature should result in a strike, and it is determined by the Urgency Committee that the colliery in question "shall be taken under (the) protection" of the association, two representatives are appointed to settle the dispute and to "advise the owner and management, who must act upon such advice." The Viewers Committee reviews the minutes of the Joint Committee from time to time, and calls attention to any want of uniformity in the character of its decisions. No member is allowed to make any alterations in the rate of wages or the hours of working in his colliery, without the sanction of the Owners' Association or the Joint Committee (2).

(*e.*) *Objects.*

(*e.*) The objects of the association comprise the regulation of wages, the protection of members against losses arising from strikes and the "restrictive action of or disputes with" workmen, and the regulation of any other matters which affect the coal trade of the county.

Organisations of Employed.

61. Oral or written evidence was obtained from the Northumberland Colliery Mechanics' Mutual Protection Association, the Central Association and the Walker Colliery branch, of the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association and the Northumberland Deputies' Mutual Aid Association (3). 18,326 out of 28,641 miners, and 570 out of 680 deputies, that is, about 64 per cent. and 84 per cent. respectively, belong to the two latter associations. The Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association was established in the year 1863 (4).

(*a.*) *Constitution and government.*

(*a.*) The government of the associations is vested in a Committee or Executive Committee, composed of six or more members. The salaried officers consist of a president, treasurer, secretary or secretaries. There are also two or more auditors, and, generally speaking, three to six trustees. Each branch or lodge has its local officers. The Committee or Executive Committee meets from time to time, when necessary. Delegate meetings are held quarterly or half-yearly. Special delegate meetings may

(1) 1589, 1615–20. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 29, 31. McCosh, 13634. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 21. Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 30. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18, Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 377.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. (2) Tabulated Rules, No. 136. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 377. (3) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 77–80. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 38. Tabulated Rules, No. 78.

[§ 61 (a).] be summoned at the request of the Executive Committee, two-thirds of the local officers of the collieries composing the association, or a majority of local officers representing two-thirds of all the members of the association. According to the rules of the Northumberland Colliery Mechanics' Mutual Protection Association and the Northumberland Deputies' Mutual Aid Association, a delegate has one vote for each member he represents. On the other hand, in the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association, branches containing 21 members are entitled to a delegate, and those having 100 members are allowed two votes with "an additional vote for every additional 50 members." All questions are decided by a majority of votes, and the chairman of the association has a casting vote. No change in the rules of the Mechanics' and Deputies' Associations can be made without the consent of the majority of the delegates at a delegate meeting. In the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association, the consent of two-thirds of the members as represented at the meeting is required.

(b.) Entrance fees and conditions of membership.

(*b.*) The entrance fee varies from 1*s.* to 5*s.*, and, according to the rules of the Miners' Association, "any person coming from a foreign nation, who was 'financial'* on the books of the last union colliery he left, shall be admitted without entrance fee, provided he enter within one month of returning to work." The subscription is "not less than 6*d.* per fortnight." Members from six weeks to three months in arrears, according to the rules of the associations, are not entitled to benefits, and, when more than 14 weeks to two months in arrears, are excluded from the association.

(c.) Benefits.

(*c.*) Dispute, funeral, out-of-work, and "shifting" allowances are given by each of the associations. The Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association further grants benefits in time of distress and sickness. "Shifting" allowances is paid to members in receipt of out-of-work payment on finding work within a certain specified distance. "Victimised" members, are generally speaking, paid at a higher rate than ordinary members out of work.† The Miners' Confident Association has paid in respect of "sacrificed allowance" about 96*l.* in 11 years, of which only 4*l.* was paid during the last five years. [§ 61 (c).] Out-of-work payments amounted during 11 years to about 16,680*l.* (1).

(*d.*) A Joint Committee has full power to settle any local disputes which may be referred to its consideration by the parties concerned (see *infra*, p. 68). The rules of the associations also provide that, in the case of any strike, the sanction of the Executive Committee is required, together with (according to the rules of the Mechanics' and Miners' Associations) the vote of a two-thirds majority of all members of the association. The control of the strike is vested in the Executive Committee, and a general vote is taken only in the case of any concession on either side. It is expressly stated in the rules of the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association, that "all votes in connection with strikes must be taken by ballot in the presence of the general secretary." The workmen may, at any time, during a strike, come to an agreement with their employers. A deputation from the county may be elected to conduct any general dispute who, if they act contrary to the desire of the county, may be replaced by another. *(d.) Dispute regulations.*

(e.) Objects.

(*e.*) The objects of these associations are varied. They desire to aid their members to obtain fair wages, or to secure the wages contracted for and the true weight of material at the pit-bank, to prevent illegal stoppages of wages, to obtain laws for the more efficient management of mines, and to "protect members from oppression and prevent encroachments on their rights." The Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association and the Northumberland Colliery Mechanics' Mutual Provident Association, also aim at assisting other societies with similar objects. The Walker Colliery branch of the Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association desires to "disseminate information that tends to the general welfare of labour and to strengthening the desires and determination of unionism." The Northumberland Deputies' Mutual Aid Association aims at the redress of grievances, legal protection in case of accident, and the regulation of the relations between employers and workmen. The Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association further desires to procure an eight hours' day for boys.

* According to the rules of the various associations, this term signifies either that the person in question has subscribed to the union for a certain specified period, or that his contributions are not in arrears for more than a certain specified period, or both.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18.

TABLE of Benefits granted by Employés' Associations, Northumberland.

(Tabulated Rules, Nos. 77–80).

Benefit.	Northumberland Colliery Mechanics' Mutual Protection Association.	Northumberland Miners' Mutual Confident Association.	Northumberland Deputies' Mutual Aid Association.
Dispute:			
1. Ordinary members	1*s.* 8*d.* per day for six weeks; 1*s.* for six weeks; 1*s.* for each child under 12.	2*s.* per day for 13 weeks; 1*s.* for each child under 12.	10*s.* per week to single men or men with one child; 9*s.* per week to married men; 1*s.* per week for each child under 14.
2. "Victimised" members	Current rate of wages, or the difference paid, if work is found at a lower rate.	20*s.* a week, and 1*s.* a week for each child under 12.	Same rate.
Funeral	3*l.*	2*l.*	2*l.* Special levy in case of accident.
Out of Work	Same rate as dispute payment	1*s.* 6*d.* a day for 13 weeks	Same rate as dispute for 13 weeks.
"Shifting" Allowances	Members out of work paid 6*s.* for the first mile and 1*s.* a mile up to 20 miles.	Members out of work, shall, on finding work within a month, be paid 5*s.* for first mile and 1*s.* a mile up to 36 miles; Half rate paid if support is received for more than a month. "Victimised" members at higher rate.	Members out of work, shall, on finding work within a month, be paid 5*s.* for first mile and 1*s.* a mile up to 36 miles;
Distress	—	Grant of not more than 5*l.*	—
Sick	—	Payments made to medical charities.	—

[§ 62.] Joint Boards.

62. The Joint Committee consists of six representatives, both of employers and of employed, chosen by their respective associations. Although the equal representation of capital and labour is the object kept in view in the constitution of the Committee, it has, since its formation, been found necessary to provide for the possibility of a decision in case of an equal division of the votes of the members (1). Thus, the Joint Committee has a chairman with a casting vote, in addition to the ordinary members. It is further provided that if the question is referred to arbitration and the arbitrators fail to agree in the choice of an umpire, the appointment should rest with the chairman of the Committee. The board meets every two months (2). It is required that the secretary shall give all the members at least four clear days' notice of such meetings, and that the nature of the business to be discussed shall be stated in the notices. "The chairman, and at least three members of each association," are necessary to form a quorum. The rules of the Committee lay down regulations with respect to the circumstances under which applications can be made for advances or reductions in wages, the length of notice to be given for hearing claims or counter-claims, and the time which must elapse before any question decided by the Committee can be reconsidered. It is further provided that if any member is directly interested in the matter under discussion, he is required to abstain from voting upon it, one member of the opposite side also abstaining from voting. Notice of a proposed alteration in rules must be given at the meeting previous to its discussion. Each side pays its own share of the expenses actually incurred, and, when an umpire is needed, the cost is equally divided.

(*a.*) *Objects.*

(*a.*) The objects of the Joint Committee, as set forth in the rules, comprises the settlement of questions relating to "wages, practices of working, or any other subject which may arise from time to time," and the adjustment of any disputes between employers and employed (3). The board expressly limits its powers by excluding from its jurisdiction "county questions or questions affecting the general trade," and there is some doubt whether it has power to deal with "rent" questions. Further, the wage of the whole pit must be below the county average before application for advances or reductions can be considered (4).

(*b.*) *History.*

(*b.*) The Joint Committee has met 27 times during the five years, 1886–90. In that period, 260 cases have been brought forward, 180 of which were filed by the men. Of this number, 31 were adjourned, 13 were settled by mutual agreement and confirmed by the Committee, 64 were decided by the Committee, and 29 were withdrawn. Five cases out of the 13 which were settled by agreement and confirmed occurred in the year 1890. The Joint Committee was established in 1872, and has been so successful "that work has not been suspended for a single day at a single colliery by the workmen attempting to resist the decisions of the Committee on any question submitted to it" (5). In the general strike in the year 1887, want of discipline was, however, shown by the men. Many were irritated with the "Wage Committee" for advising the acceptance of the reduction demanded by the owners, and refused to trust their representatives. Nevertheless, the result of the strike was stated to have been a great increase of confidence on the part of the men in the wisdom of their executive, and the "Wage Committee" has since had many "unpalatable" matters to arrange, but has always been successful (6). There has been a greater tendency in late years to settle "locally," due to the fact that the workmen now understand the principle upon which the Committee "adjusts wages" (7). These local settlements are ratified by the Joint Committee. It was stated that the number of appeals might with advantage be still further diminished. The relations between the owners and miners are "very friendly indeed" at the present time (8), and it was stated in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions that the number of strikes had recently diminished (9). Strong organisation is essential for the maintenance of harmonious relations between employers and employed (10).

II. DURHAM.

Organisations of Employers.

63. The Durham Coal Owners' Association includes 48 firms, which own 149 collieries, employ 81,298 workmen and produce about five-sixths of the total output of the county (11).

(*a.*) *Constitution and government.*

(*a.*) The government of the association is vested in a General Committee, Urgency, Finance, and District Committees. The officers are a president, vice-president, and secretary. General meetings are convened at the request of the president, vice-president, any of the committees, or of six members of the association. A meeting of the General Committee must be held before any general meeting, and whenever the president, vice-president, or secretary consider necessary. The Urgency Committee is convened by the secretary; the Finance Committee by the secretary, with the sanction of one of its members. The Urgency Committee exists for the purpose of considering any disputes arising at the collieries of members of the association likely to lead to a stoppage of work (1). Each member of the association has one vote, and, further, may either nominate some person or persons as additional members in respect of every 250,000 tons of coal raised yearly, or become entitled to the additional votes which their representatives would have had. The president or chairman has a casting vote. Appeal can be made from any decisions, except those given by the Joint Committee, to a general meeting, and, if the member prove still dissatisfied, the question may be referred to arbitration. Two arbitrators are chosen, one by the member concerned, the other by a general meeting. In case of failure to agree, these arbitrators, before proceeding to discuss the matter in dispute, appoint an umpire, whose decision is final. The rules may be altered by a majority of two-thirds at a special general meeting. [§ 63 (*a.*)]

(*b.*) *Entrance fees and conditions of membership.*

(*b.*) Any coal owner wishing to join must send the number and names of the pits worked by him, and the number of tons of coal and fireclay raised at each pit during the previous year. He is further required to name, for the purposes of assurance, a certain sum for each ton raised, which sum must be within the limits fixed by the last annual meeting. The assurance with regard to new collieries must be based on the probable produce during the first twelve months. He must further supply a statement of wages and prices paid, and must declare that he is engaged in no dispute with his workmen, and does not anticipate any, and that he will not claim any compensation within a month of his admission. If he is accepted at the general meeting, he deposits promissory notes or bills of exchange to the amount of 10 per cent. on the "total sum assured by him." He is required to pay as entrance fee, 10*s.* per cent. on the sum in respect of which he desires to be assured, together with such proportion of the last "call" made as may be determined by the Finance Committee. No regular subscription is exacted, but expenses are defrayed by "calls" made from time to time. The call is either "a sum per cent. on the amount obtained by multiplying the tons raised by the sum per ton stated in the returns to be assured against," or "a sum per thousand tons raised." Any breach of rules is punished by a fine not exceeding 100*l.*, and "continued contravention" by a sum not exceeding 50*l.* a day. No assistance is given to members in arrears, and, after two months, interest is charged on subscriptions due. A period of six months is required for notice of withdrawal, and payment is demanded for the amount due from the member up to the time of the expiration of such notice.

(*c.*) *Expenditure.*

(*c.*) With regard to the benefits afforded by the association, when a strike or lock-out, other than general, occurs, the matter is investigated by the Urgency Committee, and it determines whether protection shall be granted. The Finance Committee, after the conclusion of the strike, reports to the next general meeting "the number of tons that would have been wrought but for the strike, and the amount of assurance effected by the owner." The owner is compensated to the extent represented by the decrease in tonnage, multiplied by the rate per ton at which the colliery was assured. The Finance Committee controls the receipts and expenditure of the association.

(*d.*) *Dispute regulations.*

(*d.*) A Joint Committee (see *infra*, page 70) has full power to settle any dispute that may be referred to its consideration by the parties concerned, "except such as may be termed county questions, or which may effect the general trade" (2). If disputes arise which are outside the jurisdiction of these Committees, or which the workmen decline to bring before them, the rules of the association further provide for the appointment by the Urgency Committee of representatives to confer with the workmen. They, if possible, "settle the matter in dispute." If no settlement is arrived at and a strike occurs, and if the owner is under the protection of the association, the appointed representatives continue to advise him, and he is bound to act on such advice. No general lock-out or strike may take place, unless a three-fourths' majority of the members vote in favour of it at a general meeting. The Urgency

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 63. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix XI. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 17. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 63. Young, 2115. (6) Vol. I., pp. 16, 17, 19, 20. Young, 2223. (7) Young, 2184. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 413. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 63. (11) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p 375.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 59. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 375.

[§ 63 (d.)] Committee reviews the minutes of the Joint Committee from time to time, and draws attention to any want of uniformity in the character of its decisions. No member may make any alteration in the wages paid or hours of working in his colliery without the sanction of the association or Joint Committee.

(c.) Objects. (c.) The objects of the association are the regulation of wages and the protection of owners against losses arising from strikes, and "the restrictive action of, or disputes with, workmen" (1).

Organisations of employed. 64. Oral and written evidence was obtained from the Durham Miners' Association, the Durham Cokemen's and Labourers' Association, the Durham Colliery Mechanics' Association, the Durham Colliery Enginemen's Relief Association, and the Durham County Mining Federation. The first organisation was established in 1869, the second in 1874. The dates of the formation of the three latter associations were not given in the evidence. With regard to the extent of these organisations, about 48,000 out of 70,000 (*i.e.*, 69 per cent.) belong to the Durham Miners' Association.* The remainder of the men in the district are, with a few exceptions, members of other unions federated with the Durham Miners' Association under the title of the Durham County Mining Federation (2). 3,460 out of 3,700 (*i.e.*, about 94 per cent.) are members of the Durham Cokemen's Association.† 1,633 out of 1,700 (*i.e.*, about 96 per cent.) belong to the Durham Colliery Enginemen's Relief Association.

(a.) Constitution and government. (*a.*) The government of the associations which belong to the Durham County Mining Federation is vested in a Council, with a president, treasurer, and secretaries, and an Executive Committee, with a president, treasurer, and secretary or corresponding and financial secretaries. The salaries of the officers, generally speaking, vary with the county variations in wages. Each lodge has also its local officers and committee. The Council meets regularly every two or three months, and special meetings are summoned by the Executive Council or Committee. This latter body deals with urgent cases, and such business as the Council may direct, or, in the Durham Colliery Mechanics' Association, transacts the less important business done between the general delegate meetings. Meetings of the Executive Committee are summoned by the corresponding secretary. Special lodge committee meetings are convened by the president, "with the approbation of the secretary." The voting power of members on the council of the Durham Miners' and the Durham Cokemen's and Labourers' Associations varies according to the membership of the different lodges. A maximum number of votes is, however, fixed in the rules of both unions. Each delegate on the Council of the Durham Colliery Mechanics' Association has one vote for every financial member. Appeal may be made from the decisions of any lodge to the Executive Committee and from that body to the Council. Alterations are made in the rules at the annual general or Council meeting, with the consent of the majority of members present.

(b.) Entrance fee and conditions of membership. (*b.*) The entrance fee to the Durham Cokemen's and Labourers' and the Durham Colliery Mechanics' Association are fixed by the local branches. The entrance fee to the Durham Miners' Association is 2*s.* 6*d.* for ordinary members, and 1*s.* 3*d.* for boys over 16 (cf. *infra*, note to "Table of Benefits," page 70). According to the rules of this association, members of other miners' unions are admitted free, "if their union admits members of this Association free." "Members of unions other than miners pay the difference between the entrance fees of the two societies." The subscription to the central funds of the associations, which entitles a member to "labour benefits," is 6*d.* per fortnight for full members. Members of the Durham Miners' Association under 40, who pay 1*s.* or 1*s.* 6*d.* a fortnight, are entitled to sick and funeral benefits at a higher or lower rate, as well as protection for labour. Half-members and half-time boys pay a proportionately lower subscription. When the funds fall below a certain specified amount, either the benefits are reduced or special levies raised. Members in arrears are "suspended from all benefits" for a certain period after the arrears have been paid. Members of the Durham Colliery Mechanics' Association more than 26 weeks in arrears are "excluded" from the association. [§ 64 (b.)]

(c.) Dispute regulations. (*c.*) With regard to the regulation of disputes between employers and employed, Joint Committees (see *infra*, page 70) have full power to deal with certain matters in dispute which may be referred to them by the parties concerned. General or county questions are decided by the Federation Board, and either a special committee or full meeting of the Owners' Association. Generally speaking, the rules further provide that the sanction of the Council or Committee must be obtained before any notice of strike is given. According to the rules of the Durham Cokemen's and Labourers' Association, it is further necessary that a majority of two-thirds of the men should be in favour of a strike. The control of the men on strike is vested in the association. According to the rules of the Cokemen's and Mechanics' Associations, negociations are, however, allowed to take place between the employers and the men, in the latter case, under the guidance of the general secretary. On the other hand, the rules of the Durham Miners' Association require the sanction of the Committee or Council for any agreement made in a case of dispute. Votes are taken weekly during any strike or lock-out among the miners,* and a majority of two-thirds at a meeting is necessary both for its commencement and continuance. Further, the rules of this and the Cokemen's and Labourers' Associations provide that no strike for an advance in wages should be allowed unless the average earnings have been taken, each "flat" separately, and for three successive fortnights, and the result laid before the Executive Committee, or sent in to the general secretary. According to the rules of the Durham Colliery Mechanics' Association, an attempt at settlement must be made by the general secretary or Executive, before any strike is entered upon. It is also stated that "no member shall accept the post of a delegate, if he feels that his employer would disapprove, and discharge him in consequence." Any member who "boasts of his independence towards his employers, on account of being a member of the society" is fined. If he persists in so doing, "the Executive has power to suspend or expel him."

(d.) Objects. (*d.*) The objects of these associations are various. They desire to protect members from injustice on the part of employers, to obtain laws for the more efficient management of mines or cokeyards, to provide benefit funds, and to assist other societies with similar objects. The Durham Colliery Mechanics' Association further desires to shorten the hours of labour, to secure the wages contracted for, and to prevent illegal stoppages. The Miners', Enginemen's, Mechanics', and Cokemen's Associations belong to the Durham County Mining Federation. The objects of this society are "to protect the interests of members and consider questions affecting the associations," such as "alterations in wages, hours, or modes of working generally," and "to arrange a proper sliding scale for the regulation of wages."

(e.) Durham County Mining Federation Board. (*e.*) The members of the Federation Board are elected from the four associations composing the Federation. Its officers are a secretary and treasurer. The chairman is chosen at each meeting. The Board meets when necessary, and is convened by the secretary or at the request of any of the associations. Each member of the Board has one vote for ordinary purposes. A majority of two-thirds of all financial members of the Federation is necessary, "before any action be taken," and the decision of this majority is binding. The expenses of the Board are paid by each association in proportion to the number of votes it possesses. Each association also pays the expenses of its own members (1). It was stated that the Federation Board had been the means of clearing up many disputes, preventing stoppages of work, getting wages' questions settled, and fixing sliding scales (2).

* The numbers given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions were 40,000 out of 70,000 (*see* p. 37).
† The numbers given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions were 3,640 out of 3,700 (*see* p. 37).
(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. Tabulated Rules, No. 134. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 375. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 11. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 37.

* N.B.—This rule is not acted on.
(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 72–4. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10.

[§ 64 (c.)] TABLE of Benefits granted by Employés' Associations in Durham. [§ 64 (c.)]

(Tabulated Rules, Nos. 72—4.)

Benefits.	Durham Miners' Association.	Durham Cokemen's and Labourers' Association.	Durham Colliery Mechanics' Association.
Dispute	1. Ordinary members 10*s.* a week	1. Ordinary members 10*s.* a week for 12 weeks; 5*s.* a week for 12 weeks.	1. Ordinary members 10*s.* a week.
	2. "Victimised" members: *a.* Full members 15*s.* a week, and 1*s.* a week for each child under 14, not working. *b.* Half members 6*s.* 6*d.* a week. The benefit is paid for not more than 12 months.	2. "Victimised" members 15*s.* a week, and 1*s.* a week for each child under 14, not working.	2. "Victimised" members 15*s.* a week, and 1*s.* a week for boys under 13 and girls under 15. Delegates receive the amount of their wages at the time of their dismissal.
	Appeals to Associations outside the Federation or to the general public are made through the Federation Board; support obtained in this manner is divided *pro rata* per member of each Association.		
Funeral	1. *Full members paying* 1*s. a fortnight,* 4*l.*: Death of wife, 3*l.* Death of son under 13 or unmarried daughter, 1*l.*	——	Applications may be made to the branches for voluntary contributions.
	2. *Full members paying* 1*s.* 6*d. a fortnight:* Double the above rates.		
	3. *Half members paying* 6*d. and* 9*d. a fortnight:* 2*l.* and 4*l.* respectively.		
Sick*	1. *Full members paying* 1*s a fortnight, or half members paying* 9*d. a fortnight:* 5*s.* a week for 26 weeks, 2*s.* 6*d.* a week for 26 weeks, 1*s.* 3*d.* "until recovery."	——	——
	2. *Full members paying* 1*s.* 6*d. a fortnight:* Double the above rates.		
	3. *Half members paying* 6*d. a fortnight:* Half the above rates.		
Distress	——	Executive Committee may grant money in deserving cases, but not more than 5*l.* without sanction of branches.	——
Out-of-work	——	——	10*s.* a week for 26 weeks; 5*s.* a week for 26 weeks.
Shifting allowance	"Victimised" members on finding work, receive 5*s.* for first mile, then 1*s.* a mile up to 30 miles.	Members in receipt of dispute benefit, on finding work, receive 5*s.* for first mile, &c.	"Victimised" members, &c., receive 5*s.* for first mile and then 1*s.* for every additional mile.

* Entrance fee into the sick fund is separate from the entrance fee of the trade union, as such.

Joint Boards.

65. Four Joint Committees, representative of the coal-owners, on the one hand, and the miners, cokemen, enginemen, and mechanics, respectively, on the other, have been established in Durham. They have full power to deal with questions in dispute referred to their consideration by the parties concerned; their decision is, in every case, final. They have, however, no jurisdiction in general or county questions, questions of safety, or involving the dismissal of workmen. Applications for advances or reductions may be considered by the Joint Committees, if the wages of a "flat," or part of a colliery are above or below the county average (1).* These Committees afford courts "through which local questions can be regulated by themselves," or, in cases which require local investigation, referred to local arbitration (2).

(a.) Constitution and government.

(*a.*) The boards consist of equal numbers of employers and employed, chosen from their respective associations. The County Court Judge of Durham is the chairman of the Committees. The miners' board meets once a fortnight, to suit the convenience of the chairman (3). It is required that the secretary shall give all the members a certain length of notice of such meetings, and that the nature of the business to be discussed shall be stated in the notices. The rules of the committee also lay down regulations with respect to the circumstances under which application may be made for an advance or reduction in wages, the length of notice to be given for hearing claims or counter claims. A specified time must elapse before any question decided by the committees can be reconsidered . . . The members of these boards vote upon the question at issue, and, in case of an equality of votes between the owners' and the men's representatives, the chairman has a casting vote. It was stated that if the cokemen's committee cannot come to a decision, the chairman orders a reference. Each side appoints arbitrators, and they settle with the concurrence of the committee (1).* In questions which require local investigation, the rules provide that two referees shall be chosen by the owners and men respectively. "A joint report is made on both sides, and if the parties . . . cannot agree, they select an

* N.B.—Since the strike of 1892 this rule has been altered, and now it is necessary to show that the average of the seam is above or below the county average.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 59. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 59, Patterson, 13. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 9, 59.

* N.B.—The chairman of the cokemen's committee has a casting vote, and in the other sections of the committee references are also frequently ordered on complicated or technical questions.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 59.

65 (a).]

umpire, who constitutes a board of arbitration to settle the question" (1). If the arbitrators fail to agree in the appointment of an umpire, the choice rests with the County Court Judge of Durham. According to the rules of the miners' committee, wages to be paid to workmen who are engaged in new seams are to be referred to arbitration, if they cannot be settled by mutual agreement (2).

) Fede-tion ard.

(*b.*) General or county questions are considered by the Federation Board, consisting of representatives of the miners, mechanics, enginemen, and cokemen (see *supra*, page 69), and a special committee or a full meeting of the owners' association. The chairman is elected at each meeting. He is generally the chairman of the owners' committee (3).

istory of e working the Joint mmittee Durham.

66. The system of conciliation was first introduced into the coal trade in England in 1872, when a standing joint committee was appointed in Durham, consisting of an equal number of delegates from the associations of coal owners and miners, to settle all disputes that might arise. Joint committees have since been formed in connection with the cokemen's, mechanics' and enginemen's associations (4). Twenty-five meetings were held in 1890, and 1,016 cases brought forward. Of these, 552 were from the miners; 377 from the owners; 54 from the cokemen; 15 from the enginemen, and 18 from the mechanics. 305 cases were decided: 125 were referred to local arbitration; 327 were settled by mutual agreement; 233 were withdrawn, and 26 ruled out of jurisdiction (5). Although the committees make provision for reference to arbitration, it is said that the method is seldom invoked. "In 1883, only 37 out of 562 cases were referred to arbitration, and 19 were reported upon by persons nominated to inquire into the facts. In 1884, 23 were settled in the latter fashion, and 45 were settled by arbitration" (6).

) Miners' ction.

(*a.*) The miners' section of the Joint Committee is at present (July 1891) overburdened with work. The consequent delay in its decisions causes considerable friction, and strikes have been more frequent. Repudiations of awards are, however, exceptional and the men state that they come almost equally from employers and employed. The difficulty with the men arises from cases upon which they themselves adjudicate instead of referring them for settlement to the Joint Committee.

) Engine-en's section.

(*b.*) The enginemen's section of the Committee "works well," and has brought "untold blessings," both to employers and employed (7). It has fewer cases to deal with than that of the miners, partly because the enginemen are a smaller body, and partly because the varying circumstances which attach to a miners' work do not arise in that of an engineman. Its decisions are not delayed, and are loyally carried out on both sides (8).

)Cokemen's ction.

(*c.*) The cokemen's section of the Joint Committee "generally speaking does a useful work." The Cokemen's Association does all in its power to enforce the decisions of the Committee, but its awards are occasionally questioned. The cokemen were stated to be "the greatest defaulters in this respect" (9).

ifficulties ated by mployers interfere ith the tisfactory rking of e Joint mmittee.

67. "Inherent difficulties" interfere in this district with the satisfactory working of the Joint Committees. In the first place, it was stated that "there are no three firms together . . . . who have a preponderating influence." In the second place, "the conditions of the different mines in Durham are more divergent than the conditions of the different mines in Cleveland . . . . There are at least two, if not three, quite distinct qualities of coal mined in the county of Durham," and "the interests of the owners of these different classes of pits are quite different." Thus, there is "a divergence of interests which is inevitably reflected in the deliberations of any body of owners representing those interests, and the same is true . . for the miner" (10). The witnesses from the Durham Coal Owners' Association, however, urged the necessity for discipline among the members of the Union (11). There were, at the time when evidence was given (July 1891), cases of large collieries on strike in opposition to the decision of the Executive of the Miners' Union. Some of the men were "jealous" of the amount of work controlled by the action of the Committees, and they "kick over the traces" (12). "When the Miners' Association was first started the men . . . almost invariably obeyed the rulings of their Executive, but we have very many cases now in which they do not obey . . and . . that is tending to break off all negociations between the two associations." This view was taken by one of the witnesses (Mr. Stobart, agent to Lord Durham and part owner of collieries in the county). The president of the Owners' Association was, however, more "sanguine," (1) and both witnesses held that "if the miners would agree to leave full power in the hands of their Executive," strikes would be almost entirely avoided (2). The difficulties in Durham, therefore, may lessen as the union organisation gets stronger, but it is almost necessary that the union should be governed by an "autocracy" (3). Statements were made to the effect that the present system might also be improved by lessening the range of the jurisdiction of the Joint Committees, and by the encouragement of local settlement. It was further suggested that perhaps the prospect of being able to settle any question that may arise by arbitration inclines both owners and men to bring questions before the Committee, instead of settling them locally. [§ 67.]

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 59; Lambton, 2614. (2) Rules of Joint Committee, Durham. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 10, 59. (4) Memorandum on Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. (6) Memorandum on Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation. (7) Lambton, 2611. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 59. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 59; Foster, 2748. (10) Bell, 1432–5, 1438. (11) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. (12) Hansom, 2839.

68. With regard to the effect of organisations on the relations between employers and employed, in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission, 12 out of 16 trade associations stated that strikes had become less frequent in late years. The Durham Miners' Association, on the other hand, stated that the number had been "about the same," and the Durham Coal Owners' Association stated that they had been more frequent (4). Both representatives from the Durham Miners' Association urged, however, that good relations exist between the employers and owners, on the one hand, and the Union officials, on the other (5). Strikes are to some extent brought about because "the young men with no cares on their shoulders, and who probably do not know what a strike is, are perfectly ready to rush into" any dispute (6). Hitherto, employers and employed have also been "antagonistic" to each other, and their "habits" and "prejudices" are not to be changed "in a day or even in years" (7). Effect of organisations on relations between employers and employed.

(1) Stobart, 1966. (2) Wood, 1789; Stobart, 1994. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 60. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 114–19, 412. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. (6) Stobart, 1994. (7) Wilson, 606. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 14. Bell, 1394. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 381. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 381.

69. The Cleveland Mine Owners' Association was established in 1873 and now includes eight firms, which together own 19 mines, employ 5,397 ironstone miners out of a total number in the district of 6,579, *i.e.* 83 per cent., and produce five-sixths of the total annual output of ironstone in Cleveland (8). III. CLEVELAND. Organisations of Employers.

(*a.*) The government of the association is vested in a Council; a Finance Committee exists, and a Committee of Mining Engineers reports on practical matters. The association's officers consist of a chairman, vice-chairman, and secretary. The voting power of each member varies in proportion to the annual output, but no member can possess more than three votes. The rules may be altered at a special meeting, of which 14 days' notice must be given to each member. Provision is made for arbitration in case of disputes between members as to the "construction" of the rules. In case of dispute two arbitrators are chosen, one by each party. These, in case of failure to agree, choose an umpire before entering upon the case. The arbitrators' award, or that of the umpire, is final. "Any firm desiring to join the association must inform the secretary of the number and names of the mines worked, with the name of the person who is to represent the firm, and names of the mining engineers." The firm must also state the total number of tons of ironstone raised in each mine during the previous year and the profit per ton "which it is sought to assure." In the case of new mines, the probable quantity for the ensuing six months must be given. One of the rules requires each member to deposit promissory notes to the amount of 10 per cent. on the sum assured. The necessary expenses of the association are defrayed from time to time by "calls" made on the members in proportion to their output (9). There is a provision that any breach of rules may be punished by a fine not exceeding 100*l.*, and "continued contravention" by a sum not exceeding 50*l.* a day. Six months' notice is required of withdrawal from the association and payment by the withdrawing members of due proportion of the liabilities up to the time of the expiration of such notice. (*a.*) *Constitution and government.*

(*b.*) With regard to the benefits afforded by the association, when a strike or lock-out, other than a general suspension of work, occurs, members are entitled to compensation. The amount of such compensation is to be ascertained by two mining engineers, appointed by the Finance Committee, who are to investigate the claims and ascertain the loss of work and men employed at maintenance work from day to day. "The claim of the firm must consist of assurance on the profit on the deficiency of output, and all expenses incurred in maintaining the mine in a current going condition." The basis for calculating (*b.*) *Benefits.*

[§ 69 (b.)] deficiency of output is the average quantity worked during the three months preceding the stoppage. If a mine is taken under the protection of the association, the matter in dispute must be laid before a general meeting and the course adopted by the owners of the mine approved by a majority of votes. The owners concerned must be guided by the association and make no concession without its consent.

(c.) *Dispute regulation.* (*c.*) A Joint Committee of mine owners and miners has power to deal with such disputes as are referred to its consideration by the parties concerned, but these exclude county or district questions (1). The rules of the Mine Owners' Association provide that all prices and wages paid at a new mine must be settled between the owners of the mine and the association, and that no member may make any alteration in wages or hours without the sanction of the Council (2).

(d.) *Objects.* (*d.*) The main objects of the association are the regulation of matters in dispute between the associated firms and their workmen, and the protection of members by mutual indemnity against losses by strikes (3). "The drift of events" forced the owners to organise in 1873. "Trade unions were becoming stronger and stronger, and it was found necessary that the masters should have a similar organisation" (4).

Organisations of Employed. 70. The North Yorkshire and Cleveland Miners' Association was formed in 1872, and out of a total number of 6,579 ironstone miners employed in the Cleveland district, includes 4,600 or 4,700, and in addition 700 or 800 limestone quarrymen outside the Cleveland district.

(a.) *Constitution and government.* (*a.*) The government of the association is vested in a Council and an Executive Committee. Its officers consist of a president, secretary, and treasurer. There are also two auditors and three trustees. The council deals with "all questions relative to the welfare of the association." The Executive Committee "takes action in emergencies, but always subject to the control of the Council." Each lodge has a committee and local officers; lodge meetings are called by the lodge president with the approval of the lodge secretary. Any member may appeal from his lodge to the General Council. Three months' notice must be given of any proposed alteration in the rules, and no change can be made without the consent of a majority of members at a special general meeting.

(b.) *Benefits and subscriptions.* (*b.*) The entrance fee is fixed from time to time by the Council, and it is provided that "financial members of unions in another district or county" shall be admitted free, if the union in question admits members of the Cleveland Association on similar terms. The subscription is 3*d.* per week, "or whatever sum may be fixed by the members." A special levy is raised or the benefits reduced when necessary. Any member more than 12 weeks in arrears is not entitled to benefits until a month after his arrears are paid. Accident, dispute, distress benefits, and a "shifting allowance" for "victimised" members are granted by the association.*

(c.) *Dispute regulations.* (*c.*) With regard to the special regulations concerning disputes with employers, a Joint Committee exists with full power to settle any question that may be referred to its consideration by the parties concerned, but general district questions are outside the scope of the Committees' functions. The rules of the Miners' Association provide that any matter in dispute must be investigated by the lodge Committee and laid before the District Council or Executive Committee before any strike is allowed to take place. A two-thirds' majority of the members of the association in favour of a strike is also necessary. Any lodge on strike is under the control of the association, "but the workmen may come to any agreement which is satisfactory to themselves and not likely to be detrimental to other members" (5).

BENEFITS afforded by the Association.

(Tabulated Rules: No. 89.)

Accident.	Dispute.	Distress.	"Shifting" allowance.
Members are provided with legal assistance to enable them to obtain compensation from their employers.	1. Ordinary members, 10*s.* a week; 1*s.* 6*d.* a week for each child under 12. 2. "Victimised" members, 15*s.* a week; 1*s.* 6*d.* a week for each child under 12, for four weeks, unless continued for a longer period by the Council. Legal assistance provided, but not for those who have infringed the Mines Regulation Act.	This may be granted by a vote of the members.	Any "victimised" member shall, on finding work, receive as a removing portion such sum as the Council may determine.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 14. (2) Tabulated Rules, No. 139. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 14. (4) Bell, 1530. (5) Tabulated Rules, No. 89.

[§ 71.] Joint Board: Constitution. 71. The Joint Committee already referred to consists of six representatives of employers and employed, chosen from the North Yorkshire and Cleveland Miners' Association, and the Cleveland Mine Owners' Association, respectively. The miners' members of the Committee serve for 12 months, "unless a majority of the members of the Association determine to the contrary," but one half, which is eligible for re-election, retires every six months. The Committee does not meet regularly, but as circumstances require, and after seven days' notice (1). There is no permanent chairman, and one is chosen at each meeting. The chairman has no casting vote, and in the case of an equal division of the votes of the members, the matter under discussion is referred to arbitration. Arbitrators, with full power to settle the question in dispute, are chosen by the employers and employed respectively, and these appoint an umpire "in the usual way." His decision is final and binding for three months (2). At least three members from each association are necessary to form a quorum. The rules of the Miners' Association impose certain restrictions on the right of bringing disputes under the consideration of the Joint Committee. Any workman who has a grievance must lay it before the committee of his lodge. If approved by this body, the case is referred to the Executive Committee of the Workmen's Association, but not until after an endeavour has been made to effect a settlement with the manager of the mine where the dispute exists. The Executive Council, if it thinks fit, lays the matter before the Joint Committee. This Committee, where it does not "settle" questions, ventilates and determines the exact nature of each grievance, after which the cases are either referred to arbitration or back to the individual mine owners and their men for settlement (3). If any member of the Committee is directly interested in the question under discussion he is required to abstain from voting upon it, one member of the opposite side also abstaining from voting. The awards of the Committee are made retrospective, if necessary, and are binding for three months (4). Notice of a proposed alteration in rules must be given at the meeting previous to its discussion. Each side pays its own share of the expenses actually incurred by the Committee, and the cost of the umpire, when one is required, is borne equally by the two associations (5). The Joint Committee take cognisance of some cases of dismissal, and generally "of matters likely to lead to trouble (6)."

History of Cleveland Joint Committee. 72. The Joint Committee was established in Cleveland in 1873. It meets on an average five or six times a year, and deals with about seven questions at each meeting. It disposed of 29 questions in 1890, 23 of which were filed by the men; 18 were referred to mine managers and miners as arbitrators; five were referred to the mine owners' secretary and miners' agent; two were withdrawn, and the remaining four were remitted to the firms themselves to dispose of. An umpire was called in on two occasions. The cost of the Committee to the employers has varied from 50*l.* to 140*l.* a year (7). The Joint Committee in this district was stated to have been very successful. Since 1874 there has only been one instance of the non-acceptance of an award. It was also stated that the methods of the Joint Committee were, to a certain extent, operative in the non-associated mines (8). The official relations between the mine owners and the union are, on the whole, satisfactory. Reasons given for the greater success of the Joint Committee in this district compared with that in Durham were that Cleveland was a much smaller district than Durham, the Owners' Association a more compact body, "a continuity of officials" in Cleveland "on the employers' as well as on the men's side," and less work and no delay in the settlement of disputes (9).

IV. MONMOUTHSHIRE AND SOUTH WALES.

Organisations of Employers. 73. Oral and written evidence was received from the Monmouthshire and South Wales Colliery Owners' Association and the Colliery Officials' Association for the Rhondda Valley and district. The former includes 70 firms, which together own 207 collieries, employ 70,000 men, and produce annually 21,543,926 tons out of a total output in the district of 29,415,025 tons. "Three-fourths of the colliery officials and perhaps all the managers in the district," belong to the latter association. It has a membership of 200 (10).

(a.) *Constitution and government.* (*a.*) The government of the former association is vested in a Finance Committee and "such other committees as it may deem expedient." The association itself is divided into three Boards. Each Board may appoint district Committees of its members. The officers of the association are a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, and three trustees. Each Board has also a chairman, vice-chairman, and secre-

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 13. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 13, 61. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 61. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 61. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix II. (6) Dennington, 1380. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 14. (8) p. 61. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 13, 14, 15, 61. Dennington, 1376. (10) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 16, 18.

[§ 73 (a).] tary. General meetings are convened by the chairman or vice-chairman. Special meetings are held at the request of six members, of a Board, or "in an emergency, with the sanction of the chairman or vice-chairman." Each Board regulates the time of its own meetings. At meetings of the association and district Boards, the voting power of the members varies in proportion to "the tonnage assured." The chairman has a casting vote. The rules may be altered at a special meeting, provided that one-half of the members be present and that due notice has been given of the desired change. Appeal may be made from any decision of a Board or Committee to the association.

(b.) Conditions of membership.

(*b.*) A member of this association "may be the part owner of a colliery or a director or other officer of a joint stock company owning a colliery, or the trustee of any estate in bankruptcy, or the liquidator of any public company; or a principal agent engaged in connection with a colliery, or the manufacturing works in the district, of any such Owner." If elected by a Board, and approved by the association, the member must furnish particulars with regard to the output of each colliery during the previous year. He must also insure all his collieries in the district, and pay, "in thirty-six monthly instalments," 1½*d.* for every ton of output for which he is assured. Subscriptions are based on the output of coal; the sum thus obtained is kept in reserve to meet the contingency of a general strike (1). The working expenses of the association and the cost of the indemnities paid to members for strikes, not of a general character, are defrayed by an additional annual levy. Any member who acts "in contravention of any provision or resolution of the association or of a Board" is not entitled to any assistance, and may be excluded from membership. A period of six months is required for notice of withdrawal and payment is exacted of "all moneys due." The rules also provide that any member who withdraws "on account of the exhaustion of his colliery," shall be entitled to "a return of not less than one-half of his interest in the funds at the expiration" of such notice. Any member in arrears 30 days after notice has been received of the default may be excluded from "the rights and privileges" of membership.

(c.) Benefits.

(*c.*) With regard to the benefits afforded by the association, when a strike or lock-out occurs, members are entitled to compensation for their loss of profits and other expenses incidental to the cessation of work. The amount of the indemnity is regulated by a sliding scale based on the selling price of coal, with the object of making a grant sufficient to cover both the expenses of maintaining the affected colliery and the estimated loss of profits (2). Cheques for current working expenses may be drawn by any two members of the Finance Committee. Money paid according to a resolution of the Association must be drawn by three members. All cheques must be countersigned by the secretary.

(d.) Dispute regulations.

(*d.*) A sliding scale Joint Committee deals with all matters of difference arising between the associated employers and their workpeople (see *infra*, p. 74). The rules further provide that in the case of any dispute a special meeting of the Board or Committee shall, in the first place, be summoned to endeavour to settle the question. If necessary, the matter is then referred to the association. No strike or lock-out is allowed to take place unless it is sanctioned by a three-fourths' majority of all the members at a special meeting. The rules further provide that "during or pending a strike or stoppage, no workman who has been employed at a colliery shall be hired at any other without producing his discharge or last pay ticket, and no workmen employed at a colliery immediately before a strike or stoppage thereat shall, during the dispute, be employed by any member." It was, however, stated that this policy is adopted only in order to meet the men's action in refusing to work in order to support each other's quarrels (3). According to the rules of the association, no member is allowed to make any alterations in the rate of wages paid by him, without the sanction of a Board or the association. Further, the Board may not authorise any general change in the rate of wages, but may, under exceptional circumstances, "order a temporary allowance."

(e) Objects.

(*e.*) The objects of the Monmouthshire and South Wales Colliery Owners' Association are to conduct all business connected with the settlement of wages, and especially to defend its members against unjust demands on the part of their workmen (4). The Colliery Officials' Association was formed with the object of discussing questions relating to mining, and of supporting members who have grievances caused by the action of the inspectors, or the Legislature (1). [§ 73 (e).]

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (2) Digest, Vol. II. p. 18. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (4) Tabulated Rules, No. 135. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 376.

74. Oral or written evidence was obtained from the Anthracite Miners' Defence Society, Carmarthen, the Monmouthshire, Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly districts, and the Central Association of the South Wales and Monmouthshire Colliery Workmen's Federation, the Rhondda Miners' Association and the Rhondda House Coal Society (2). The South Wales and Monmouthshire Miners' Federation includes 8,000 out of a total number of 15,000 or 16,000 employed in the district (3). The Aberdare and Merthyr Miners' Association numbers 8,000 out of 15,000 * (*i.e.* about 53 per cent.), and the Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly Miners' Association 4,000 out of about 6,000 (*i.e.* about 66 per cent). The Rhondda Miners' Association was stated to include 10,000 out of 12,000 (*i.e.* about 83 per cent.), and the Rhondda House Coal Society includes 3,500 members, *i.e.* the whole number employed in the district (4). † It is alleged that there has been some little friction in this district between the men belonging to the local unions, on the one hand, and the Mining Federaton of Great Britain, on the other (5). Organisations of Employed.

(a.) Constitution and government.

(*a.*) The government of these associations is vested in a Committee, Executive Committee, or Board of Management. The officers are a president or chairman, secretary, and treasurer. The Anthracite Miners' Defence Society also appoints three arbitrators, one of whom retires yearly. The South Wales and Monmouthshire Colliery Workmen's Federation has a vice-president in addition to the other officers. There are also auditors, and three to five trustees. A "Works Committee" of unlimited number of members is formed at each colliery in connection with the Anthracite Miners' Defence Society. All the mining districts in South Wales and Monmouthshire govern themselves in local matters, independently of the Federation, and the local lodges also govern themselves in local matters. In Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly, each lodge has its committee and local officers, and meetings are held monthly and fortnightly. Further, the lodges elect annually an Arbitration Committee which deals with local disputes. Meetings of the Committee, Executive Committee, or Board of Management are held either every month or when necessary. Ordinary meetings of the society in Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly "are held at the will of the majority of members" at a district meeting; special meetings are convened by the officers. Appeal may be made from any decision of a lodge to the Board of Management or District Committee. The decision of these bodies is, generally speaking, final. In the Central Association, and in the Monmouthshire District of the South Wales and Monmouthshire Colliery Workmen's Federation, the president or chairman has a casting vote.

(b.) Income and expenditure

(*b.*) The entrance fees vary from 4*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* for full members. Members of local or district funds are also members of the Federation. Subscriptions are paid monthly, and range from ½*d.* to 6*d.* The rules of the Anthracite Miners' Association, and the Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly Miners' Association also provide for a special levy when the funds are insufficient. Members in arrears are not entitled to benefits. No benefit funds have been established in connection with the Monmouthshire district of the Federation. The Anthracite Miners' Association, and the society in Neath, Swansea and Llanelly, grant dispute benefits, and the former also grants legal assistance in case of accidents. (For details, see *infra*, page 74.) The funds of the associations are invested in the names of trustees; the manner of investment, generally speaking, is controlled by the Board of Management or "Monthly Meeting." ‡

(c.) Dispute regulations.

(*c.*) A sliding scale Joint Committee deals with all matters of difference arising between the associated employers and their workpeople (6) (see *infra*, page 74). The rules of the workmen's associations further provide that the sanction of the District or Monthly Meeting, or of the Board of Management, must be obtained before any strike is allowed to take place. Any matter in dispute in the Anthracite Colleries must first be laid before the "Works Committee," which endeavours to effect a settlement. The matter is then referred, if necessary, to a district meeting, and an attempt is made to settle the dispute by arbitration. In Neath, Swansea,

* The numbers given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions were 800 out of 8,300.

† It was, however, also stated (Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 80) that in connection with this Union, there is "no refusal to work with non-unionists," a "black-list" is "in existence if the men will speak out for their rights," &c.

‡ The Committee in the Anthracite Miners' Defence Society is called the "Monthly Meeting." Tabulated Rules No. 90.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (2) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 90–3. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 22, 25. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 39, 40. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (6) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 376.

[§ 74 (c.)] and Llanelly, the rules of the Miners' Association provide that the committee of the colliery must attempt to bring about a settlement, before any application is made to the District Meeting. Sub-contracts are forbidden by the rules of the Anthracite Miners' Defence Society, and the Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly branch of the South Wales and Monmouthshire Colliery Workmen's Federation.

(d.) Objects. (d.) The objects of these associations are various. They desire to procure laws for the better management of mines, and to enforce the provisions of the existing laws; to protect the interests of colliery workmen, and to improve their social and political position. They also aim at protecting the lives of miners, and procuring for their members compensation for accidents. Their main objects include, further, the reduction of the working hours to one 8-hour shift per day; aid in the settlement of disputes or lock-outs, and the protection of miners from injustice on the part of employers. The Central Association and the Monmouthshire branch of the South Wales and Monmouthshire Colliery Workmen's Federation desire to assist in federating the workmen of the civilized world.

TABLE of Benefits Granted by Associations of Employés in South Wales and Monmouthshire.

(*See* Tabulated Rules, Nos. 90–3.)

Benefits.	Anthracite Miners' Defence Society, Carmarthen.	South Wales and Monmouthshire Colliery Workmen's Federation (Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly District).
1.—Accidents	1 & 2. Legal assistance from the solicitor to the district can be obtained only with the consent of the president or secretary.	1. —
2.—Dispute		2. Full members:—1*s.* 8*d.* a-day. Half-members:—10*d.* a-day, 2*d.* for each child under 12. The same payments are made to a son who supports his widowed mother, for each of her children under 12 years of age.

Joint Boards. 75. In the year 1875, in consequence of a strike which lasted for 17 weeks, and was at length settled by conciliation, the South Wales Miners' Sliding Scale and Joint Committee was established. It is stated that this scale and the Joint Committee in connection with it, have been successful for 17 years in preventing any general strike, but dissatisfaction has arisen recently which is partly due to the delay in the settlement of local disputes (1). It was stated that 80 cases have been brought before the Committee during the last six years, about 90 per cent. of which have been due to the workmen, and nearly all of them have been dealt with amicably and successfully. It was alleged, however, that many of them were matters of such a trivial nature that they ought to have been settled locally, and not have been brought before the Sliding Scale Committee (2).

(a.) Constitution and government. (a.) The Joint Committee consists of an equal number of representatives of employers and employed, chosen from their respective associations. It has also a chairman, vice-chairman, and two secretaries, appointed respectively by employers and employed. The Committee meets at least once a month. It is required that the secretary shall give all the members notice of such meetings, and that the nature of the business to be discussed shall be stated in such notices. The rules impose certain restrictions on the right of bringing disputes under the consideration of the Board. No complaint may be brought before the Committee unless an endeavour has been made to settle the question locally between the owner or manager and the workmen. Questions which come before the Committee are not submitted to a vote, and no decision can be arrived at unless both parties come to an agreement. The usual practice is to refer the question to two members, representative of either side, and on their disagreement, to depute two additional members to aid in effecting a settlement. No strike or lock-out can take place before the question in dispute has been considered by the Joint Committee. The awards of the Committee are held to be final and binding on both parties for a certain period of time and, in the case of sliding scale agreements, until six months' notice has been given (3). The workmen's representatives have generally been in favour of the appointment of an umpire, especially for the settlement of isolated local disputes, but the employers fail to see any finality in his decision. The latter urge the same objection to the appointment of an independent chairman to settle with the Joint Committee (1). The Sliding Scale Committee takes action with a view generally to fixing the rates of wages and other conditions of employment (2).

[§ 75 (a.)]

V. SCOTLAND.

Organisations of Employers. 76. Oral and written evidence was obtained from the Lanarkshire Coal Masters' Association, and from the Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan Coal Owners' Association (3). The former includes 21 employers, who together own 43 collieries in the district, and employ 9,128 colliers, *i.e.*, about one-fourth of the total number employed in the county (4). The latter association includes all the owners in the district except two or three, who employ in all between 400 and 500 men. It has 22 members, who together own 40 collieries, employ about 10,300 men, and produce an annual output of 3,500,000 tons (5).

(a.) Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan (a.). The Coal Owners' Association in Fife, Clackmannan, and Kinross has no written constitution. Each employer deals with his own workpeople. When any matter in dispute affects the members as a whole, recourse is had to the association, which, when necessary, communicates with the miners' secretary. The association does not interfere with the wages or prices that may be paid to individual workmen, but it determines when a general advance or reduction of wages is to take place.

(b.) Lanarkshire:—(i.) Constitution and government. (b.) (*i.*) The rules of the Lanarkshire Coal Masters' Association were forwarded to the Commission. The government is vested in an Executive Committee. Its officers consist of a president, two vice-presidents, a secretary, and treasurer. The voting power of each member varies in proportion to the annual output, but no member can possess more than five votes. The rules may be altered at the annual meeting, provided that one month's notice of the proposed alteration has been given. Meetings of the association are held "at the pleasure of the Executive." The Executive Committee meets every month, and is summoned at the request of any of its members. Appeal may be made from any decision of the Executive to a general meeting of the association, which must be summoned "on presenting a requisition" to the secretary, signed by four other members.

(ii.) Income and expenditure. (*ii.*) New members are admitted on such terms "as may be fixed by the Executive Committee." Subscriptions to the association consist in a monthly levy of one farthing per ton "on the pithead output of the previous month" until 10,000*l.* has been accumulated. Breaches of rules or failure to pay "two monthly levies" are punished by loss of membership. With regard to the benefits afforded by this association, when a strike or lock-out occurs with the sanction of the society, the owner is compensated at the rate of 10*d.* a ton on the average daily output, ascertained over a period of three months. The manner of investment of the funds is controlled by the Executive Committee. All cheques must be signed by the president or one of the vice-presidents, and by the secretary and treasurer.

(iii.) Dispute Regulations. (*iii.*) No lock-out is allowed to take place without the sanction of a special meeting called for the purpose. During a strike or lock-out, the members may not engage any new workmen. "This rule may also be enforced during a dispute affecting collieries belonging to a similar association, provided that the latter guarantee reciprocal action."

The rules also provide that no advance or reduction in the rate of wages paid may be made by any member without the sanction of a special meeting of the association.

(iv.) Objects. (*iv.*) The object of the association is the regulation of wages in accordance with the state of trade and "matters relative thereto." The association does not interfere with the initial wage or price per ton that may be paid to the individual workman. Further, it does not, as a rule, regulate the hours of labour, nor prescribe conditions of service, "but would do so under exceptional circumstances to meet unreasonable action of the workmen" (6).

Organisations of Employed. 77. Oral and written evidence has been obtained from the Ayrshire Miners' Union and Guild of Comrade Colliers, the Fife and Kinross Miners' Association, the Blantyre Miners' Association, Lanarkshire, the Mid and West Lothian Miners' Union, and the Lanarkshire Miners' Union (7). It was stated that trade unionism had, on the whole, been increasing rapidly in late years, but in Scotland, with the exception of Fife, Kinross, and Clack-

(1) Memorandum on Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation. Digest, Vol. I., pp. 25, 64. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 376. Digest, Vol. II., p. 19. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 23. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 19, 96. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 376. Vol. I. Minutes of Evidence, Appendix XIII.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 19, 23–6. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 376. (3) Tabulated Rules, No. 140. Answers to Schedules of Questions p. 382–3. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 30. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. (6) Digest Vol. II., p. 30. (7) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 94–96.

[§ 77.] mannan, it had been declining (1). A spirit of jealousy and "racial differences" (one-third of the miners in Ayrshire come from Ireland), and a want of "*esprit de corps*" among the men who shift from district to district are found in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire. A lack of unity among the leaders, and opposition on the part of employers were also stated to have produced this "inability to organise." In Ayrshire, the men urged that the few men capable of leading have been systematically persecuted by the employers, so that "they have given up the task" (2). In the evidence, statements that the prevalence of socialistic views is the partial cause of this disorganisation are made, and contradicted by other witnesses. Two witnesses from Lanarkshire and Ayrshire urge that, as a matter of fact, belief in State Socialism and practical moderation have grown together. State Socialism is described as the "people themselves acting through their own organisation, regulating their own affairs, industrially as well as otherwise." This, it was stated, would tend "to organisation as a necessity rather than to the opposite" (3). The Lanarkshire Miners' Union includes 2,000 out of a total number of 34,000 colliers employed in the district (*i.e.*, 6 per cent.), and the Blantyre Miners' Union, 800 out of 30,000 (*i.e.*, 3 per cent.). The Ayrshire Miners' Union numbers 1,000 out of 8,700 (*i.e.* 11 per cent.), the Mid and West Lothian Miners' Union, 900 out of 3,700 (*i.e.*, 24 per cent.), and the Fife and Kinross Miners' Association, on the other hand, 7,000 out of 9,500 (4) * (*i.e.*, 73 per cent.). The rules of the Miners' Associations in Ayrshire, Fife, and Kinross and the Blantyre district were forwarded to the Commission.

(a.) Constitution and government.

(*a.*) The government of these associations is vested in an Executive Committee or Board. The officers are a president, secretary, treasurer, and auditors. The unions in Fife and Kinross and in Ayrshire have also a vice-president. The secretary of the former may be dismissed by a majority of votes of the members. The officers of the Ayrshire Miners' Union may be called on to resign by the vote of a majority of two-thirds of the delegates. According to the rules of this association, general district meetings are held at least once a month. Special meetings of the Board or Executive can be summoned at the request of one-third of the total number of delegates or members of the Executive, or one-tenth of the members of the association. The district Boards appoint an executive to "manage the affairs of the district between their meetings, which are held when necessary." In Fife and Kinross, a "standing committee" is appointed by the board to deal with questions which require immediate attention. Each district or colliery also has a committee with a president, secretary, and treasurer. General meetings of the Blantyre Miners' Association are convened by the Executive Board. In Fife and Kinross, appeal may be made from any decision of the district Committee to the Executive Board, and finally to the association. Generally speaking, the rules may be altered by the vote of a majority* of delegates, provided that due notice of the proposed alteration has been given. [§ 77 (*a.*)]

(b.) Entrance fees and subscriptions.

(*b.*) The regulations with regard to entrance fees and subscriptions vary in the different associations (see *infra*, "Table of Entrance Fees"). Members in arrears for longer than a certain specified period are excluded from the associations. Dispute benefit is granted by each of the associations. The miners' Unions in Fife and Kinross and the Blantyre district also grant "shifting" allowances, and a funeral benefit is paid by the former association (see *infra*, "Table of Benefits," page 76). No money can be withdrawn from the funds of the associations without the consent of a certain proportion of members. Money is banked or invested in the names of the trustees or members of the Board.

(c.) Dispute regulations.

(*c.*) The regulations with regard to trade disputes in Fife and Kinross provide that some attempt must be made to effect an amicable settlement before a strike is allowed to take place. The sanction of a majority of the members or of the "standing committee" is also necessary. In Ayrshire, the president or secretary of the association must investigate the dispute, and, if necessary, call a special meeting of delegates to consider the question. The sanction of a two-thirds majority of the members is necessary in order that a strike may take place. When a strike occurs in the Blantyre district, the strikers must appoint a committee of seven of their number to endeavour to settle the dispute. Members of the association receiving dispute benefit may not effect any settlement (unless in their favour) without the consent of the Board or its representative.

(d.) Other regulations.

(*d.*) According to the rules of the Fife and Kinross Miners' Association, members may not work more than eight hours a day nor on a "fixed idle day." The penalty for the first offence against these rules is determined by the district Committee. On a second offence, the member may be expelled and all claims on the funds forfeited.

(e.) Objects.

(*e.*) The objects of these associations are various. They desire to secure the enforcement of existing laws relating to mines and to "procure new laws," to obtain an eight hours' day, and to support their members during trade disputes. They further protect members from injustice on the part of employers, "provide mutual support," and "sue for compensation" for their members. The Ayrshire Miners' Union also aims at establishing a sliding scale for the regulation of wages, and a court of arbitration for the settlement of disputes, regulating the output to the requirements of the market, and securing justice to every member. The Fife and Kinross Miners' Association unites with other organisations to promote the welfare of its members. The Blantyre Miners' Union desires to secure the wages contracted for, and the true weight of material (1). The preamble to the rules of the Ayrshire Miners' Union states that the principles of trade unionism aim at the reversal of the existing order of things, in which capital is the master and not, as it should be, the servant of labour. The Union desires the overthrow of all that is evil in the industrial system.

* In the Answers to the Schedules of Questions (p. 41) the numbers given were 7,000 out of 8,000.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 23, 26. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 36. Keir Hardie, 12980, 13308. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 23, 32. Keir Hardie, 13172. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 21, 23. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 41.

* A majority of two-thirds is necessary according to the rules of the Ayrshire Miners' Union. Tabulated Rules, No. 94.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 26.

TABLE showing the Entrance Fees, Subscriptions, and corresponding Benefits in the Associations of Employés, Scotland.

(Tabulated Rules, Nos. 94—6.)

Entrance Fee, &c.	Ayrshire Miners' Union, No. 94.	Fife and Kinross Miners' Association, No. 95.	Blantyre Miners' Association, No. 96.
Entrance fee - -	1*s.*	1. *Full members.* — "Underground" men, 10*s.*; other trades, 5*l.* 2. *Half members.* — "Underground" men, 5*s.*; members' sons not previously employed at any trade, 1*s.* 3*d.*; members' sons from other trades, 5*s.*; persons from other trades, not members' sons, 2*l.* 10*s.* *Note.*—Members from other miners' unions which require an eight hours' day are admitted free.	1. Ordinary members, 2*s.* 6*d.* 2. Workmen not employed in mines for the last 12 months, 10*s.* 3. Workmen entering mine for first time, 1*l.* *Note.*—Members of other Associations admitted free.
Subscriptions - -	2*d.* a week; 1*d.* a month, as local dues, or such other sum as the Council may determine.	6*d.* a fortnight; half members, 3*d.* a fortnight; until altered by a majority of Association.	2*d.* a week; this may be altered by a majority of the members.

[§ 77 (e.)] TABLE showing the Entrance Fees, Subscriptions, and corresponding Benefits in the Associations of Employés, Scotland– (Tabulated Rules, Nos. 94–6)—*continued.* [§ 77 (e.)]

Benefits.	Ayrshire Miners' Union, No. 94.	Fife and Kinross Miners' Association, No. 95.	Blantyre Miners' Association, No. 96.
Dispute - - - -	Granted, provided that society possesses over 500*l.* or 10*s.* a member (whichever is the larger sum) in the bank.	If funds are above 2,000 *l.*, not less than 8*s.* a week. Otherwise such sum as the Board with the consent of the members shall decide. "Victimised" members paid at rate agreed on at the time.	"Victimised" full members, 15*s.* a week, and 1*s.* a week for each boy under 12 or girl under 14. Support is given to ordinary members in strikes and lock-outs.
Funeral - - -	——	*Full member*, 4*l.* Death of his wife, 4*l.*; death of unmarried daughter, 3*l.*; death of child aged 7 to 14 years, 2*l.*; death of child under seven years, 1*l.* *Half members*, 3*l.* 10*s.* *Note.*—A member's widow or his family when both parents are dead may continue to belong to the Association by paying half contributions.	——
"Shifting" allowance -	——	"Victimised" members on finding employment receive, if married, 5*s.* for first mile, then 1*s.* a mile up to 50 miles. If single, half the above sums are paid.	Members receiving dispute benefit may, on finding employment, have their removal expenses paid up to 40 miles or more at the discretion of the Board.

Relation between Employers and Employed.

78. Cordial official relations were stated to have been established between the mine owners and miners in Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan. There is, however, no direct connection between them beyond the holding of friendly conferences on matters of difference through the medium of the representatives of the two associations. The men in Clackmannan have a union independent of the Fife and Kinross Miners' Association, but, for the purpose of negotiation with the employers, the two associations act as one. No permanent Joint Committee has been established, but the representatives of the employers' and mens' associations act "practically" as such. Conferences between the two bodies are generally attended by a secretary and seven representatives of each side, elected on each several occasion. "District" questions, and sometimes "local" questions also, are generally considered at the conferences (1). The coal owners in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire, on the other hand, refuse to negotiate with the Miners' Associations. The relations of the employers to the men were stated to be "painful," and though the men allege that they have tried to bring about good feeling by the establishment of county boards, the employers persist in ignoring the existence of the union. The masters state that they refuse to recognise the mens' associations on account of "the extreme views held by the leaders," and "the uncertainty of position some of them hold." Further, they allege that the "miners themselves are not in Lanarkshire united as a body" (2).

VI. MINERS' FEDERATION DISTRICTS AND OTHER ASSOCIATIONS.

Organisations of Employers.

79. The details given with regard to the extent of organisation in the various districts under consideration show that organisation is thorough in the Cannock Chase district, South Yorkshire, South Staffordshire, and East Worcestershire and the North and West Lancashire branch of the South Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Association. The annual output from the associated collieries in the Cannock Chase district is about five-sixths of the total output (3). In South Yorkshire, South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, about two-thirds of the total number of miners in the county are employed at the associated collieries. The firms belonging to the North and West Lancashire branch of the South Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Association produce "probably more than three-quarters of the total output of the district." In the other districts and associations for which details are given, it is impossible to estimate the extent of organisation, because no grounds for comparison are given between the total output of, or number of colliers employed in, the county and the associated mines.* It was stated in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission that a trade association had formerly existed in Somersetshire, which dealt with labour questions, but that it had been dissolved two years ago, and "no organisation exists beyond friendly consultation." In Nottinghamshire, the owners had recently combined for the purpose of dealing with the demands for an advance in wages claimed by the men, but no details were given with regard to the number of its members (1).

(*a.*) *Constitution and government.*

(*a.*) The government of the employers' associations(2) is, generally speaking, vested in a General Council, Committee, Executive Committee, or Committee of Management, which conducts the business of the association, and is chosen annually. The officers are the president or chairman, one or more vice-presidents or vice-chairmen, a financial secretary and, in some cases, a solicitor, auditors, and one or two other secretaries. Committees are appointed by the National Association of Colliery Managers, to which the General Council may delegate its powers. No mention is made of sub-committees in North Wales, the Cannock Chase district, and West Cumberland. The regulations with regard to the frequency of the ordinary meetings of the General Council, Committee, Executive Committee, or Council of Management, vary considerably in the different associations. Ordinary Council meetings are held every month in the South Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Owners' Association; quarterly in the Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire Colliery Owners' Association, and the National Association of Colliery Managers. Special Council meetings in these associations, and others in which no provision is made for regular meetings, may be called, either at the request of the chairman or president, or of one or more members of the association (3). General meetings are held half-yearly in the Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire Colliery Owners' Association, and annually in the West Cumberland Coal Owners' Association, and in the National Association of Colliery Managers. "Ordinary meetings" in North Wales are convened whenever the secretary thinks fit, or at the request of two members. Special general meetings may be held at the request of the chairman, or of one or more members of the Committee or association, or whenever the Council may desire it. With the exception of the North Wales Coal Owners' Association and the National Association of Colliery Managers, the voting power of each member varies in proportion to the annual output of his mines or quarries. In South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, and in the Cannock Chase District, no member can possess more than a certain maximum number of votes. In North Wales, every member has an extra vote for every 100 workmen upon which he stands assessed. Voting by proxy is allowed in the greater number of cases. The chairman or president has a casting vote in North Wales, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire, and the National Association of Colliery Managers. The North Wales Coal Owners' Association allows any

* For details of membership, &c. of Employers' Associations, see *infra*, p. 79.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 21. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 35, 36. (2) Small, 102, 54; Baird, 13,436–40. Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 215. 213. (2) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 103–8. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 370, 371.

[§ 79 (a.)] member who disagrees with a resolution passed at a general meeting to request the secretary to call another. If the resolution is accepted by three-fifths of the votes at the second meeting, it is regarded as binding. With respect to any desired alteration in the rules of the association, generally speaking, after notice has been given to each member, a special meeting must be summoned. If the change is accepted by a certain majority, it is made.

(b.) Conditions of membership and entrance fees.

(*b.*) The regulations with regard to the conditions of membership and entrance fees vary in the different associations. A member of the North Wales Coal Owners' Association, on being elected, must send a return of the number of workmen and boys he employs, stating the number on which he desires to be assessed for subscription. This statement must be "within a limit of not less than 20 per cent. of the actual number employed." The assessment is at the rate of 1*l.* for each workman employed or for every two boys under 16 years of age. The entrance fee is 10 per cent. on the amount of the assessment. Any person wishing to join the Cannock Chase Coal Owners' Association must send information "with regard to the number and names of the pits worked, the name and residence of the person by whom the pit is to be represented, and the total number of tons of coal and slack raised at his colliery during the previous year. Any member of the West Cumberland Coal Owners' Association must declare that he is engaged in no dispute with his workmen, that he has no anticipation of any, and that he will not claim compensation within a month of his admission.

(c.) Income and expenditure.

(*c.*) The National Association of Colliery Managers has a fixed annual subscription. Some societies demand yearly contributions in proportion to the output of each individual coal owner, others raise levies or make calls only when funds are required. Occasional levies are also raised in those associations in which regular subscriptions are paid. Thus, in the South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, Cannock Chase and South Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Owners' Associations, and in the Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire Colliery Owners' Association, an annual or quarterly call is made upon members in proportion to the tonnage raised in the preceding year or quarter. In the Tamworth district, expenses are defrayed by calls made from time to time. Breaches of rules are sometimes punished by a fine or exclusion from the association. Thus, the Cumberland Coal Owners' Association may, by a two-thirds majority, inflict a penalty of 500*l.* on any member who gives notice of withdrawal during a strike, or of not more than 100*l.* on a member who commits a "breach of any special agreement among the members to which he has subscribed." In the majority of associations, a certain period is required for notice of withdrawal, and payment is exacted for the amount due from the member up to the time of the expiration of such notice. With regard to the benefits afforded by these associations, when a strike or lock-out occurs, members are, generally speaking, entitled to compensation for their loss of profit and other expenses incidental to the cessation of work. The North Wales Coal Owners' Association provides legal assistance for its members. The rules which provide for the management and expenditure of the funds of the associations vary largely in point of detail. No regulations occur in the rules of the associations in Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire, South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire.

(d.) Dispute regulations.

(*d.*) No regulations are given with regard to trade disputes in the rules of the Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire and Leicestershire Colliery Owners' Association, the National Association of Colliery Managers, or the Coal Owners' Association in the Cannock Chase district and South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire. In other associations, when a dispute arises, a general meeting is summoned to consider the question. No lock-out in West Cumberland is allowed until it is sanctioned by a majority of "two-thirds of the whole voting power." When a general strike or lock-out takes place, each member pays his own expenses. When assistance is claimed by any member of the North Wales Coal Owners' Association, a committee is appointed to advise as to the terms on which it may be advisable to resume or discontinue work, and generally as to matters arising out of the strike. The Coal Owners' Associations in South and West Yorkshire have Joint Committees (see *infra*, page 79), with full power to settle any local dispute referred to their consideration by the parties concerned. There is, however, "no expressly recognised system" in the latter district, and Joint Committees are usually appointed to deal with each dispute as it arises [1].

[1] Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 370–81.

[§ 79 (d.)] (*e.*) The objects of these trade associations may be grouped broadly under four heads: legislation; trade insurance and protection; the regulation of wages and the conditions of employment; and other objects, such as the protection of the general interests of members, the collection of information with respect to the state of trade, and the regulation of trade disputes. Thus, the Colliery Owners' Association in Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire and Leicestershire, in conjunction with the Mining Association of Great Britain, and the Coal Owners' Association in South Lancashire and Cheshire take action with a view to promoting legislation in connection with coal mining. The National Association of Colliery Managers desires "to petition Parliament for the improvement of law and administration connected therewith." Certain of the associations aim at affording protection to their members against the action of trade unions and other combinations of workmen, and at protecting the associated firms against losses by strikes. These associations include those in North Wales, West and South Yorkshire. On the other hand, in the Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire and Leicestershire Colliery Owners' Associations, discussion on questions affecting prices, wages, and the social condition of the workpeople is admitted. "United action" is not, however, compulsory, and the funds will not be appropriated to resist strikes. According to the rules of the National Association of Colliery Managers, no pecuniary support may be given to any regulation which, if an object of the association, would make it of the nature of a trade union. The desire to regulate wages and other conditions of employment appears to form one of the main objects of these associations. The North Lancashire branch of the South Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Owners' Association, the North Wales Colliery Owners' Association, and certain districts in which wages are regulated by a Joint Committee or Wages Board (South Yorkshire, South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire), do not, however, deal with questions of this nature. The Owners' Association in North Wales, while allowing the propriety of altering the rates of wages to be discussed from time to time, forbids any action in relation to the selling price of coal or other produce. The regulation of questions in dispute between members and their workpeople forms an object of the North Wales Coal Owners' Association. It also desires to adopt all legal measures necessary to protect employers in relation to workmen, whether by agreement, arbitration, litigation, or otherwise. It does not, however, interfere in disputes between individual members and their workmen of a merely personal or local nature. In many cases, as in North Wales, West Cumberland, and the National Association of Colliery Managers, the associations serve as a means of circulating information with respect to the state of trade, and as a medium of communication between the employers engaged therein. The National Association of Colliery Managers also desires "to improve the social, scientific, and intellectual position" of its members, "and to protect their character, status, and interests generally."

(e.) Objects.

Organisations of Employed.*

80. The details given in the evidence in connection with mines and quarries, and in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued to Associations of Employés with regard to the extent of organisation in the districts under consideration have been tabulated (see *infra*, p. 79). In North Staffordshire and the Pelsall district more than 80 per cent. of the miners belong to the respective associations. The Amalgamated Miners' Association, Staffordshire, includes more than 70 per cent. of the total number of miners employed in the district, nearly 60 per cent. of the total number of miners belong to the Amalgamated Society in Staffordshire [1].

(a.) Constitution and Government.

(*a.*) The form of government of the societies [2] varies chiefly in detail. The "supreme government," generally speaking, is vested in a Council composed of delegates from each financial branch of the society. There are also Executive, District, branch, and lodge Committees. The Executive and District Committees are subject to the control of the Council. They decide "grievances which require immediate attention," or cases which arise between the Council meetings. In some cases, however, they may not sanction the occurrence of a strike or grant a large vote of money. The government of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain is vested in a "Committee of

* The area covered by the Miners' Federation of Great Britain includes Lancashire, Cheshire, Yorkshire, Cumberland, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, the Forest of Dean, North Wales, Somerset, Stirling, and Monmouth. Durham and Northumberland have joined recently, though "by joining the Federation they did not abrogate their existing rules." The total number of miners in unions included in the Federation (including Northumberland and Durham) is about 250,000, or, excluding these counties, about 190,000.—"The Labour Gazette," July 18th.

[1] Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 38–9. [2] Tabulated Rules, Nos. 76, 81–8.

[§ 80 (a.)]

Management." The officers and Committee of this association are elected at an annual conference. The chief officers of these societies are the president, vice-president, secretary, assistant secretary, treasurer, trustees, and auditors. There are generally two auditors, and three to five trustees. All officers, as a rule, receive some payment for their services. The amount of their salaries is sometimes left to the Executive Council or to the annual conference of the association. A clause sometimes occurs to the effect that any officer may be removed by the vote of a special general meeting. Council meetings are held either monthly, quarterly, or when required. Special meetings in Somersetshire and Nottinghamshire may be summoned either by the president, agent and general secretary, or by the secretary, with the agent. Meetings of the District or Executive Committee, generally speaking, are held "when required." According to the rules of the Skelmersdale District Miners' Association, special meetings may be called by the secretary. The branch Committees meet at least once a month. In the North Stafford Miners' Federation, special meetings may be convened "by the president, with the approval of the secretary." The lodge Committees meet "as often as required." The officers attend the general meetings, but in some societies, with the exception of the president, who has usually a casting vote, they have no voting power. Delegates frequently have an "accumulative" vote, *i.e.*, a vote for a certain number of members, or fractional part thereof. Thus, the delegates from each lodge or pit belonging to the Somersetshire Miners' Association have "one vote for every 25 members, or fractional part thereof." In many societies members may appeal against the decision of the branch officials to a general meeting of the branch, and from that to the Council or district Committee. Generally speaking, the rules may be altered by a General Council meeting, summoned for that purpose. The sanction of the majority of the branches is also required by the rules of the Nottinghamshire and South Derbyshire Miners' Associations. The rules of the North Staffordshire Miners' Federation may be altered by a registered vote by ballot of the whole society.

(b.) Income and expenditure.

(*b.*) The entrance fees vary considerably in the different associations. The amount is sometimes fixed by the Council. The conditions of re-entrance are generally the same as those of entrance. Sometimes it is expressly stated that members excluded for arrears may re-enter after six months on paying the entrance fee. According to the rules of the North Staffordshire Miners' Federation, any suspended branch may join in less than six months, provided that payment is made of arrears. "Any person coming from another district where a miners' union exists, of which he was a financial member," is admitted to the Skelmersdale District Miners' Association, "provided that "the other district admits members of the latter asso- "ciation on similar terms." Contributions vary in amount. They are paid weekly, fortnightly, monthly, or, in the Miners' Federation of Great Britain, quarterly. When the funds of the societies are inadequate to meet the claims of members, extra levies may be raised, or benefits reduced. Members are suspended from benefits when their arrears reach an amount which varies in the different societies. A fine of 3*d.* is imposed in the Pelsall District Miners' Association and the West Bromwich &c., Amalgamated Association of Miners, if all arrears are not paid up quarterly. Members in arrears beyond a certain amount are, in some cases, excluded from the society. Dispute, funeral, accident, and sick benefits are granted by the various associations.* With regard to the funds of the societies, the Trade Union Acts of 1871 and 1876 contain few restrictions in connection with the management thereof (96). A provision for the investment of the funds must be contained in the rules, and also for the appointment and removal of a trustee or trustees, and a treasurer. The real or personal estate of any trade union is vested in the trustees of that union. The real or personal estate of any branch is vested in the trustees of such branch, or in the trustees of the union, if the rules so provide. On the death or removal of trustees, the property shall vest in the succeeding trustees, without any conveyance or assignment whatever. Stocks and securities in the public funds of Great Britain and Ireland shall, however, be transferred into the names of such new trustees. Any trade union may purchase or take upon lease, in the names of the trustees, any land not exceeding one acre, and may sell, exchange, mortgage, or let the same. The rules of the trade unions under consideration generally provide that the funds shall be invested, deposited in a bank, or withdrawn by the trustees. In the Skelmersdale District Miners' Association, the trustees act according to the directions of the Council, with the sanction of the lodges. The North Staffordshire Miners' Federation forbids the investment of any portion of the funds "in any co-operative company or limited company, or building of any kind, or any speculative system whatever."

[§ 80 (b.)]

(c.) Dispute Regulations.

(*c.*) Generally speaking, when a dispute arises, the member concerned must inform the branch Committee. A special meeting must be summoned to consider the matter, and an endeavour made to effect an amicable settlement. In South Derbyshire, North Staffordshire, and the West Bromwich district, if necessary, the general secretary is informed of the dispute. The facts are thoroughly examined by the Council or Executive Committee, and laid before the other branches. As a rule, strikes may not be undertaken, nor may individual members leave their employment without the sanction of the executive. The consent of a majority of all the members of the association is, generally speaking, also necessary before a strike may take place.* It is further provided in the rules of the Nottinghamshire and South Derbyshire Associations that in any colliery where unionists are in the minority, no strike may be sanctioned without the consent of the non-unionists. The Miners' Federation of Great Britain grants support only if 15 per cent. of the county federation or district concerned are on strike. The Somersetshire Miners' Association requires that the vote by ballot shall be taken during a dispute whenever a concession is made on either side. The men on strike in the Skelmersdale District are allowed to make an agreement with their employers, although the control of the dispute is vested in the society.

(d.) Other regulations.

(*d.*) Sub-contracts are forbidden by the Forest of Dean District Labour Association. The Somersetshire Miners' Association states that it desires "to prevent undue advantage from employers or employed," and will give no support to any member who violates the law. According to the rules of the Nottinghamshire and South Derbyshire Miners' Associations, a fine is imposed on any member who boasts of his independence towards his employer on account of his membership of the association to which he belongs. The Forest of Dean District Labour Association, the West Bromwich, &c., Amalgamated Association of Miners, the Pelsall District Miners' Association recognize no business done on Sunday, and pay no benefits for accidents which may occur in the course of Sunday labour.

(e.) Objects.

(*e.*) The objects of these associations are various. With the exception of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain and the West Bromwich, &c., Amalgamated Association of Miners, all the societies desire to prevent illegal stoppages. to secure the wages contracted for, and the true weight of materials. Some aim at protecting their members from injustice on the part of the employer and procuring compensation for accidents. The North Stafford Miners' Federation desires to raise wages as far as the state of the market will allow. The regulation of the hours of labour occurs among the objects of many of the societies. An eight hours' day is advocated by the Miners' Federation of Great Britain. The Somersetshire Miners' Association aims at obtaining an eight hours' day for boys. The associations are, to a slight extent, of the nature of friendly societies; as such, they further the collection of benefit funds. The North Stafford Miners' Federation desires to regulate the relations between employers and employed. Arbitration and conciliation for the settlement of disputes occurs among the objects of the Forest of Dean District Labour Association, and the Pelsall District Miners' Association. Most of the unions also desire to promote various objects of a more general character, such as the moral, material and social advancement of members, and the protection of the general interests of trade. The North Stafford Miners' Federation desires "to promote steadier habits among workmen." The associations further desire to obtain laws for the protection of labour, and for the better management of mines and cokeyards. All the societies, with the exception of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain, state as one of their objects that aid shall be given to other associations with similar objects.†

* For details of benefits, see *infra*, "Table of Benefits," page 80.
(1) Memorandum on Associations of Employed.

* A majority of *two-thirds* is necessary in the Forest of Dean District Labour Association, the Somersetshire Miners' Association, and the Pelsall District Miners' Association.

† In a letter dated 29th April 1891, Mr. S. Woods, President of the Lancashire Miners' Federation, offered to attend and give evidence before the

80 (e).] [§ 80 (e).]

Reference.	Employers' Association.	Membership.	Number of Men Employed in Associated Collieries.	Total Output per Annum of Associated Collieries.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 370.	Mining Association of Great Britain (Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire, West Yorkshire, South Yorkshire, Cannock Chase, Tamworth District).*	121 colliery owners	115,977	—
Digest, Vol. I., p. 31	Tamworth Coal Owners' Association.	6 firms, owning 10 collieries.	2,124	—
Digest, Vol. I., p. 32, Answers &c., p. 378.	Cannock Chase Coal Owners' Association.	8 firms - - -	8,000 † (7,957)	2½ million tons out of total output in district of 3 millions.
Digest, Vol. I., p. 36, Answers &c., p. 381.	South Yorkshire Coal Owners' Association.	25 firms - - -	Two-thirds of total number of colliers in district (*i.e.*, more than 19,000).	—
Answers &c., p. 380 -	West Yorkshire Coal Owners' Association.	30 firms - - -	18,000 to 20,000.	—
Digest, Vol. I., p. 34, Answers &c., p. 374.	National Association of Colliery Managers.	600 out of 2,000 -	—	—
—	South Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Association.	—	—	—
Answers &c., pp. 371–3	„ (North and West Lancashire)	66 companies, firms, or individual colliery proprietors.	—	"Probably more than three-quarters of the total output of the district."
Answers &c., p. 374 -	„ (Ashton-under-Lyne) - -	8	About 5,000 - -	—
Digest, Vol. II., p. 7, Answers &c., p. 379.	South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire Masters' Association.	31 colliery proprietors.	Between 8,000 and 9,000 out of 12,000.	—

Reference.	Employés' Association.	Number of Unionists.	Total Number Employed in District.	Percentage of Unionists in various Districts.
Answers &c., p. 38 -	North Staffordshire Amalgamated Association of Miners.	1,000	About 1,200	83 per cent.
„ p. 39 -	Amalgamated Miners' Association, Staffordshire.	2,700	3,500	77 per cent.
„ p. 39 -	Amalgamated Society of Staffordshire Miners.	2,000	3,500	57 per cent.
„ p. 39 -	Pelsall District Miners' Association.	4,700	5,000	94 per cent.

* *N.B.*—The Mining Association of Great Britain embraces many other districts beside those mentioned, and includes practically the whole country. The above were the only districts mentioned in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
† The exact number was given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission.

oint Boards.

81. Joint Committees, equally representative of employers and employed, have been established in the mining industry in South Yorkshire, South Staffordshire, and East Worcestershire. Joint Committees are usually appointed in West Yorkshire to deal with each dispute as it arises, but there is "no expressly recognised system." In South Lancashire and Cheshire, Derbyshire, and Leicestershire, the Tamworth and Cannock Chase districts, general questions are settled by negociation or conference between associated employers and employed, and local matters by individual mine owners and their men. No definite joint organisations have been formed (1).

(*a.*) A sliding scale for the regulation of wages was adopted by the coal and ironstone miners in South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire in 1874, and underwent several modifications during the next few years. In 1883, the sliding scale was abolished and a Wages Board adopted with a president to act as umpire. This was abolished in 1884. In 1888, the Wages Board was re-established, but without a president, and in connection with a sliding scale. In this form it still continues to exist. A certain section of the men employed in the district are members of the Miners' National Federation. These objected to the formation, apart from that Federation, of the Miners' Union, which is represented by the operative members of the Wages Board. This section has been obliged to give in, but it holds itself free at any time to act independently (1). The Wages Board consists of 12 representatives of employers and employed chosen by their respective associations. The chairman is appointed by the employers' section from their own body, and the vice-chairman by the employed from their body. Two secretaries are also chosen by employers and employed respectively. These, together with the members of each body, form a sub-committee "to deal with matters of minor importance." Joint meetings of the Board are called subject to seven clear days' notice (2).

(*b.*) Encouragement is given to local settlement by the boards in South Yorkshire, South Staffordshire, and East Worcestershire. It was stated that the existing relations between employers and employed in the latter district are, in every respect, satisfactory. The Committee in South Yorkshire has been very successful and its decisions have always been accepted (3). *(b.) Local settlement*

Commission on behalf of the Lancashire miners. Later, however (11th and 16th June 1891), Mr. Woods declined to appear, in accordance with a resolution passed by the Miners' Federation of Great Britain (29th May 1891) to the effect that "no part of the above organization should either give evidence or information or in any way facilitate the work of the Commission." Mr. Pickard (President of Miners' Federation) and Mr. Ashton (Secretary of Miners' Federation) also declined to give evidence (21st July and 24th June) in accordance with the above resolution.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31, 32, 34.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 8, 95. (2) Rules of the South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire Miners' Wages Board. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. Digest, Vol. I., p. 36.

TABLE showing the Entrance Fees, Subscriptions, and corresponding Benefits granted by Associations of Employés in Miners' Federation Districts and other Associations.

Entrance Fees, &c.	Miners' Federation of Great Britain. Tabulated Rules, No. 76.	Forest of Dean District Labour Association. No. 81.	Skelmersdale District Miners' Association, Lancashire. No. 82.	Nottinghamshire Miners' Association. No. 83.	Somersetshire Miners' Association. No. 84.	South Derbyshire Amalgamated Miners' Association. No. 85.	North Stafford Miners' Federation. No. 86.	West Bromwich, &c., Amalgamated Association of Miners. No. 87.	Pelsall District Miners' Association, Stafford-shire. No. 88.
Entrance Fee - -	£.1 for every 1,000 members or fractional part thereof.	£.1, or less, for each branch, as fixed by the Council.	Fixed from time to time by the Council.	1*s.* 6*d.* for full, 9*d.* for half-members.	1*s.* for full, 6*d.* for half-members.	1*s.* for full members -	5*s.* - - - - -	Fixed by Council - - -	1*s.*, or such other sum as the Council may determine.
Contributions - -	1*d.* per member quarterly.	1*s.* 1*d.* per month, or as determined by the Council from time to time.	Full members, 6*d.*; half-members, 3*d.* a fortnight to the trade fund. Contribution to the funeral fund is optional; it is 1*s.* a quarter for full, 6*d.* a quarter for half-members.	Full members, 3*d.*, half-members, 1½*d.* a week.	Full members, 3*d.*; half-members, 1½*d.* a week.	Full members, 4*d.* a week	3*d.* a week - - -	9*d.* a week, or whatever sum may be fixed by the lodge.	Full members, 4*d.* a week for dispute and funeral benefit; 3*d.* for former alone.

Benefit.	Miners' Federation of Great Britain. Tabulated Rules, No. 76.	Forest of Dean District Labour Association. No. 81.	Skelmersdale District Miners' Association, Lancashire. No. 82.	Nottinghamshire Miners' Association, No. 83.	Somersetshire Miners' Association. No. 84.	South Derbyshire Amalgamated Miners' Association. No. 85.	North Stafford Miners' Federation. No. 86.	West Bromwich, &c., Amalgamated Association of Miners. No. 87.	Pelsall District Miners' Association, Staffordshire. No. 88.
Dispute - - -	Members who have been out of work nine clear days from the beginning of an authorised dispute are entitled to support.	The Council may make weekly payments to men on strike or lock-out, and may provide legal assistance.	10*s.* a week to *full members*, and 1*s.* a week for each child under 12; 5*s.* a week to *half-members*. "*Victimised*" *members* are supported by the Association.	*Full members*, 8*s.* a week for four weeks, and 1*s.* a week for each child under 13; *half-members* 5*s.* a week for four weeks. "*Victimised*" *members: full members*, 10*s.* a week for four weeks, and 1*s.* a week for each child; *half-members*, 5*s.* a week. *Note.*—Further benefit may be granted by the Council or District Committee.	The Council may make weekly payments to men on strike or lock-out or for their defence in legal proceedings. "*Victimised*" *members* are also entitled to support.	10*s.* a week. "*Victimised*" *members* receive 10*s.* a week for one month or longer at the discretion of the Council or Executive Committee.	10*s.* a week - - -	10*s.* a week. Legal assistance is also provided.	The Council may make weekly payments to men on strike or lock-out or for providing legal assistance.
Funeral - - -	- - - - -	Death of Member, 4*l.*; death of wife, 3*l.*; death of child under 14, 1*l.*	Death of member or his wife, 8*l.*	- - - - -	Death of member, wife, or child aged from one month to 14 years, 1*l.*	Death of member, 5*l.*; death of wife, 3*l.* 10*s.*; death of child under 10, 1*l.* 10*s.*	- - - -	Death of member, 5*l.*; death of wife or single member's widowed mother, 3*l.* 10*s.*; Death of child, 1*l.* 10*s.* A member's widow or a single member's widowed mother receives 6*s.* 6*d.* a week for for nine months. On the death of a widower, 6*s.* 6*d.* a week for 39 weeks is paid for the support of each child under 13.	Death of member, 5*l.*; death of wife or one parent of a single member, 3*l.* 10*s.*; death of child under 16, 1*l.* 10*s.*
Accident - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	Legal assistance to obtain compensation from employers is provided by the society.	Legal assistance to obtain compensation from employers is provided by the society.	- - - -	Legal assistance to obtain compensation from employers is provided by the society.	Legal assistance to obtain compensation is provided by the society.	—	—
Sick - - -	- - - - -	- - - - -	- - - -	- - - -	- - - -	- - - -	- - - -	7*s.* a week for 52 weeks, then 5*s.* a week.	—

[§ 82.] VII. CARRIES.

rganisa- ns of nployers.

rganisations employed.

(a.) Constitution and government.

(b.) Income and expenditure.

(c.) Dispute regulations.

82. Mention is made in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission of a Quarrymasters' Association in the Forest of Dean, Gloucestershire. It was stated that this association "met the miners' agent and a deputation of the men" to discuss any question in dispute. No other details were given concerning it. No reference is made to any associations dealing with labour questions among the quarry masters in other districts (1).

83. Oral and written evidence has been obtained from the organisations of employés National Union of Quarrymen and from the Quarrymen's Associations in the Rossendale district, Leicestershire, and North Wales (2). In the Rossendale district, about 30 per cent. (*i.e.* 300 out of 1,000); in Leicestershire, about 50 per cent. (*i.e.* 900 out of 1,800 to 2,000); and in North Wales about 48 per cent. (*i.e.* 5,800 out of 12,000) of the total number of quarrymen employed, are members of the respective associations (3). The National Union of Quarrymen was established in 1887, the Rossendale and District Quarrymen's Association in 1886.

(*a.*) The government of these associations is vested in a Committee of Management, a General or Central Council. The officers are a president or chairman, secretary and treasurer. The Quarrymen's Unions in North Wales and the district of Rossendale have also a vice-president or vice-chairman, and the latter association has a minute secretary. There are also auditors and trustees. Each lodge belonging to the North Wales Quarrymen's Union has a local Committee and officers. The National Union of Quarrymen has special branch Committees and officers. Generally speaking, ordinary meetings of the associations are held annually, special meetings are summoned by the Council or at the demand of one-tenth of the members. Branch or lodge meetings are held either monthly or quarterly. The chairman has a casting vote in the Rossendale and District Quarrymen's Association. Appeal may be made from any decision given by the lodge or branch to the Executive or Central Council, and finally, in the North Wales Quarrymen's Union, to a general conference. No change can be made in the rules without the consent of a majority of members at a special meeting.

(*b.*) The entrance fee is 6*d.* In order to share in the benefits, other than dispute allowance, granted by the North Wales Quarrymen's Union, the fee is 1*s.* Members who re-enter the associations after having been excluded from arrears, generally speaking, are not entitled to benefits until after a certain period has elapsed. Subscriptions, for trade protection only, vary from 1½*d.* to 3*d.* per week. Further contributions of 6*d.* every four weeks, with 6*d.* every six months, for accident, sick and funeral benefit; of the same sums for superannuation and funeral benefits; and for emigration benefit, 6*d.* every four weeks for each "draw," or share; may be paid in the North Wales Quarrymen's Union. (For details of benefits, see *infra*, page 82.) The regulations with regard to the investment of funds vary in the different associations.

(*c.*) The rules of the North Wales and Rossendale District Quarrymen's Association provide that when any dispute occurs an endeavour must be made to effect a settlement "by the members who work" in the quarry in question; by the lodge Committee or by a special lodge meeting. If necessary, reference is made to the Committee of Management or the Executive Council. No strike may take place in the former district, unless sanctioned "by a "two-thirds majority at a special lodge meeting, then "by the votes of the lodges, and finally by the Executive "Council, which may refuse to authorise it, if the state of "trade and other circumstances seem unfavourable." The majority of members at a special lodge meeting may decide any dispute, or appoint arbitrators to consult with the employers, arbitrators, or an umpire. The rules further provide that, in the event of a strike, the facts of the dispute shall be laid each week before the Committee of Management of the Rossendale Association. The regulation of any dispute in North Wales is vested in a strike Committee, which is under the control of the lodge and of the Executive Council. The National Union of Quarrymen grants no compensation to members who leave work without the sanction of the officers. Any member who accommodates the employer during a dispute, or otherwise works against the interests of this association, is fined 1*l.* for the first, and 2*l.* for the second, offence. [§ 83 (c.)]

(*d.*) The objects of these associations comprise "the "mutual benefit of members and the regulation of the re- "lations between employers and employed, by supporting "members in a strike or lock-out." They also include "the "protection of trade," and the promotion of the "general "interests," "trade rights and privileges" of members. The National Union of Quarrymen further desires to establish branches throughout the United Kingdom, to advance wages and establish a uniform rate throughout the union and to reduce the hours of labour. The promotion of the moral, social, educational and political welfare of its members is also included among the objects of this association. (*d.*) *Objects.*

(*e.*) Oral evidence was given with regard to the history of the Quarrymen's Union in North Wales. It was stated that in 1865 the men established a union in the Penrhyn quarries, with a membership of about 1,800. The proprietor threatened to close the quarry, and the men dissolved it under protest. In the year 1874, a similar attempt was made to start a union at the Dinorwic quarries. The proprietors met and passed a resolution calling upon every member of their body in North Wales to refuse to engage union men and to admit no strange workman without a written certificate from the manager or agent of the quarry where he had been previously employed. The men at the Glynrhonwy and Dinorwic quarries were subsequently locked out for refusing to give up the union. These "lock-outs," however, "collapsed" in the course of a few weeks, and a local committee was constituted in the Dinorwic quarry to hear the complaints before they were addressed to the management. It was further stated that about the same time, Lord Penrhyn threatened to close his quarries unless the union was dissolved. The only effect was, however, to increase its membership by 2,300 men. The Union then appointed a committee to formulate its demands, and the men ceased work. The strike lasted for 15 weeks. The men then returned to work as unionists, and obtained a concession to the effect that all complaints about letting should be referred first, to a committee appointed by the workmen and then, if considered by them to be reasonable, to the management. This "makeshift" arbitration board, composed of "experienced men," which existed under the title of the Quarry Committee from 1874 to 1880, was alleged to have met with great success while it lasted (1). Far fewer disturbances, it was stated, took place during its existence than formerly, and the workmen always rendered at least a temporary obedience to its decisions. It was, however, subsequently stated that the result of the existence of this Committee was so "intolerable" that it was abolished. It had practically handed over the management of the quarry to the union leaders, because it enabled them to "suppress the truth" in its passage and prevent non-union men from presenting their complaints (2). (*e.*) *History of Quarrymen's Union in North Wales.*

84. Since that time the relations between employers and employed were said to have improved. No official relations have, however, been established between the union and the employers. It was stated that repeated attempts had been made to persuade the proprietors of the quarries to meet the representatives of the men to discuss the advisability of the formation of a Joint Committee. With the exception of the smaller owners, it is alleged that they had invariably refused to do so. The employers stated that the men's union had "failed to secure the unanimous confidence, not only of the owners of slate quarries, but of the men themselves" (3). The employers in Leicestershire are "beginning to look more favourably" on the Quarrymen's Union, and were stated to be on "fairly good terms" with the officers (4). Relations between employers and employed:—North Wales. Leicestershire.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 202, 210, 346. (2) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 97–9. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 42.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 12. W. J. Williams, 7106. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 28. Vol. II., p. 14. E. A. Young, 16,807. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 28. Vol. II., pp 13, 14. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 82.

[§ 84.] [§ 84.]

Benefit.	Rossendale and District Quarrymen's Association. No. 97.	North Wales Quarrymen's Union. No. 98.	National Union of Quarrymen. No. 99.
Dispute	10*s.* a week. Officers or delegates receive an additional 4*s.* a week, provided that they have not used abusive language to their employers.	10*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 5*s.* „ „ 26 „ "Victimised" members receive double these amounts.	2*s.* a day. The branch Committee and the Central Council determine the amount of compensation given to "victimised" members.
Accident		5*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 4*s.* „ „ 13 „ 3*s.* „ „ 1 year. 2*s.* „ „ till recovery. The Society pays legal expenses not exceeding 5*l.* for obtaining compensation.	—
Emigration		Every three months, two-thirds of this fund is divided into shares of 5*l.* (or whatever sum the branch may determine). A member desiring to emigrate has as many "draws" for a share as he has subscribed for, but only one share benefit.	—
Funeral		Full members, 5*l.* Non-full members, 3*l.*	—
Sick		Same rate as Accident.	—
Superannuation		Persons 65 years of age entitled to this benefit: After 10 to 15 years' membership, 4*s.* a week. After 15 to 25 years' membership, 5*s.* a week. After 25 to 40 years' membership, 6*s.* a week. After 40 years' or more, 7*s.* a week.	—

2. CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION.

85. Questions in dispute between employers and employed are settled, either before or after a strike or lock-out, by conciliation, arbitration, or mediation. Conciliation includes cases in which both parties to the dispute meet, either personally or by representatives, to confer as to the questions at issue, and, if possible, to make a settlement. Arbitration includes cases in which the whole or part of the questions at issue are referred to a third party, whether individual or corporate, before whom the disputants state their case. Mediation includes cases in which a third party intervenes of his own initiative with the object of inducing the disputants to bring about a settlement.

Conciliation.

86. It has been already seen that some system of conciliation, either by means of joint boards or informal conferences and negociations, exists in the greater number of districts engaged in the mining industry. It has also been seen in particular that the method of joint committees, which are in some cases supplemented by general conferences between associated employers and employed, has proved very successful, especially where care is taken to prevent any accumulation of work, and to provide, in the case of minor disputes, either for local settlement or for reference to local arbitration.

Arbitration.

87. The failure of conciliation to affect a settlement in the Silksworth strikes, 1890–91, and the general strike in Durham in 1892 (see *infra*, page 84) point, even in this highly organised industry, to the need of some final authority to which voluntary reference can, if necessary, be made. Nevertheless, both mine-owners and miners are, generally speaking, opposed to arbitration, except as a convenient means of settlement of local questions.

(*a.*) *Arguments against Arbitration.*

(*a.*) Arbitration, it was complained, is a "slow" and "costly" process. The difficulty of obtaining an umpire at once acceptable both to employers and employed is great, and the men allege that "the employers will not take a party that (they) recommend from a labouring point of view, and sometimes (they) object very strenuously to a man the employers recommend, and so (they) hit upon a medium course . . . . and get a man who knows nothing about it (1). It was further stated, that the arbitrators, as a rule, "split the difference," irrespective of the merits of the case, and for this reason the employers fail to see any finality in the decision. The employers also allege that the existence of a permanent umpire would tend towards the increase of disputes, because the men would feel confident of gaining some advantage in every contest (1). The employers in Cleveland object to arbitration "when large principles are involved." With regard to the adoption of this method in wage questions, the Northumberland coal owner stated that "the arbitrator might call upon them to pay that which the owners themselves know it is quite impossible for them to pay; and they declined to be put in that position . . . . When it is a question between closing the pits and a reduction in wages, the only thing is for the owners to get a reduction (2). On the whole, the plan of referring questions in dispute to individual arbitrators, elected at the time of the dispute, and holding office only until a settlement has been effected, as in the mining industry, has not proved successful. The awards have, generally speaking, been of the nature of a compromise, and unfavourable to the employed. In a very few cases the decisions when given have been repudiated, and in others they have given dissatisfaction, although they were loyally accepted for a certain period. Thus a member of the Monmouthshire and South Wales Coal Owners' Association stated that, in his experience, arbitration had been a total failure (3). Again, in 1887, a general strike took place in Fife and Clackmannan. The matter in dispute was referred to the lord lieutenant of the county, but without any good result. No other resort, it was stated, had been made to arbitration in consequence (4). In Durham, in 1877, the award of the arbitrator was reversed by "mutual consent"; and in 1882, the arbitrator specified a day's wage, but made no reference to the amount of a day's work. This award was therefore stated to have been the cause of many subsequent difficulties (5).* Particular dissatisfaction was said to have been felt with an award given on one occasion by Sir Fitz-James Stephen. The men then thought that "the evidence would have warranted him"

(1) Strong, 1229.

* *N.B.*—The award of 1882 worked satisfactorily, it has been stated, up to 1887, when the men asked for a basis of work and wage, and, after prolonged negotiation, the question was referred to arbitration.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 13, 60, 61. Vol. II., pp. 19, 20. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 61, 64; Bell, 1395; Weeks, 2923, 2926*a*. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 20. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 27. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 11; E. Foster, 2766.

87 (a.)] in not making the reduction demanded by the owners, but "in summing up he said there were two evils, and "he thought he would choose the lesser one by making a "reduction." It was alleged that "that one settlement did more harm to the arbitration question" in the district than "anything else" (1). In support of the statement that the awards of individual arbitrators had been unfavourable to the employed, the following facts were cited. Twenty-two arbitrations had taken place on general county questions in connection with the Durham Coal Owners' Association, between the years 1874 and 1890 (2). Three of these were in consequence of disputes over the basis of work and wages. In two cases only out of the remaining 19, the decisions were in favour of the men. In 14 instances the owners sought reductions in wages, and their demands were either conceded in full or in part. The owners on another occasion asked for an extension of the hours of work, and the demand was granted. In three cases the men requested an alteration in hours, but their demands were conceded in full on only one of these occasions. Again, in Cleveland, four "district arbitrations" (3) took place between the years 1874 and 1879. Three occurred in connection with applications on the part of the employers for reductions in wages, and resulted in a compromise. The men on one occasion applied for an advance, and their demand was not conceded.

Arguments for arbitration.

(*b.*) On the other hand, resort to arbitration was, generally speaking, regarded as preferable to a cessation of labour, and evidence was given in certain districts to the effect that it is one of the best means of avoiding strikes (4). Thus unionists and non-unionists in North Wales are unanimously in favour of arbitration (5). The associated employers in Lanarkshire and Fife and Kinross also are in favour of arbitration as a means of settling and avoiding trade disputes (6). In South Wales the employés state that the absence of an umpire on the sliding scale committee is the main cause of any hostility which may exist towards the sliding scale" (7).

Methods of arbitration: (a.) Compulsory enforcement of awards.

88. (*a.*) Although in the majority of cases the agreements arrived at by arbitration or conciliation have been loyally accepted, it was acknowledged that in certain cases some means of compulsion was necessary. Excluding any proposals of State interference, the suggestions given in this connection include those of financial compensation payable to the injured association by the defaulting side, and those of expulsion of the defaulters from work by the association of which they are members. It was suggested that a money deposit in the hands of some independent person, to be forfeited by the defaulting side, would tend to induce both employers and employed to stand to their agreement. In Cleveland a "financial "liability upon both parties," not enforceable by law, was proposed, "carrying with it an obligation to pay money "for the breach of a bargain of that kind" (8). It was also suggested by a witness from North Wales that repudiation of awards could be met by the union telling "all those that would submit to the decision to go to "work, and let the others take their chance." Thus, according to the rules of the Miners' Association in Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly, unless the men accept an award, the colliery is thrown open to other workmen (9).

(b.) State arbitration.

(*b.*) State interference, in the opinion of the witnesses from Durham, Cleveland, and South Yorkshire, is undesirable. It is believed that if the men accepted the principle of compensation, "whether it was legally "binding or not, they would act upon it." Moreover, [§ 88 (b.)] arbitration, it was stated, must be voluntary in order to be effective. "Both parties must concur in arbitration "to begin with; both must also concur in the selection of "an umpire, and it is the fact that he is satisfactory to "both parties, and beyond suspicion, that makes both "parties concur in the award when given." These witnesses were of opinion that a State board would have no greater moral influence than a voluntary local board. It would know less of the actual circumstances of the case, and would, therefore, be less likely to arrive at a decision (1). Proposals which involved State interference were, however, made by a certain number of witnesses. The formation of a State board of arbitration, or boards of arbitration with compulsory powers, was desired by the employers in Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Leicestershire, and the Manchester district of South Lancashire and Cheshire, and by the employed in Derbyshire and Leicestershire, North Wales, Ayrshire, and the Mid and West Lothians (2). Witnesses from North Wales, Neath, Swansea and Llanelly, and Ayrshire proposed that in certain cases resort to arbitration should be made compulsory. Thus, the Ayrshire Miners' Union recommended that if one of the parties to a dispute desires the matter to be referred to arbitration the other must either concur or be compelled by law to obey the decision when given. The employed in Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly desired that where a dispute affects more than 20 per cent. of the men employed in any colliery, if the parties concerned fail to settle the dispute themselves, resort to arbitration should be made compulsory (3). Among the advocates of a State arbitrutor or arbitrators, a witness from North Wales proposed that a specified number of boards should be established throughout the country, consisting of two judges or arbitrators appointed by Government from the representatives of employers and employed respectively. The umpire, when required, should be either the judge of the county court in the district in which the dispute occurred, any other county court judge, or any judge of the High Court selected by the Home Secretary. On the request of either party, this court should have power to investigate and decide any question in dispute, and its decisions might carry equal authority with judicial orders of court (4). The employers in Derbyshire and Leicestershire suggested that an umpire, with powers of compulsion, should be appointed by the Government. The employed proposed that a central board of arbitration, with compulsory powers, should be appointed in every district to deal with general questions. This board, they said, should consist of three persons, representing the Government, the employers, and employed, respectively, and should have power to call in an umpire if necessary (5).

Mediation.

89. Mediation, or the intervention of a third party on his own initiative, has proved successful in inducing the disputants to bring about a settlement of those strikes which had proved incapable of yielding to the methods of conciliation or arbitration. The chief instances of the use of this method of settlement in the industries under consideration occur, as before mentioned, in the Silksworth strike in Durham in 1890–91, and the general strike which took place in that district in 1892. In the former case, the Mayor of Sunderland acted as mediator, and in the latter, the Bishop of Durham. Mediation has in these cases proved to be of value when matters had come to a deadlock, in spite of elaborate provision for the settlement of disputes by other means.

C. TRADE DISPUTES.

1. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

General relations between Employers and Employed.

90. "Where you have got two organisations face to face, "and such powerful ones, the tendency is, when a strike "does occur, to make it more severe, because both parties "are better prepared with the necessary munitions of war, "and able to fight more fiercely. But it undoubtedly has "this tendency, that neither side is willing to enter into a "strike if it can possibly be avoided" (10). The Miners' Associations are stated to have been formed with the object of preventing strikes, and it is alleged in the evidence that the tendency to dispute has diminished, and that strikes have been, on the whole, less frequent since the formation of the unions. Several have, however, lasted for periods varying from two to four months, during which time the men were, generally speaking, supported by their association. In a few cases, proposals of arbitration or negociation offered by one party in the dispute were refused by the other, but conferences, attempts at mediation or arbitration have taken place before, or during the course of, the greater number of strikes that have occurred (6).

1. General relations between Employer and Employed.

(a.) Causes of trade disputes.

(*a.*) It was stated that all the strikes in the Cannock Chase district have been either for an advance or against a reduction in wages. The petty strikes which have

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 61; Toyn. 911. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XVII. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 13, 14. (4) Digest, Vol., I. pp. 15, 28, 51, 67. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 28. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 25; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 163. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 23–6. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 10, 60-1, 67; Bell. 1405. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 23, Williams, 7120. (10) Rhodes, 8038-9.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 10, 13, 36: Rhodes, 7864; F. Stobart, 2081. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 164, 425; Digest, Vol. I., pp. 34–5, 65; Vol. II., p. 28. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 13, 28; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 162. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 12, 13. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 34–5. (6) Abstracts on "Strikes and Lock-outs," Digest, Vols. I., II.

[§ 90 (a.)] taken place within the last two years in the district of the Neath, Swansea, and Llanelly Miners' Association have also been connected with wage questions. No general strike has occurred in South Wales for 17 years. The local disputes in the district turn chiefly upon the interpretation of sliding scale agreements, and their number has increased in late years. No general strike has occurred in Lancashire since 1881, but small disputes are constantly going on, principally concerned with the rate of wages. "Small strikes have taken place in Derbyshire and Not-"tinghamshire, lasting for a few days." They were stated to be generally caused by a demand for an advance in wages. The strikes which have taken place during the last ten years in connection with the South Yorkshire Coal Owners' Association, and all the strikes in the South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire district have been for an advance or against a reduction in wages (1). In all, by far the greater number of strikes to which reference was made in the oral and written evidence arose out of disputes in connection with wages. Of these, the majority were in consequence of a demand for an advance on the part of the employed (2). It may be noted that the question of wages was the sole cause of all the important general strikes mentioned in the oral evidence, with the exception of the strike in year 1881 in the Midland, Lancashire, and Yorkshire. The men in this case demanded an advance in and weekly payment of wages, and also requested that they should not be required to contract out of the Employers' Liability Act. It was stated, however, that the strike had very little to do with the Act, which was used merely as a pretext to cover other grievances. The men struck in many collieries where membership of the fund was in no way compulsory (3). A very few of the strikes mentioned, nine in all, arose in connection with the hours of labour and similar questions. These occurred in Durham, Ayrshire, the Mid and West Lothians (4). Reference was made to four local strikes against non-union labour. Three of these occurred in Durham and one in Lanarkshire. Similar difficulties were stated still to exist in the former district (5).

2. SPECIAL STRIKES.

2. Special strikes. Sources of information.

91. It has not proved possible to obtain from the evidence any complete account of the development, organisation, and conduct of the greater number of important general and local strikes which have occurred in recent years in mines and quarries. A detailed account of the general strike in Durham in 1892 has, however, been drawn up by the Durham Coal Owners' Association and the Mining Federation Board, and forwarded to the Commission. The details relating to the causes and conduct of the Silksworth strike in Durham, 1890-91, were handed in by a representative of the Durham Coal Owners' Association. Evidence was given orally concerning the causes and conduct of this latter strike, the general strike in Northumberland in 1887, the strikes in Lanarkshire in 1887 and 1889, and others.

Strikes in more highly organised districts—general strikes. Northumberland, 1887.

92. A general strike, which lasted four months, took place in the Associated Collieries, Northumberland, in 1887. Trade had been extremely bad for some two or three years, prices were very low, and the pits were working very short time, consequently the owners gave notice to terminate the sliding scale and demanded a reduction of 15 per cent. in the steam coal collieries, and 10 per cent. in the soft coal collieries. Several conferences took place between the owners and the men's representatives, and their original demand of 15 per cent. was reduced to 12½ per cent. before the strike commenced, but that was not accepted. "After the strike had commenced and been "in operation about a fortnight, through the mediation "of Mr. Morley, the owners were prepared to accept "a 10 per cent. reduction (6). That was submitted "to the workmen but was also refused, and no further "attempt was made for some time to settle the question." Notices were given and the work was terminated on the 27th of January, and was not resumed until the 27th of May, and the men were then obliged to accept the reduction asked for by the owners. During the course of the strike, the men "were told repeatedly by the coal "owners, by every one connected with the collieries, and "by the delegates also, the absolute state of affairs. "There never was a period when more publicity was "given to the facts of the case." "Everything was "done" by Mr. Burt and others, but the men would not believe their "own trusted leaders" (1). The general strike in Northumberland in 1887 cost the Miners' Association 39,000*l.* in strike pay, and the loss of wages, as estimated by the Miners' Association, amounted to about 180,000*l.* 11,719 unionists were affected by the strike, and about 2,500 non-unionists. A representative from the Northumberland Coal Owners' Association estimated the loss in wages to the work-people at 250,000*l.*, and the loss to owners in unproductive working at 55,00 0*l.* (2).

[§ 92.] 2. Special strikes.

Durham, 1892.

93. The general strike which occurred in Durham in 1892 lasted for a period of three months, in spite of frequent conferences between the employers and the Union. In April 1891, the Owners' Association gave notice of a reduction on the ground of falling prices, and offered at the same time to confer with the Executive of the men's Association on the subject. The latter replied to this claim with a counter-claim for an advance, and a conference was arranged to take place in November, when the owners' representatives presented a formal demand for a minimum reduction of 10 per cent. Negociations were, however, deferred at the request of the men till January 1892, when the Union rejected the owners' proposal for a reduction of 10 per cent., or to refer the matter to arbitration and also declined to make any alternative proposal. Another conference was, however, held in February, when the owners so far modified their demands as to declare themselves willing to accept either an immediate reduction of 7½ per cent., or an immediate reduction of 5 per cent., to be followed by a further reduction of the same amount on May 1st. The men, however, again refused to accept either proposal, and on February 27th, the owners served notices terminating the contracts of service to all classes of workmen, except enginemen and deputies and those whose services were considered essential to maintaining the mines in a condition of safety. Notices were then handed in by the remainder of the men, both parties refused to make further compromise, and work ceased on March 12th. On March 31st, the men's association asked the owners to allow work to be resumed, but they replied that some settlement of the wages question, either by agreement or arbitration, must first be arrived at, and intimated that any complete proposal of such a character the men might make would be immediately referred to the Wages Committee. At a meeting held on April 25th, the owners offered to terminate the dispute if the men would accept a 10 per cent. reduction on the rates paid at the time of the suspension of work, or, which came to the same thing, a reduction of 13½ per cent. from the percentage addition of 35 to the standard of 1879. The men's representatives had not then power to settle, but such power was given to them soon after, and on May 10th, they rejected these terms and made a counter proposal for a reduction of 7½ per cent. from the percentage addition of 35. On May 21st, they made a further concession by offering to submit to a 10 per cent. reduction on this percentage, but the owners refused to make any further compromise and rejected the subsequent proposal of the men to submit the matter to arbitration. During the course of the strike, letters were written by both parties to the Press urging the justice of their respective claims. On May 25th, the Bishop of Durham wrote to the rival associations offering his services as mediator, and suggesting that the settlement should be based on the acceptance by the men of a 10 per cent. reduction, and on the establishment of a Wages Board to deal with future alterations in the rates. These terms were accepted by both parties, by the employers "solely on "the ground of consideration for the impoverished con-"dition of the men and of the generally prevailing dis-"tress," and the dispute was practically at an end.

Local strikes. Silksworth Collieries, 1890-91.

94. With regard to the Silksworth strike in Durham (3), 1890-91, "some five or six years ago there was a strike, "and a number of the deputies left or were induced "to leave the miners' organisation," and it was agreed "that the deputies about whom the agitation arose should "have a free hand . . . . . and it should be left to "their own option whether they would be in the deputies' "organisation," the miners' organisation, or whether they would be in neither. "One reason why the men are so "very anxious the deputies should be in the Miners' "Association is that in the case of strikes these deputies "keep up the working of the pits"; if, therefore, they belonged to the Miners' Association "in case of a "strike they would be ordered out, and strikes would "become so expensive that owners dare not face them." On July 4th, the miners complained that the agreement of 1884 had been broken, that the managers had begun,

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 40, 44. Digest, Vol. II., p. 70. Corfield, 7677. (2) Abstracts on "Strikes and Lock-outs," Vols. I., II. Answers to Schedules of Questions addressed to (1) Associations of Employers and Employed; (2) Employers. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 41. Vol. II., p. 70. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 118, 303. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 41, Vol. II., p. 71. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 42.

(1) Lamb, 3147. (2) Young, 2109. Digest, Vol. I., p. 44. (3) Account of Silksworth strike, handed in by Mr. F. Stobart (1993).

[§ 94.] "in an underhand way first, but then openly, to use cer- "tain kinds of influence upon the men," and they gave notice that they would "not be content with anything "short of the deputies being compelled to join (their) "association." The coal owners, however, denied the justice of their complaint, the question was discussed by the Miners' Committee, and the representatives of the Coal Owners' Association, and the owners' representatives reported (July 26th) that "considering the "mutually admitted fact that there are about 14 of the "deputies now members of the Miner's Association," they were "of opinion that no undue influence to induce "deputies to leave the Miners' Association had been used "by the management." On October 7th and 8th, a large majority at the colliery voted in favour of a strike. Further meetings were held and correspondence took place between the Miners' and Owners' Associations, but on November 8th, notices were given in to the management of the colliery, and, on November 22nd, the men ceased work. It was reported, on November 25th, "that "an attack had been made upon the deputies and much "damage done to their houses, &c., and by threats of "further violence, the men had compelled all the deputies "to join the Miners' Union." The Federation Board, however, stated that they "knew nothing about" the exercise of any force, but a special sub-committee of the Owners' Committee, appointed to inquire into the particulars of the disturbance, ascertained that "undoubtedly great "violence had taken place" and "received statements "from a large number of deputies to the effect that they "had only joined the Miners' Association from fear of "violence." The Federation Board now offered that the men should resume work, stating that "the present dispute between the deputies and the workmen at" the colliery "had been settled amongst themselves." The Owners' Association replied, however, that they could not sanction any resumption of work until, in the first place, "an understanding had been come to between the "Federation Board and the Owners' Association, pro- "viding security against a recurrence of (their) course "of procedure and perfect freedom to the deputies to "abstain from joining the Miners' Association," pending the subsequent consideration of the dispute, and, in the second place, until "each Silksworth deputy (had been) "afforded an opportunity, under proper safeguards, of "freely declaring whether he wishes to remain for the "present in the Miners' Association or not." The men complained of this mode of procedure, and on December 13th, the Owners' Committee and the Durham Federation agreed therefore that work should be resumed on the following Wednesday, and a subsequent inquiry made into the cause of the dispute. On December 15th, in accordance with the agreement, the management sent for the men to prepare the pit for work, but all the members of the Miners' Union refused to come. On December 18th, the Executive Committee of the Miners' Association stated that since "the Federation "Board had failed to negotiate a settlement in the "Silksworth case," the question had been handed over to them. The Owners' Committee replied, however, that they would continne to carry out the agreement made with the Federation Board, and, on December 19th, as arranged, the Owners' representatives attended the colliery to investigate the dispute. No members of the Federation Board or the Miners' Association were present. The Owners' Committee investigated the matter, satisfied themselves as to the position of the deputies in the colliery, and stated that the colliery would be ready to begin work on December 22nd. The strike, however, continued, and the owners then gave notice that "should the workmen not resume work, it (would) "be necessary to take steps to recover possession of "their houses." Eviction orders were granted from time to time but, pending negotiations for a settlement, they were allowed to lapse. On February 2nd, a meeting took place between Lord Londonderry and the workmen, but with no result. On February 10th, the dates of the evictions were again temporarily postponed "on the "distinct understanding that the evictions (would) be "proceeded with" in the following week, "unless the "workmen (agreed) to resume work." On February 18th, the men rejected the owners' proposal to advise the deputies who joined the Miners' Association after the notices were handed in to pay up their arrears of subscriptions to the present date, on the understanding that they were subsequently at liberty to join or not. The evictions began on February 19th, and another conference took place between the Owners' Committee and the miners' representatives. On February 20th and 21st, the men at adjoining collieries struck in consequence of the evictions at Silksworth, but resumed work in a few days. At this period in the dispute, the Mayor of Sunderland offered his services as mediator, and correspondence took place. Finally, on March 20th, a meeting was held between the Owners' and Miners' Committees, at which the miners agreed to accept the offer made by the owners on February 18th. Work was resumed at Silksworth on March 31st, 1891. [§ 94.]

95. The organisation and conduct of these strikes, and the frequent conferences both before and during the course of the dispute between the associated employers and employed, form a striking contrast to the strikes which have taken place in Lanarkshire. A county strike throughout the whole of Lanarkshire took place in January 1887. The employers were asked through a circular for an advance of 6*d.* a day, and they refused. The men came out on strike, and after they had been idle for a month the Employers' Association invited delegates from the various districts to meeting conference. The advance was obtained, but "under such conditions that the men "had to go back and work for 11 and 12 days a fortnight. "They had not long resumed work when the over-pro- "duction of 11 and 12 days a fortnight brought down "prices and broke up the unions (1)." In 1889, a strike occurred in the same district for the abolition of a sliding scale. "The Lanarkshire associated employers intro- "duced a sliding scale as a settlement of the 1887 strike. "The men had nothing at all to do with the settlement "of the scale nor the drawing of it up, nor anything else "in connection with it." The circular demanding an advance was issued on the 28th October. No reply was received, and a few days after that letter, a strike took place. "There were no negotiations between the asso- "ciated employers and the associated men" during the strike, "the communications were simply between the "deputation of men employed at a particular colliery "and the owners or managers of that colliery." "After "being in the field about 10 days, the employers yielded "to the demand." Strikes in less highly organised districts:—Lanarkshire; 1887, 1889.

3. PICKETING AND INTIMIDATION.

96. With regard to the methods adopted by employers and employed in connection with labour disputes, "picketing" is only mentioned in connection with the strike at Vane's Hartley Colliery, which was worked by "blacklegs" for three years (2). "Black-listing" was, it was stated, specially used in South Wales and Monmouth in 1887, and at Nixon's Navigation Colliery in 1891. Some men who "were at home and had been, for weeks, prior "to the commencement of (this) strike, were refused "employment when they applied at other collieries, "simply because they were working at the particular "colliery before." (3) Riots occurred in the strike in the Blantyre collieries, Lanarkshire, but the strike had continued for six weeks before the riots began. It was stated (4) that "the direct cause "of the riots was simply this . . . . . a few "young men going up to Hamilton to attend a "miners' demonstration, and being on strike they had "had little breakfast, or perhaps none. A bakers' van "was standing in the road, and one or two of the young "fellows threw out a loaf or two to their companions. "The same was repeated at night, and before the next "morning the half of the Blantyre shops were looted, "and everything taken out of them and property "destroyed." The Secretary of the Miners' Union stated that he "did all (he) possibly could to prevent "the men looting shops. Over and over again . . . . "the officials stood between the miners and the public "property to prevent them taking any extreme measures." The employers and the Government of the country had been warned "at that time that the existing condi- "tions could not exist unless an effort was made to "reconcile the employers and employed." Methods adopted in connection with labour disputes.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 71. Smellie, 9858. (2) Wilson, 428–30. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 42. Evans, 5544. (4) Digest I., Vol. II., p. 71. Small, 10590–6.

APPENDIX.

Appendix on the Views of the Miners' Federation on the Subject of an Eight Hours' Day. (1)

The following statement of the views of the Miners' Federation on the question of the advisability of legal limitation of the hours of labour has been obtained chiefly from the reports in the current numbers of the "Labour Tribune" of speeches made during the year 1893 by officials and members of the Federation.

The attitude adopted towards the question is this: that the Eight Hours' Day is something which is in itself so desirable that the only question is how it may best be obtained. At the Miners' National Conference, held in Birmingham at the beginning of the year, the only reason urged in favour of an Eight Hours' Day by Mr. Cowey, was that "Eight Hours is long enough" and he then passed on at once to consider the advisability of legislation in the matter. "There did not appear to be "any difference of opinion as to Eight Hours being long "enough. They only differed about the method by "which it was to be obtained." A statement to this effect was made by Mr. Aspinwall on the same occasion. They thus appear to regard the whole question as one of principle, stating that "humanity" is "higher than "capital or economics." At the same time, they claim that the output will not be reduced by the change, that wages will not suffer any permanent reduction, that the "commercial stability of the country" will not be injured, and that "the ingenuity of man would "find a way out of the difficulty" of home competition.

The only question therefore that is fully dealt with by the Miners' Federation is whether the restriction can best be obtained by voluntary effort or by legislation. Mr. Pickard, M.P., in a speech made at the Miners' offices, Barnsley, claimed that "it would be found that "four-fifths (2) of the underground workers had posi-"tively declared in favour of the Eight Hours' Day by "legislation." Not one per cent., he asserted, of the men within the area of the federated districts opposed the Miners' Eight Hours' Bill (3). The federated districts, and those acting with them, had close upon 409,000 underground workers out of a total of 506,000, and the Federation had command of about 300,000 men. "Thus, it would be seen that rather less than 100,000 "remained for those who were supposed to be opposed "to the Bill." With regard to Durham and Northumberland, out of 94,000 underground workers in the district, 54,000 had not registered a vote against the Bill, and if these were claimed by the North "the Federa-"tion ought to be allowed to claim the votes of other "districts all along the line." "Then it would be "found," he added, "that four-fifths of the under-"ground workers had positively declared in favour of "the Eight Hours' Day by legislation." This widespread opinion in favour of legislation is based on the belief that the restriction must be established by legislation in order to be permanent. This argument was urged by Mr. Woods, M.P., in his speech in favour of the Miners' (Eight Hours') Bill in the House of Commons and by various speakers at the Miners' National Conference at Birmingham. "The inevitable law of neces-"sity," Mr. Cowey stated on this occasion, had driven him "to believe that organisation would fail to obtain "the desired end." "No greater effort," Mr. Abraham, M.P. stated, "short of leading the country into a general "strike, could have been made" by the Miners' Federation to obtain a reduction of hours by organised effort. But, "while their employers were prepared to consider "the question of wages, they declined upon any consi-"deration to entertain the reduction of hours." With regard to the effect of voluntary effort in this direction, in an article on the "Recent Conference at Birming-"ham," Mr. Abraham asserted that the general judgment of the debate which had taken place on the reduction in hours by means of trades unionism must be that the reduction of hours which followed the passing of the 1872 Act was very much more than a coincidence. Trade Unionism, he added, hardly deserves all the credit claimed for it in connection with that reform, especially if it be borne in mind that the boys in Northumberland over 16 years of age in 1879 "were allowed to barter "one hour of their work-day off for a small monetary "consideration, while those under that age in conse-"quence of the protection afforded by the Mines' Act "were prevented from so doing" (4).

It may be noted that the proposal of local option is regarded with disfavour. Mr. Woods, M.P., speaking at the Miners' National Conference, to which previous reference has been made, claims that "such a proposi-"tion was ridiculous and impracticable," and on the same occasion Mr. Cowey (Yorkshire) stated that "to "pass such an Act would mean that men would not be "employed unless they contracted themselves out of the "Act."

(1) The "Labour Tribune," Jan. 14th, Jan. 28th, March 11th, March 25th, April 29th, May 6th, 1893.

(2) It may be noted that Mr. Woods, M.P., in a speech in the House of Commons this year, stated that five-sixths of the miners in the country were in favour of the Bill. (The "Labour Tribune," May 6th, 1893.)

(3) In a speech made by Mr. Harvey (Assistant Secretary, Derbyshire) at Ripley, he stated that the evidence given by Messrs. Morris and Kerry, before the Commission, with regard to the attitude of the miners in this district, was unreliable. They were a deputy and bank-overseer respectively, did not hew coal, and "had no following." He added, "that for "every man in Derbyshire he could get to sign his name against Eight "Hours, he would get 10 or 11 in Northumberland and Durham to sign in "favour of it." (The "Labour Tribune," April 29th, 1893.)

(4) With regard to the attitude taken up towards this question by the miners in the North, Mr. Edwards, at the Birmingham Conference, added: "Why grown men could cling to a system which might be shorter than "Eight Hours, at the expense of the young people unable to protect them-"selves, was a matter that passed his comprehension." (The "Labour Tribune," January 14th, 1893.)

GROUP A.

SUMMARY of the EVIDENCE, oral and written, received by GROUP A. of the ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

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NOTE.

IN accordance with a Resolution of the Commission, the Secretary was directed to prepare Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written) received by the Committees. This Evidence includes :—

1. The Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices.
2. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
3. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards.
4. The Rules of Accident and Sick Funds handed in to the Commission.
5. Certain other Documents handed in or forwarded to the Commission, but not printed with the above.

Under the head of Iron, Engineering, Hardware, Shipbuilding and Cognate Trades, these include :—

(i.) Report of the Proceedings (1890) of the Board of Conciliation in revising the Award of Mr. Thomas Burt, M.P., on the apportionment of work between shipwrights and joiners ; handed in by Mr. Wilkie.

(ii.) List of demarcation of shipwrights and shipjoiners' work, issued in September, 1891, by the Referee Board appointed to settle the points left unsettled by the Arbitration Court and Conciliation Board ; handed in by Mr. Wilkie.

(iii.) Twenty-fifth Quarterly Report (April to June, 1888), of the Associated Shipwrights' Society, containing Report on "Picketing dispute at a Glasgow Shipyard," and Extract from the Circular issued in May, 1888, by the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress with regard thereto ; handed in by Mr. Wilkie.

(iv.) Statement showing the wages of shipjoiners in certain districts ; handed in by Mr. Twigg.

(v.) Rules of the Elswick Works' Accident Compensation Fund, established as a substitute for the Employers' Liability Act, 1880 ; handed in by Captain A. Noble.

(vi.) Copy of Statement showing the several classes of workmen (established and hired) employed at Her Majesty's Naval and Victualling Establishments at home on January 1st, 1891, with particulars of the present and revised scales of wages, &c. ; handed in by the Right Honourable A. B. Forwood, M.P.

6. Further Correspondence on certain subjects.

N.B.—The following official publications have also been consulted :—

(i.) Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, Fifth Report, 1891.

(ii.) Parliamentary Return, ordered by the House of Commons, on the motion of Mr. Broadhurst ; (375, 1890.)

PART II.—IRON, ENGINEERING, HARDWARE, SHIPBUILDING, AND COGNATE TRADES.

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PART II.—IRON, ENGINEERING, HARDWARE, SHIPBUILDING, AND COGNATE TRADES.

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.*

1. WAGES.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF WAGES.

97.] arces of ormation.

97. It has already been pointed out, in the summary of the oral and written evidence given in connection with mines and quarries, that wage statistics are only of value when the returns on which they are based are uniform in character, and collected according to certain general principles there specified. These requirements are not satisfied by the evidence received in connection with the industries under consideration. Generally speaking, statements were made to the effect that wages range between certain specified limits. Where the maximum and minimum rates are given, no attempt has been made to connect these with the proportionate numbers paid at the different rates, so that in these cases (*e. g.*, Table I., Birkenhead, Riddings, &c.) it is not possible to assign to each its true weight, in order to determine accurately the average wage of the workers. In other cases, the average wage in the district has been given, but there is no accompanying statement of the method by which this has been obtained. Piecework price lists were handed in in connection with those industries in which this method of payment prevails. These statements do not, however, give the further information as to the quantity of work on an average which can be produced in a given time. Where the corresponding time wages were given, these rates have been tabulated. In a few cases, full and elaborate returns have been handed in, showing the average rates of wages and their fluctuations in particular trades. Thus, in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission, the Associated Shipwrights' Society gives a table showing the wages for "old" and "new" work, and the number of hours worked in the districts of the Thames, Mersey, Tyne, Clyde, and of Barrow, in each of the ten years, 1881–90. The rates of wages paid to their members in these and other districts were also given in the Tenth Annual Report of the Associated Society of Shipwrights. The wages paid to members of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers in different localities are given in a special report. It must be noted that in most cases the rates given in the following tables depend on single statements made by individual witnesses or by trade unions, and that the information has rarely been received from more than one source with regard to the wages paid in one locality. On the other hand, both oral and written evidence was received in connection with the wages of brass founders in London, and spike nail makers in Halesowen, Worcestershire, and the information from these sources tallies The average given by the employed in Cleveland (Table III.) differs but slightly from that given by the employers. It must be also noted that, with the exception of the wages of the blast furnacemen in Cleveland and the workers in Government Arsenals and Dockyards, the evidence given in this connection has been received from the employed alone. Frequently no details of the wages paid have been given by the employers. In some cases wages were said to range between limits so wide that the statements are not adequate to support or refute the estimate given by the workmen. Thus, in the answers received from the Durham and North Riding Branch of the North of England Iron and Steel Manufacturers' Association, wages were said to "run from 2*s.* 8*d.* per shift as a minimum, to about 3*l.* per shift as a maximum, and in some special cases to more than this" (1). The wages paid to iron workers in Lanarkshire were said to vary from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 30*s.* per day (2). On the other hand, the Tyneside Branch of the Iron Trades Employers' Association stated that the wages of skilled artizans vary at present from about 32*s.* to 38*s.* per week. Unskilled labourers were stated to earn from about 18*s.* to 23*s.* per week (3). The employed in the Tyne District stated that the wages of boiler makers were 38*s.* a week, and the wages of shipyard labourers, employed for a full week at ordinary work about the yard, 22*s.* (4). The wages paid by the Wear Shipbuilders' Association were stated to vary from 30*s.* to 38*s.* a week (5). This tallies with the rates given by the employed for this district. [§ 97.]

98. The information given with regard to the average wages per week of ironfounders in the various districts has been tabulated as follows :— Ironfounders. *(i.) Wages.*

TABLE I.—Mean of Returns of Wages of Ironfounders, 1891–92.†

Reference.	District.	Wage per Week.	REMARKS.
		s. *d.*	
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions; 1891 (pp. 208–9).	London, Liverpool, and Manchester.	38 0	The average weekly wage throughout the year 1891, was stated to be 38*s.* in each of the districts.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 19.	Chelsea (Battersea and Pimlico).	38 0	This rate was stated to have been stationary for the last 20 years.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 19.	Hyde, Cheshire - - -	38 0	———
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 18.	Birkenhead, Cheshire -	37 0	In the Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891 (p. 208), the average weekly wage for the year 1891, was stated to be 38*s.* The wages were said to vary from 36*s.* to 38*s.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 20.	Smethwick, Staffordshire -	36 0	It was stated that there had been no variation for 18 years, except in two firms.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 21.	North and South Shields and City of Durham.	36 0	It was stated that the rate of wages had risen 10 per cent. since 1887. In the "Statistical Tables" (p. 209) the average weekly rate in South Shields in 1891, was said to be 36*s.* The wages were said to vary from 35*s.* to 37*s.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 21.	Cheshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, and Derbyshire.	35 0	This was stated to be the average wage for Stalybridge, Mottram, and Dunkinfield in Cheshire, Ashton-under-Lyne in Lancashire, Mossley in Yorkshire, and Glossop in Derbyshire. The wages were said to vary from 34*s.* to 36*s.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 19.	Hartlepool and West Hartlepool.	35 0	This was stated to be the average when trade is "good." "Some of the men are reduced 5*s.* a week when trade is slack." In the Statistical Tables previously referred to, the average weekly wages in Hartlepool, in 1891, were stated to be 1*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* (p. 208).
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 18.	Belfast (Ballymena, Newry, Portadown, and Strabane).	34 0	This was stated to be the standard rate. During the depressed periods, the rate is 31*s.* per week.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 20.	Kendal and Lancaster -	32 0	———
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 20.	Southampton, Hampshire -	32 0	———
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 19.	Riddings, near Alfreton -	31 6	This was stated to be the standard rate of the men workers. It was further added that, "all waste work" must "be deducted . . . . thus making it, that the above prices are seldom realized." The wages were said to vary from 26*s.* to 37*s.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 19.	Keighley, including Bingley, Eastburn, and Skipton.	31 0	It was stated that unionists average 32*s.* per week, non-unionists 30*s.* per week. "The majority of non-unionists work piecework, and get what remuneration they can." The wages were said to vary from 30*s.* to 32*s.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.

† The wages given in the Table are identical with those in the Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891 (pp. 208–9).

* The few suggestions with regard to the publication of statistics, given in the oral and written evidence, have been dealt with in the Summary of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, under the head of "Labour Department."

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 367. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 389. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 365. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 384. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 20.

The wages given in the above table depend solely on the statements made, in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission, by the branches of the Ironfounders' Friendly Society in the different districts. It appears that the wages of ironfounders range from 26*s.* to 38*s.* Wages are as low as 26*s.* only in the district of Riddings, near Alfreton, and as high as 36*s.* in Birkenhead, Hyde, and Chelsea. It may be noted that this high rate has been stationary in the third of the above districts for the last 20 years. No bonus or allowance is granted, and, except in Riddings, there are no deductions by fines or other forms of stoppage. The method of payment, whether by the time, piece, or task, varies in the different districts. In Keighley it was stated that unionists are generally paid by the hour, and non-unionists by the piece. The latter were stated to "get what remuneration they can" (1). [§ 98.] (iii.) *Method of payment.*

99. The second table shows the average rates of wages per day of enginemen and firemen, obtained from the Answers to the Schedules of Questions, furnished by the Enginemen's and Firemen's Associations:— Enginemen and firemen; (i.) *Wages.*

TABLE II.—Mean of Returns of Wages of Enginemen and Firemen, 1891.

Reference.	District.	Class of Labour.	Wage per Day.	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 23.	Leigh, Chowbent, Tyldesley, Little Hulton, Farnworth, Pendlebury, Radcliffe, Hyde, Denton, Ashton, St. Helen's.	Enginemen	5 9	——
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 25.	Wigan District	ditto	5 9	The wages were said to vary from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 22.	Durham	ditto	5 5½	The wages were stated to be 35 per cent. higher than the basis rates of 1879. The wages were said to vary between 5*s.* –½*d.*, 5*s.* 3½*d.*, and 6*s.* 1*d.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 23.	Northumberland	ditto	5 0½	The wages were said to vary from 5*s.* to 5*s.* 1*d.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 25.	West Cumberland	ditto	4 10	——
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 25.	Cannock Chase, Staffordshire	ditto	4 9½	The wages were said to vary from 4*s.* to 5*s.* 7*d.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 25.	Somerset	ditto	4 8½	——
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 24.	North Staffordshire	ditto	4 7	——
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 25.	Dudley District	ditto	4 2	——
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 23.	Northumberland	Firemen	About 4*s.*	——
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 24.	Shropshire	Enginemen	3 11	The wages were said to vary from 3*s.* 7*d.* to 4*s.* 3*d.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.

(i.) *Allowances.*

It appears from the above table that the wages of enginemen vary from 3*s.* 7*d.* to 6*s.* 1*d.* per day. The rates are lowest in the county of Shropshire, and highest in the Wigan district, Durham and Leigh, Chowbent, &c. Allowances are given in Durham and Northumberland in the form of free houses (or an allowance for rent in lieu of houses) and fire coal. In many instances gardens are attached to the houses, or payments are given in lieu thereof. Coal is allowed in the Cannock Chase and Dudley districts, and in Somerset—in Dudley to the extent of one ton of coal per month, in Somerset a 3-cwt. bag of coal per week. It is stated that there are no deductions by fines or other forms of stoppage (2).

100. The third table shows the rates of wages paid to the different classes of workmen employed in the iron trade. Iron Workers; (i.) *Wages.*

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 18–21. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 22–5.

TABLE III.—Mean of Returns of Wages of various Classes of Ironworkers, 1891–92.

Reference.	Class of Labour.	Wage per Week.	REMARKS.
		s. d.	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 41. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 22.	Ironmoulders, Scotland	36 0	Wages were stated to have risen to the rate of 8*d.* an hour in 1891, and the average number of hours worked is about 54 per week.
	" " Aberdeen	33 9	The average rate was stated to be 7½*d.* an hour, and the number of hours worked is 54 per week.
Digest, Vol. II., pp. 37, 40	Blastfurnacemen, Cleveland.	33 0	It was stated by the employers in their oral evidence that wages vary between 55*s.* and 22*s.*, the average wage being 33*s.* per week. In the oral evidence given by the employés, the base rates for "charges" and "mine fellers" were stated to vary from 4*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.* 10*d.*, and 3*s.* 7½*d.* to 3*s.* 10*d.*, per shift, respectively. The rates in 1892 were 6% above the base rates. Seven shifts are worked each week and paid as seven shifts and a-half. According to the employed, "chargers" are paid about 36*s.* 4*d.*, and "fellers," 29*s.* 3*d.* per week. The mean of these rates is about 32*s.* 9*d.*, which differs but slightly from the average given by the employers. About 26 classes of men are employed in blast furnaces. It was stated, however, that "mine fellers" and "chargers" constitute the two main classes.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 30.	Blastfurnacemen, Cumberland and Lancashire.	About 33*s.*	The daily wages were stated to vary from 3*s.* 2*d.* to 8*s.* per day. Sunday labour is paid "single time" for eight hours' men, and these constitute about five-sixths of the whole number employed. Weekly wages would vary, therefore, from 22*s.* 2*d.* to 56*s.* The average wage per week would, therefore, be about the same as in the Cleveland district. It may be noted that in Cleveland the blast-furnacemen work in 12-hour shifts.
See Table I.	Ironfounders, United Kingdom.	32 0	It may be noted that the average wage falls as low as 26*s.* only in the district of Riddings near Alfreton. The average lies more nearly between 32*s.* and 36*s.* The wages were said to vary from 26*s.* to 38*s.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 31.	Nut and Bolt Workers, Smethwick, Staffordshire.	32 0	It was stated that, owing to depression in trade, the men are not often employed full time, and the average sum earned probably does not exceed 20*s.* per week.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 31.	Blastfurnacemen, Ayrshire and Lanarkshire.	30 4	The daily wages were stated to vary from 2*s.* 8*d.* to 6*s.* per day, "according to position;" 12½% reduction has taken place during the last year. Sunday work is paid for at the ordinary rates. The wages were said to vary from 18*s.* 8*d.* to 42*s.* In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 54	Chainmakers, Cradley Heath and district.	24*s.* or 25*s.*	This was stated to be the average wage of a "good half-inch chainmaker." Work was stated to be irregular, and the amounts earned per week vary between 30*s.* or 35*s.*, and 10*s.* or 15*s.*
Digest, Vol. III., p. 18	Hand-Nail Makers, Bromsgrove and Catshill.	18 5	This was stated to be the average wage per week for adult males.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 58	Lock and Key Smiths, Wolverhampton.	18 0	It was stated that the average is 60% per cent. lower than in the year 1872. The average in Willenhall is lower than in Wolverhampton.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 43. Digest, Vol. II., p. 56.	Spike-Nail Makers, Halesowen, Worcestershire.	13 6	The wages were said to vary from 12*s.* to 15*s.* for male adult workers. In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.

* From the returns of Wages, Hours, &c., furnished by the Associated Ironmoulders of Scotland, and given in the Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891 (pp. 210–16), it appears that 171 shops out of 260 work 54 hours a week, and 48 shops work a less number of hours (51 and 52½), and 31 work a greater number (56–60). The "average hourly sand rate in 1891 varies from 6½*d.* to 8½*d.*" In 39 shops, the average rate is stated to be 8*d.* exactly.

100.]

) *Allowances.*

i.) Subcontracting.

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In connection with the above table, it may be noted that the majority of blastfurnace-men in Cumberland and Lancashire are employed in eight-hour shifts. In Cleveland and in Ayrshire and Lanarkshire, the shifts are 12 hours in duration. In Cleveland and Durham, a bonus is paid after a certain amount of work has been performed. Allowances are given in the form of free coal in Shropshire and elsewhere in the Midlands to certain classes of workers, and, in Cumberland and Lancashire, clothes are given to boiler and stove cleaners (1). Sub-contracting does not prevail to any great extent, and the men who work under contractors are almost invariably paid directly by the firm (2).

101. The low rates of wages among the chainmakers and chainstrikers, the spike nail makers, and the lock and key smiths, were stated to be due to the competition between male, female, and boy labour, between home and factory workers, and between the manufacturers and the middlemen or "foggers." In the spike nail industry, the factories are for the most part owned by "foggers," who supply the power and material necessary for the work. It was stated that they charge 1*s.* 6*d.* per week for repairing tools, although the cost to them does not average more than 2*d.* (3). Among the lock and key smiths in Bromsgrove, it was stated that the system of middlemen is being broken down in consequence of the combined opposition of masters and men. More than half the workmen now deal directly with the principal employer, and the persons who work for "foggers" are generally an inferior class of men (4). The standard rate of 32*s.* for a week's work of 54 hours in the nut and bolt trade has been fixed by the Board of Conciliation, but it was stated that, owing to the depressed condition of the trade, the average sum earned per week probably did not exceed 20*s.* The standard rate of wages in this industry is said to be reduced by the competition of "sweaters" and the employment of boy and female labour (5).

102. The information with regard to the rates of wages paid to various classes of steel workers was inadequate for any tabular statements to be made. It was stated that among the steel smelters time men are paid, on an average, wages varying from 6*s.* or 6*s.* 3*d.* to 12*s.* or 12*s.* 6*d.* for a 12-hour shift (6). Wages in the cutlery trades (Sheffield) were said to range from 15*s.* to 35*s.* a week. They are less than 20*s.* a week among the pen and pocket knife cutlers, and certain grades of Britannia metal workers. They average 30*s.* a week among the bone, haft, and scale cutlers (*i.e.* the "full time" average), the scissors grinders (*i.e.* gross wage), the file grinders, silver smiths, silver buffers, and edged tool grinders (1). With regard to deductions, the table blade forgers and strikers stated that occasional deductions are made for imperfect work, although the latter is sometimes due to faulty material. Complaint was made of the "arbitrary" nature of the fines imposed by the representatives of the Britannia metal smiths and scissors grinders. In the greater number of industries included under the Scissors Grinders' Association, wages are subject to deductions for power and room, for stones and for wear and tear of plant. Men in receipt of 24*s.* a week were stated to suffer deductions to the amount of 5*s.* 6*d.* These are made even during holidays and stock-taking, when the machines are not working. Among the spring knife cutlers, "side" rent averages 1*s.* per week, 4*d.* is charged for gas, and between 5 and 10 per cent. is deducted for the use of the employers' tools. It was stated that these deductions are made in full even when the men cannot get more than three or four days' work per week (2). With regard to the method of payment, puddlers, shinglers, rollers, stock-takers, and all the iron and steel workers, properly so-called, who work day and night shifts on alternate weeks, are paid by tonnage. Mechanics and general labourers, who work on day shifts, are paid by time (3). Contracting is stated to be still very prevalent in the steel trade (4). In the north of England, "every puddler is a contractor" for his own work. "In the mill, every furnaceman is his own contractor . . . and at the shears every man is put on by the ton . . . When the men wish it, they are paid at the office, although the shearman has the contract (5). The contractor is responsible to the firm for the regular employment and good workmanship of his men; most of the contractors were stated to be unionists. The men's committee has "decided on more than one occasion the wage," which is sufficient to give the contractor full value for the responsibility and risk incurred. Anything which remains above that sum is then divided equally between the contractor and the men employed (6). Among the steel smelters very little contracting exists outside the district of Sheffield, where the men complain that the contractors intercept the bulk of their wages and render them liable to fines and dismissal by giving "ill-judged orders" (7). Complaint is also made of the system of sub-contract in the silver plate and the spring knife trades. It was stated that workmen in the latter industry employed under this system are "generally inferior;" and the average wage paid by the "little masters" is 17*s.* per week (8).

[§ 102.)

(ii.) Deductions.

(iii.) Method of payment.

(iv.) Contracting.

TABLE IV.—Rate of Wages per Week paid to Members of Amalgamated Society of Engineers, in various Districts, 1891.*

Reference.	District.	Wage per Week.	Remarks.
		s. *d.*	
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XLVII. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 16, 17.	Enfield	40 6	It may be noted that the only difference between the rates of wages given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions and in the Appendix drawn up by the Amalgamated Society of Engineers occurs in Derby and Edinburgh. The rate given for the Derby district in the former was 30*s.*; the rate for Derby itself was given in the latter as 29*s.* Wages in Edinburgh and Leith were stated to vary from 27*s.* to 36*s.* in the Answers. In this case the arithmetic mean has been taken. The rate in Edinburgh alone is stated in the Appendix to be 29*s.*
	London	38 0	
	Sheffield and Rotherham	36 0	
	Newcastle and Stockton	35 0	
	Manchester	34 0	
	Barrow-in-Furness	34 0	
	Hartlepool	34 0	
	Liverpool	34 0	
	Wigan	34 0	
	Belfast	34 0	
	Hull	33 0	
	Bristol	32 0	
	Dublin	32 0	
	Preston District	32 0	
	Blackburn and Bolton	32 0	
	Edinburgh and Leith	31 6	
	Glasgow	31 6	
	Halifax	31 0	
	Leeds	30 0	
	Derby	29 0	
	Keighley	27 0	
	Forfar	24 0	

* The average wage earned by the members of the above society was stated to be 33*s.* 4*d.* per week. For full details, *see* Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37–8. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 40. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 54–6; Vol. III., p. 18. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 59. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 57. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 52.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 60–65. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 12–15. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 60–65. Answers to Schedules of Questions, 1 pp. 2–15. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 45. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43. (5) Trow, 15329. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 46; Trow, 15330–2. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 52–3. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 60–1, 64.

[§ 103.] Engineers: (i.) *Wages.*

103. The above table shows the average rates of wages paid to members of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers in certain main districts. It may be noted that in Lancashire and the Midlands the extent of fluctuations in wages has not exceeded 2*s.* a week. In other districts it has in some cases extended to 4*s.* In shipbuilding centres, where the fluctuations are more strongly marked than elsewhere, the wages of engineers vary to the extent of from 3*s.* to 6*s.* (1). The effect of the strength of the organisations in the various districts on the rates of wages has been dealt with in a later table (see *infra*, page 97). It was stated that the comparatively low rate of engineers' wages in Leeds is due not to their "pacific attitude," but to the cheapness of their houses, and to the opportunity which the ready-made clothing trade affords to their wives and daughters of increasing the family income (2). In 49 districts, representing 12,527 members of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, wages are paid by time. In 76 districts, representing 42,754 men, or 77·4 per cent. of the whole number of members, "piece-work is "worked more or less . . . and the average number "of members working" under this system is 7,147, or 12·9 per cent. In the opinion of 52,651 members, the system of piece-work is held to lead "to scamping of "work, the concealing of defects in partly-finished work, "the exacting of the largest amount of work from the "workman for the smallest possible wage," and to be "the cause of ill-feeling between workmen." Piece-workers, it was stated, are employed overtime more frequently than day-men and receive no advance in their rate of payment. Although a reduction in piece-work prices occurs simultaneously with a reduction in time wages, an advance in the former rarely takes place simultaneously with an advance in the latter. Only the branches of the Society in Swindon and Oldham are opposed to the abolition of piece-work. The members in the latter district fear lest any change should result in loss of trade. According to the rules of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, no man is allowed to accept less wages at piece-work than the standard minimum day wage for the district. The introduction of the system into workshops in which it is not already the custom is forbidden. Where a piece-worker acts as a sub-contractor, he is obliged to share "equally in "proportion to his wages any surplus made over and "above the weekly wages paid to members and other "persons working in such job . . . and if he does "not comply with the above regulation" he is summoned before his branch or the committee of his branch, and subjected to a certain penalty. "Any member working "for or under any piece-master and not receiving "an equal share in the surplus in proportion to his "wages that may be made over and above his weekly "wage" is dealt with similarly (1). In support of this system, the employers (Iron Trades Employers' Association) states that it "does not deteriorate the "quality of the work," but makes the men anxious to produce work of sufficiently good quality to be certain of passing the scrutiny of the foremen and surveyors (2). They claim that in some cases piece-work is necessary, when there is no other "available means of knowing "that you are getting a proper amount of work out of "the men employed" (3). Moreover, the system is advantageous to the employers, because the work is done more quickly and therefore more economically, and because there is less need for a large staff of "sub-foremen" to supervise the performance of the work (4). The employers allege that piece-work is condemned by the workmen because "it emphasises the "difference between good and indifferent workmen," and because they hold that the extra work done by a good workman prevents the employment of a larger number of men. Nevertheless, the employers contend that it is to the best interests of all concerned to utilise the skill of the best men as much as possible (5).

[§ 103.]

(ii.) *Method of payment.*

104. The next table shows the wages paid to brass founders in various districts:—

Brass founders': (i.) *Wages.*

TABLE V.—Statement of Wages—Brass Founders, 1891.

Reference.	District.	Wage per Week.	NOTES.
		s.	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 10. Digest, Vol. III., p. 43.	London	36	It was stated that 8*d.* per hour is the minimum rate. The number of hours worked per day is nine. There is one weekly holiday, without payment.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 8.	Belfast	35	Wages were stated to vary from 34*s.* to 36*s.* a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average. It may be noted that the proportion of unionists to non-unionists is about 118 to 10.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 8.	Bury	32	Statement made in written evidence by United Journeymen's Brass Founders' Association.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 9.	Wigan	32	The standard wages were stated to be 30*s.* a week. Three-fourths were, however, said to receive 32*s.*, and some receive 34*s.* and 2*l.*
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 9.	Derby	30	Wages were stated to vary from 28*s.* to 32*s.* per week. The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.

The above statements of the average rates of wages have been obtained from the Answers to the Schedules of Questions furnished by the various branches of the United Journeymen Brass Founders' Association. It appears from the above table that the rates of wages vary from 28*s.* to 36*s.* or 2*l.* a week. There is no system of allowances or fines (3). A considerable minority of the members of the association are paid by the piece (*i.e.*, in Oldham, Wigan, and London), and it was stated that the competition arising from "piece-work has, to a certain extent, deteriorated the tone of the trade," by causing the introduction of improperly apprenticed boy labour. It was further stated that employers fix the piece rates arbitrarily without consulting the men (6).

(ii.) *Method of payment.*

105. The following tables have been drawn up showing the wages of various classes of workers employed in shipbuilding:—

Various classes of workers employed in shipbuilding: (i.) *Wages.*

TABLE VI.—Wages of Ship Carpenters and Ship Joiners in various Ports, 1891.*

Port.	Average Wage per Week.	Remarks.	Port.	Average Wage per Week.	Remarks.
	£. *s.* *d.*			£ *s.* *d.*	
London (district)	2 2 0	The average wage of ship joiners in England was stated to be 1*l.* 17*s.* 1½*d.*	Grimsby†	1 15 4	The average wage of ship joiners in England was stated to be 1*l.* 17*s.* 1½*d.*
Birkenhead	1 19 0		Barrow-in-Furness	1 15 0	
Cardiff	1 19 0		Clyde district, Greenock and Leith	1 13 9	
Liverpool (district)	1 19 0		Belfast	1 13 9	
Newcastle-on-Tyne (district)	1 16 6		Hull	1 13 0	
Newport†	1 16 6		Southampton†	1 12 7½	
Hartlepool	1 16 0		Londonderry†	1 11 6	
Stockton-on-Tees	1 16 0		Milford Haven†	1 9 3	
Sunderland	1 16 0				

N.B.—For full details, *see* Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891.

* The figures were obtained from a table handed in by Mr. Twigg, who represented the joiners employed in the various Government Dockyards. It may be noted that the rates in the above table are in agreement with those given by the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners in the Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891 (pp. 167–175).

† Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 38. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 48. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 8–10.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 34. Whittaker, 22658. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47. (3) Noble, 25206. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 42. Caldwell, 24570.

TABLE VII.—Wages per Week of Shipwrights, 1890–91.

DISTRICT.	New Work.	Old Work.	REMARKS.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	
Thames District, 1890	2 2 0	2 2 0	The average wages were given in the Tenth Annual Report of the Associated Shipwrights' Society, and in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission.
Liverpool (Mersey District, 1890).	1 19 0	2 2 0	
Tyne District, 1890	1 18 6	2 1 6	
Newcastle	1 18 6	2 1 6	
Stockton	1 18 0	2 1 0	
Leith and Greenock (Clyde District, 1890).	1 16 0	1 18 3	
Barrow	1 16 0	1 19 0	
Londonderry	1 16 0	1 16 0	
Dover	1 16 0	1 16 0	
Southampton	1 15 0	1 15 0	
Hull	1 14 6	1 17 6	
Grimsby and Goole	1 13 0	1 16 0	
Devonport	1 12 0	1 12 0	
Plymouth	1 4 0	1 10 0	
Chatham	1 0 0	1 14 0	

N.B.—For full details, *see* Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions 1891.

TABLE VIII.—Wages per Week of Pattern Makers, 1891. (Taken from the Annual Reports of the United Pattern Makers' Association.)*

[§ 105.]

DISTRICT.	Average Wage per Week.
	£. s. d.
London, No. 1	2 0 6
„ „ 2	2 0 0
Woolwich	2 0 0
Birmingham	1 18 0
Manchester	1 18 0
Hartlepool	1 17 6
Birkenhead	1 17 0
Gateshead	1 17 0
Liverpool	1 17 0
Newcastle	1 17 0
Sunderland	1 17 0
Barrow-in-Furness	1 16 0
Greenock	1 16 0
Hull	1 16 0
Sheffield	1 16 0
Stockton	1 16 0
Belfast	1 15 0
Leeds	1 14 0
Paisley	1 14 0
Coatbridge	1 13 0
Edinburgh and Leith	1 13 0
Halifax	1 12 0
Kilmarnock	1 11 0
Johnston	1 10 0
Keighley	1 10 0
Aberdeen	1 9 0

* For full details *see* Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891, p. 217.

TABLE IX.—Mean of Returns given of Wages per Week of Members of United Society of Boilermakers and Iron Shipbuilders, 1891.

(For those districts in which the estimated number employed is on or over 200.)†

DISTRICT.	Estimated Number in District.	Wages per Week.	REMARKS.
Barrow-in-Furness	200	Piece-workers - 66*s.* Time men - 37*s.* 3*d.*	The wages of piece-workers were said to vary from 60*s.* to 72*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Leeds	375	Angle smiths - 39*s.* Heavy platers - 37*s.*	The wages were said to vary thus - 38*s.* to 40*s.*; 36*s.* „ 38*s.*
		Light „ - 35*s.* Rivetters - 31*s.* 6*d.* Holders-up - 27*s.*	The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average - 34*s.* „ 36*s.*; 30*s.* „ 33*s.*; 26*s.* „ 28*s.*
Portsmouth	250	Platers - 38*s.* Rivetters - 33*s.*	
Devonport	300	36*s.*	
Swindon	200	Angle-iron smiths - 36*s.* Platers - 33*s.* Rivetters - 30*s.*	
Manchester	1,100	35*s.* 9*d.*	Wages were stated to vary between 31*s.*, 34*s.*, 38*s.*, and 40*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Newton Heath	250	35*s.*	
Woolstone	200	34*s.* 6*d.*	
Southampton	280	34*s.*	
Dundee	428	34*s.*	
Aberdeen	257	Boiler shops - 33*s.* 3*d.* Shipyards - 30*s.* 3*d.* and 28*s.* 9*d.* Platers - Rivetters - Caulkers -	
Derby	250	33*s.*	
Bristol	200	30*s.*	The wages were said to vary from 22*s.* to 38*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Dudley	350 men and 250 youths.	24*s.*	The wages were said to vary from 18*s.* to 30*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.

† For full details, *see* Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891 (pp. 235-7).

[§ 105.] TABLE X.—Mean of Returns of Wages of various Classes of Labour employed in Shipbuilding, 1891–92. [§ 105.]

Reference.	Class of Labour.	District.	Wage per Week. £	s.	d.	REMARKS.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 44.	Smiths	United Kingdom	2	3	0	Wages were stated to vary from 1*l.* 16*s.* to 2*l.* 10*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Barge Builders	Thames	2	0	2½	Wages were stated to be 7*s.* 1½*d.* for the first five days, and 4*s.* 7*d.* on Saturday. There is no classification in the rates paid.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 44.	Platers	United Kingdom	2	0	0	Wages were said to vary from 1*l.* 14*s.* to 2*l.* 6*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
See Table VI.	Ship Carpenters and Joiners.	England	1	17	1½	
See Table VII.	Shipwrights	United Kingdom	1	16	0	Wages were stated to vary from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 2*l.* 2*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891, p. 217.	Pattern Makers	ditto	1	15	0	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 44.	Rivetters	ditto	1	13	0	Wages were stated to vary from 1*l.* 8*s.* to 1*l.* 18*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Ditto ditto	Caulkers	ditto	1	12	0	Wages were stated to vary from 1*l.* 8*s.* to 1*l.* 16*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Questions 20550–8, 20562 – Digest, Vol. III., p. 20	(1) Platers' helpers	Tyneside *	1	10	6	Wages were stated to vary from 1*l.* 9*s.* to 1*l.* 12*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. This average was stated to apply only to a small portion of the men, if employed for a full week as platers' helpers. Many earn only 16*s.* a week.
	(2) Ordinary workers about the yard.	ditto *	1	2	0	The remark made with reference to the former average applies equally to ordinary labourers about the yard.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 44.	Holders-up	United Kingdom	1	7	0	Wages were stated to vary from 1*l.* 2*s.* to 1*l.* 12*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.

* The wages were stated to be about uniform for the same kind of work in different yards, and in the districts of the Wear, Tyne, and Tees.

In connection with the above tables it may be noted that wages in this industry are stated to be subject to greater fluctuations than any other in Great Britain (1). Every trade connected with shipbuilding was stated to act independently in the matter of wages (2). The great majority of shipwrights are paid by time. Pattern makers are also paid by time, except in Messrs. Tangye's works in Birmingham. In the Tees district 95 per cent. of the members of the Boilermakers and Shipbuilders' Society employed in the shipyards are paid by the piece (3). Piece-work was also stated to be the rule in the shipyards, but the exception in the boiler shops, in Sunderland and on the Wear (4). The sub-contract system was stated to exist among the boilermakers and shipbuilders in non-unionist works in the South Wales district, and at Dowlais in particular. It was stated that "the sub-contractor wants to get as much work as "possible out of the men, and pay them the smallest "amount possible in return as wages for the labour done. "This is really the sweating system in its most aggra- "vated form." (5). The system also exists in a modified form in the relation between platers and their helpers. The plater applies to the foreman to send a certain number of labourers to help him in his work, and, in making his bargain with the firm, he takes account of the fact that the amount of their wages will be deducted from his own. Except in one or two yards in the Tyne district, these labourers are paid directly by the firm, but they are subject to summary dismissal at the hands of the plater. Platers are paid by the piece and their helpers by the time (6). The latter complain, therefore, that the platers "attempt to get as much work out of "(us) as they possibly can and in the shortest amount of "time, seeing that the harder we work and the quicker "the job is finished, their wages will rise in proportion. "The jobs are then finished far sooner than they would "be if the men were allowed to work reasonably as "they ought to and not be driven at it so hard" (7). It was, however, stated that "platers are not quite so hard "upon their helpers as seems to have been represented." Since 1884 the reductions in the wages of platers have amounted to 33 per cent., compared with a reduction of 15½ per cent. in the wages of their helpers. In 1888 an arrangement was made whereby the reduction in platers' wages should always be double the amount of any reduction submitted to by their helpers (8). Their mutual relations are now regulated by a code of rules drawn up by the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society (9).

(ii.) Method of payment.

(iii.) Sub-contracting.

106. It remains to draw attention to the special method of calculating the rates of wages adopted among the blast furnacemen in Scotland, in an engineering firm in Leeds, and at the Thames Ironworks.

Local peculiarities in method of calculating wages.

(*a.*) In Scotland, there is a "guaranteed day wage for "the particular men working at the furnaces, and a "tonnage rate in addition. If the furnace fails to "produce as much iron as will realise at so much per "ton the amount that they would consider their day "wage the company grants their day wage. If the "furnace casts more iron than that, in proportion to "the tonnages above, they give them over and above "the day wage. . . . . It is simply a tonnage rate, but a "guarantee of so much a day" (1).

(a.) Blast furnacemen, Scotland.

(*b.*) In Leeds, about one-fourth of the work is paid for by the piece and the remaining three-fourths at a time rate supplemented by piece-work percentages. Formerly these percentages were paid to the leaders of gangs, but they are now given to each individual direct, although the leaders receive an extra allowance for keeping the accounts and managing the work of the gang (2).

(b.) Engineers, Leeds.

(*c.*) The employed, including draughtsmen, clerks, foremen, leading hands, mechanics, labourers and boys, at work at the Thames Ironworks receive a fixed time wage, and, in addition, a premium or bonus. This is determined at the end of each month by deducting the realised labour cost of the work done from the labour cost allowed in the preparation of the estimate in the firm's tender upon which the contract has been taken. "In the case of work coming from the shops, *e.g.*, the "foundry, the cost value (is) fixed by weight or "measurement, in accordance with the detail drawings. "In the case of forgings, smithings, &c., the cost value "(is) fixed in accordance with forge drawings, which "(are) furnished for every job ; and any profits made "(are) calculated from the net weights, in accordance "with the dimensions thereon shown." The joint premium earned by the employed is divided in the ratio of the fixed time-wages of each individual. Where it is possible to make a separate analysis of a special piece of work, the trades employed (*e.g.*, rivetters, drillers, caulkers, &c.) are allowed to work "piece-work in "fellowship." The men engaged upon the work in question are then grouped according to their trades. "Each man (is) paid his daily rate, and at the end of "each week any balance of profit over and above the "weekly wages paid (is) divided among the workmen in "proportion to the wages they have received." It may be noted that a small percentage is retained by the firm to cover any possible loss in future stages of the work. It is maintained that, under this system, it is to the interest both of employers and employed that the work should progress as fast as possible. Moreover, the collective character of the bonus guarantees the exercise of mutual supervision on the part of the men. It was stated that the result had been the creation of "a strong "upward tendency" in the ability of the men em- ployed (3).

(c.) Employed in Thames Ironworks.

107. The following table serves to show the extent to which the average wages paid in the different districts are affected by the proportion of unionists to non-unionists.

Wages of unionists compared with those of non-unionists.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 22, 27. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 24, 32. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 26. Fox, 21307. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 20, 21. (7) Hare, 20632. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. Rothwell, 22172. (9) Digest, Vol. III. p. 24.

(1) Vickers, 14288–9. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 48. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44. Minutes of Evidence, Group A, Vol. III., Appendix 52.

TABLE XI.—Comparative Table showing the Average Rate of Wages of Unionists and Non-Unionists in different Branches of Industry in various Districts, 1891–2, and the proportion of Unionists to Non-Unionists. [§ 107.]

Reference.	Branch of Industry.	District.	Average Wage per Week. (I.) Unionists.	Average Wage per Week. (II.) Non-Unionists.	Number of Unionists.	Number of Non-Unionists.	REMARKS.
			s. d.	s. d.			
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 16, 17; Digest, Vol. III., p. 34; Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891, pp. 220–33; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XLVII.; Statistical Tables, and Report on Trade Unions, pp. 220–33.	Amalgamated Society of Engineers.	Sheffield and Rotherham.	36 0	–	950	250	It was stated in the oral evidence that Sheffield had always been a unionist town.
	ditto	Birmingham	36 0	32 0	2,000	–	
	ditto	Birkenhead	35 6	30 0	490	–	
	ditto	Manchester	35 0	32 0	5,130	500	
	ditto	Southampton	34 6	32 0	410	–	
	ditto	Devonport	34 0	30 0	568	–	
	ditto	Wigan	34 0	30 0	125	–	
	ditto	Belfast	34 0	30 0	1,515	–	
	ditto	Stockport	33 0	29 0	350	–	The wages were stated to vary from 32s. to 34s., and 28s. to 30s. The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
	ditto	Preston	32 0	24 7	380	320	
	ditto	Bristol	32 0	30 0	500	–	
	ditto	Dublin	32 0	28 0	357	–	
	ditto	Swindon	31 6	28 6	786	–	
Vol. III., Appendix XLVII.	ditto	Edinburgh and Leith.	31 6	–	100	26	The wages were stated to vary from 27s. to 36s. The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891, p. 220–33.	ditto	Derby	30 0	–	450	2,300	
	ditto	Aberdeen	28 6	27 3	169	–	
	ditto	Kilmarnock	28 6	28 6	233	–	
	ditto	Keighley	27 0	–	497	–	Keighley was quoted in the evidence, in contrast to Sheffield, as a non-unionist town.
	ditto	Huddersfield	26 0	26 0	174	–	
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891 p. 235.	United Society of Boilermakers and Iron Shipbuilders.	Devonport	36 0	30 0	270	30	
	ditto	Oldham	36 0	–	112	–	
	ditto	Paisley	36 0	–	182	–	
	ditto	Blackburn	35 0	–	80	2	
	ditto	Derby	33 0	–	160	90	
	ditto	Bradford	31 0	–	52	33	
	ditto	Stoke-on-Trent	31 0	27 0	92	28	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 19.	Ironfounders	Chelsea, Battersea, and Pimlico.	38 0	–	240	50	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 20.	ditto	Smethwick, Staffordshire.	36 0	–	230	110	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 21.	ditto	North and South Shields and City of Durham.	35s. & 37s.	–	210	20	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 19.	ditto	Hartlepool and West Hartlepool.	35 0	–	211	7	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 18.	ditto	Belfast, Ballymena, &c. (*see* Table I.)	34 0	–	309	111	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 19.	ditto	Keighley, &c. (*see* Table I.)	31 0	–	70	480	The number 480 consists of 330 males and 150 machine moulders. The wages were said to vary from 30s. to 32s. The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
			Average Wage per Day :				
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 23.	Enginemen	Leigh, Chowbent, &c. (*see* Table II.)	5 9	–	500	50	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 22.	ditto	Durham	5 6⅞	–	1,633	60 or 70	The wages were said to vary from 5s. 0¾d., 5s., 5s. 3½d. to 6s. 1d. The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 23.	ditto	Northumberland	5 0½	–	With a few exceptions, all members of Union.		The wages were said to vary from 5s. to 5s. 1d. The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 25.	ditto	Somerset	4 8½	–	120	None	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 25.	ditto	Dudley	4 2	–	About 100	100	

N.B.—For fuller details, *see* Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, 1891.

[§ 107.] In addition to the details in the above table, it may be further noted that among the Scotch millmen wages were stated to be higher in union than in non-union works (1). It was stated that in the steel smelting industry the work was harder and the wages 15 per cent. lower in non-union than in union works (2). The wage lists among pattern makers were said to be lower in those districts where the union was weak. This was stated to be particularly true in certain parts of Scotland and in some parts of Yorkshire and the Midlands (3). It appears from the above table that the average wages of unionists in the industries under consideration are higher than those of non-unionists, and that the wages earned by the former in the various districts, generally speaking, vary with the strength of the organisation in those districts.

(ii.) SLIDING SCALES.

History of sliding scales. Blast furnacemen.

108. The wages of blast furnacemen both in the Cleveland and Cumberland districts are regulated by sliding scales. In the latter district this system has been in operation for the last 12 years, with the exception of one period of 18 months (4).

(a.) Cleveland.

(*a.*) At the end of 1879, the iron trade in Cleveland was emerging from a very troubled time, and the high prices of preceding years had been followed by a rapid fall (5). The owners of blast furnaces then negotiated with the men for the establishment of a sliding scale. This was based on the assumption that wages would follow the price of Cleveland pig-iron and the average price of No. 3 iron was ascertained each quarter, from the books of six firms in Cleveland by accountants representing employers and employed respectively. The price thus ascertained regulated wages for the following quarter. The books of eight firms were afterwards inspected instead of those of six firms. The first scale was drawn up on the basis of the relations between prices and wages, as ascertained quarter by quarter for the 20 preceding years. When the net average selling price reached 34*s.* per ton, the wages were to be those prevailing immediately prior to the sliding scale agreement, and an increase or decrease of 2*s.* per ton in price gave a rise or fall of 2½ per cent. The scale had a binding period of two years. Between the years 1879 and 1889, several fresh sliding scales were made. The gradations in these scales were modified so as to make wages respond more fully than they had done to changes in the price of iron, although the general outline of the scales remained unaltered. Five scales were drawn up between 1879 and 1889. The sixth scale was drawn up in April 1891, and had a binding period of 18 months. Under this scale, when the net average selling price was between 34*s.* and 34*s.* 2·4*d.* per ton, the wages were to be those prevailing immediately prior to the sliding scale agreement of 7th November 1879, and an increase or decrease of one-fifth part of 1*s.* per ton in price gave a rise or fall of a quarter per cent. At certain stages in the scale, larger gradations of change were inserted, by which the movements of wages upwards or downwards were accelerated. Thus, when the price per ton was between 35*s.* and 39*s.* and between 40*s.* and 42*s.*, an increase or decrease of one-twelfth and one-tenth part of 1*s.* per ton in price respectively, gave a rise or fall of a quarter per cent. in wages. A minimum wage of 3*s.* per day was fixed for any workman (*i.e.*, spare furnaceman) employed to take blast furnace shifts. The ascertainment of prices was to take place quarterly and three months' notice was required for the termination of the scale. In the event of any dispute "as to the carrying out of these arrangements," the "question in "difference (was) submitted to the decision of a committee of ironmasters and blast furnacemen" and, on failure to agree, an umpire was appointed "to settle the matter." It was provided that no alteration could be made in the rates of wages during the currency of this agreement, "unless such alteration (was) sought on the ground of the working conditions or the working appliances having changed since the standard rates were fixed so as to affect the facilities for working" (6). It may be noted that the Enginemen's, Firemen's, and Boilermen's Amalgamated Union has refused to be bound by the above scale, unless it is admitted as an independent society to negotiations for revising the base rates. Seventeen of the twenty-one blastfurnace firms in the district are members of the Employers' Association, and, of the remainder, three "are prepared to be regulated by whatever is agreed on by the associated firms." One firm has a scale of its own, and it was stated that "the wages and conditions are much worse than they are at the others" (1).

[§ 108 (*a.*)]

(*b.*) Cumberland.

(*b.*) The sliding scale in operation in the West Cumberland blast furnaces in the year 1889 was based on the assumption that wages would follow the price of Bessemer Cumberland Hematite. The net average selling price of "business done at cash" in Cumberland Hematite warrants (No. 1, No. 2, No. 3) was obtained daily from figures supplied by the Glasgow Exchange Ironbrokers' Association direct, and the average was obtained each quarter from these daily averages. The ascertained price regulated wages for the following three months. When the net average selling price reached 44*s.* the wages paid were to be those prevailing immediately prior to the date of the sliding scale agreement (6th August 1889). A rise or fall of 1*s.* in the Glasgow cash quotations gave a rise or fall of a quarter per cent. in the rates of wages. A minimum wage of 3*s.* per day was fixed as the standard rate for any workman (*i.e.*, spare furnaceman) employed to take blast furnace shifts. Arrangement was made that in the event of any dispute "as to the carrying out of" the scale, the question should be submitted to "the decision of a committee, "comprising not more than six ironmasters and not more "than six blast furnacemen," who, in case of failure to agree, should "appoint an umpire to settle the matter." As in the Cleveland scale, it was further provided that no alteration should be made "during the currency of "this agreement" in the rates "now prevailing at any of "the works of the ironmasters parties thereto, unless "such alteration is sought on the ground of the working "conditions or the working appliances having changed "since the standard rates were fixed so as to affect the "facilities for working" (2). It may be noted that, under the Cleveland scale, wages are governed by the prices realised for the preceding quarter by a certain number of firms mutually chosen by the employers' and men's associations. Under the Cumberland scale, wages are governed by the Glasgow market cash quotations. It was stated that realised prices may, on an average, correspond closely with quoted prices, but "unfortunately ". . . . there come moments when there is a very great "divergence." Quoted prices are subject to greater fluctuations than realised prices. They are frequently much in excess of the ascertained average prices, and "it is obvious that the top price must always relate to a very small quantity . . . . because it is just the last man who has not been able to get what he wants who gives the top price." The men, Mr. Bell stated, have always been anxious to have quoted prices as the basis of the Cleveland scale, "and the masters have always . . . . demurred to this change." (3).

Associated Iron and Steel Workers. (*a.*) North of England.

109. (*a.*) The first sliding scale, adopted in 1871 by the works governed by the North of England Conciliation Board, was in operation for three months only. A second scale (*i.e.* the "Derby" scale), introduced in 1874, lasted for a period of 12 months. Under this scale, an arrangement was made with the South Staffordshire iron trade, by which a uniform wage was based on the net average realised selling prices of manufactured iron in the two districts. In May, 1880, a third scale (*i.e.* the "Dale" scale) was drawn up, which continued in operation until the end of January 1882. This scale was revised in 1883, but, after one settlement of wages had taken place, the operatives gave notice for its discontinuance. The sliding scale agreement, which is now in operation, was drawn up in July, 1889, and was originally binding for a period of two years. It was based on the assumption that wages would follow the price of finished iron, and the average net realised price of finished iron was ascertained by an accountant every two months. Under this scale, the men receive about 7½ per cent. more than they "ever got under any other conditions." A special clause provided that the scale should be revised at the end of every two years. Elements other than the realised price, such as "the rates paid in other districts and in other countries" and "the state of the labour market" are, therefore, not permanently excluded from consideration (4). It was stated that, with the exception of this last scale, "the "sliding scales which have been tried have not been "found to work satisfactorily for any length of time." This was said to be due to the fact that their authors "had not had sufficient experience and did not cover "sufficient ground in coming to conclusions." "In "adopting the last scale," Mr. Trow added, "we went "over a lengthened period, and we had various meetings "of the men and pointed out how the scale would have

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 49. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 52. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32 (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 61–2. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. Answers to Schedules of Questions, Appendix 6.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 98–9. Carlton, 14,148. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Appendix 5. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. Bell, 14,561–5. (4) Whitwell, 15,021–2.

[§ 110.]

"affected them over 18 or 20 years, if it had been in "operation, and showed them that it is to their advan- "tage to be patient when the market is rising, because they "get the benefit when the market is falling. I think the "employers, like ourselves, needed a little education, ank "the result of the education is that I believe that we "have a very fair scale now . . . which has some "prospect of permanency." (1).

Midland dists.

(*b*). The first scale (*i.e.* the "Derby" scale) in the Midland district, adopted in 1874, lasted about one year. On the recommendation of Mr. J. Chamberlain in 1880, a sliding scale was again adopted. This continued in force until 1882, "when in consequence of the employers "in the north of England having, under pressure, yielded "to an advance of wages greater than was given by the "scale, the operatives in South Staffordshire" insisted on a similar advance and the scale lapsed for a time in consequence. It was re-established later on a different basis and continued in operation till 1890. In that year, the men demanded a higher premium: the scale was once more abandoned and still continues in abeyance (2).*

South es.

(*c*.) Since September, 1890, a sliding scale has been in operation in certain iron and steel works in South Wales (3). This scale is based on the combined average net selling prices of steel rails, weighing 40 lbs. per yard and upwards, and steel tin bars. The price is ascertained every three months by two accountants, chosen by employers and employed, respectively. When the average price is between 4*l*. 5*s*. and 4*l*. 6*s*. per ton, the standard wages are those paid at the Monmouthshire and South Wales Works in March 1889. An increase or decrease of 1*s*. in the price per ton corresponds to an increase or decrease of 1 per cent. in the rate of wages. When the price is from 5*l*. 11*s*. to 6*l*. 10*s*. per ton, an increase or decrease of 1*s*. in price gives an increase or decrease of ½ per cent. in wages. A maximum wage is fixed at a percentage addition of 35 to the standard rate. This is paid when the combined average price is 6*l*. 10*s*. per ton and above. "Questions arising out of an alleged infringe- "ment of this agreement" are decided by the Joint Committee, but no dispute can be entertained or dealt with by this body, "unless the employers and workmen "have in each case endeavoured and failed to settle the same." The scale has a binding period of twelve months (4). It was stated, by a witness representing the South Wales Iron and Steel Workers' and Mechanics' Association, that this scale had been in operation for nearly two years but that the men had now become somewhat dissatisfied with the basis. It was, however, asserted by a representative of the British Steel Smelters' Association that the scale was unpopular among the Siemen's Martin men, firstly, because they object to have their wages regulated on the basis of Bessemer steel and, secondly, because their union was not recognised in the negotiations by which the scale was established (5).

Eston.

(*d*.) The sliding scale at Eston terminated in February, 1892, after having been in operation for 4¼ years. It was abolished by notice from the firm, because the men would not agree to certain sectional alterations in its provisions. This scale was said to have worked "capitally." (6).

antages disad- tages of ing les.

110. In the evidence received from the blast furnacemen and the iron and steel workers, it is represented that the method of sliding scales tends to the avoidance of disputes. In nearly all the districts connected with the Associated Iron and Steel Workers' Society, the wages of members are governed by sliding scales. It was stated that there had always been less trouble during those periods and in those districts in which the system was in operation (7). Mr. Snow, a representative of the blast furnacemen, also asserted that in Cleveland there was "ample proof" that the system had tended to the avoidance of "serious disputes." At the same time, this witness urged that the scales should be regulated on some basis other than that of realised prices. Employers, he stated, were tempted to compete "too "keenly against one another for orders, knowing that if "they sell their iron" at a reduced price, "they will get "a reduction of wages comparatively with the reduction "that they have made in the price of their iron" (8).

The fear that, under a sliding scale, employers were able to manipulate prices to the men's disadvantage was also expressed by other representatives of the blast furnacemen. Mr. Williams stated that prices and profits do not increase to the same extent in the pig-iron trade, where it is necessary to purchase the raw material in the open market. Mr. Carlton asserted that the employers, not content with the advantages they naturally enjoyed in a rising market, began to damp out their furnaces when the price had reached its maximum and was beginning to fall. The men who would be just beginning to receive the benefit of the immediately preceding high prices, were then thrown out of employment (1). Mr. Whitburn, representing the Enginemen's, Firemen's and Boilermen's Amalgamated Union, also stated that "the "chief fault in (the) present method of regulating "wages by sliding scales is the latitude that it gives to "the employer." Thus, he asserted that an employer at Rotherham, took advantage of the fact that his men were being paid under a sliding scale, to offer rails for sale at 7*s*. per ton less than another employer. This latter employer wanted to reduce his wage bill to meet this competition, but the men refused to accept the reduction on the ground that the fall in price was artificial and unnecessary (2). A witness from the British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association stated that sliding scales were often unjust, because they disturb the relationship that ought always to be preserved between wages and profits. "Sometimes profits may be "very large and wages very low" (3). This opinion resulted in a want of confidence in the present method of calculating wages on the part of the blast furnacemen in Cleveland. The men, it was complained, have no voice in the reduction of prices, and therefore, when they accept the present scale, they practically surrender to their employers the right of determining their rates of wages. On the other hand, Mr. Bell, a representative of the Cleveland Ironmasters, stated that he knew of no scale under which it was to the employers' interest to keep down prices. Unless there is a sudden change in the cost of production, he asserted that the profits derived from the sale of any commodity with which he was acquainted always rose with rising prices. Every scale to be successful must be constructed in such a way as to give the men subsistence in its lowest ranges and to make it to the masters' interest to see prices rise. Finally, whether a sliding scale is explicitly in operation or not, Mr. Bell asserted that it is in all cases the implied method by which wages are fixed (4).

(iii.) PROFIT-SHARING AND CO-OPERATION.†

Profit sharing.

111. Profit-sharing was advocated as a means of avoiding disputes and securing identity of interest between employers and employed (5). Experience, however, shows that its introduction in the trades here under review has been rare, and generally unsuccessful. A scheme (6) was proposed in 1890, by the Thames Iron Works and Shipbuilding Company, by which, after a certain annual sum (10 per cent.) was reserved as interest on the shareholders' existing capital, the remainder of the profits should each year be equally divided between the company and those in their employ. The objects (7) of this scheme were "to unite the interests of all concerned in the works, to prevent the friction and loss arising from the antagonism of capital and labour, and to emphasize the fact that it is in the power of the workmen so to improve the work and economise the cost of labour as to enable the company to give them a share of the profits." The scheme, it was stated, would have given 27,000*l*. to the workmen's council (8). It was, however, rejected by the men by a majority of three to one. This was due, in the opinion of the representative of the firm, to mistrust (9) and want of comprehension (10) on the part of the men. A representative of the firm of Sir W. Armstrong & Co. (11), (engineering and shipbuilding,) stated that profit-sharing, except in the form of piecework, would be impossible in an establishment like his. A representative of the Enginemen, Firemen (12), &c., cited in favour of the system, a printing establishment at Hartlepool, but could furnish no instance in connection with his own trade. Mr. Whitwell (13), owner of blast-furnaces and rolling-mills, at Stocton-on-Tees, stated

* On July 31st, 1893, the Wages Board resolved that the sliding scale be re-established under a new premium and subject to two months' notice, "to "be given at a meeting of the Board and to expire at one of the bi-monthly "periods for which the rate of wages may be fixed." (The "Labour Tribune," August 5th, 1893.)

† It appeared convenient to deal with the subjects of Profit-Sharing and Co-operation at this stage, inasmuch as they were methods of industrial remuneration.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 103. Trow, 15,272-3. (2) Digest, Vol. II. p. 103, (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 103. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix 29. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 103. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 103. Thomas, 14,928. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 103. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. Snow, 13,966. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 99. Whitburn, 17,425. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 103. Hodge, 16,405. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 41. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 320, 326. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. xiii., 151. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Appendix 51. (15) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix 51. (16) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44. (17) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44. (18) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 151. (19) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (20) Digest, Vol. II., p. 41. (21) Digest, Vol. II., p. 45.

[§ 111.] that no system of profit-sharing is in operation in his works. At one time the firm gave premiums in coal and fettling for economy of materials and the yield of iron, but the practice was discontinued on account of the temptations it involved. Sir A. Hickman (1) (iron and steel manufacturer,) stated that a system of profit-sharing was "started in 1891, but until expiration of year no results can be given."

Co-operative production.

112. There is a strong feeling among some of the employers and the representatives of the nailmaking, cutlery, engineering, and shipbuilding industries, in favour of a system of co-operative production. It was urged that such a system would prevent the present mutually disadvantageous competition of the workpeople (2); that in it lay "the only hope of defeating the sweater" (3), and the only solution of various social problems (4); and that it would tend to the prevention of disputes (4); and that the increased share of the profits accruing to the workers would react advantageously on the industries themselves (4). A representative of the whitesmiths and cutlers of Sheffield argued (5) from the fact of the small capital required to set up a "little master" in business, that in his industry such a system could be easily established. There are, however, few instances of co-operative production in the above trades, and the experience gained from them is contradictory. The number of unsuccessful attempts appears from the evidence to be about equal to the number of successful attempts, and even in any one industry the efforts made to establish this system have not proved uniformly successful. Thus, a representative of the whitesmiths and cutlers of Sheffield (6) stated that, though he had attempted to introduce a system of co-operation in those industries, the union did not care to take it up. A co-operative factory was mentioned by the Sheffield file cutters (7) which failed, after eighteen years, from lack of sufficient capital, and bad and reckless management. Another society, formed in 1873 (8), for the manufacture of knives, nickel goods, scissors, &c., has however been hitherto successful, and was stated to be extending its operations. The profits in this society are divided into interest on the capital and bonuses to purchasing and labouring shareholders. Two small iron-plate or braziers factories (9) in the Worcestershire district were mentioned as successful productive co-operative establishments; on the other hand, one mentioned by the Glasgow Tin Plate Workers' Society (10) failed, "as the union cannot be employers as well, and it is against the interests of employers". A representative of the nailmaking (11) industry stated that want of money prevented its establishment in that industry, though such a system would be "a great blessing" (12). A co-operative society (13) was, however, set up in 1889 among the nailmakers of Bromsgrove, where it is said to be very successful. The profits are divided into halves; one half for the interest on the capital subscribed by members, the other for bonuses to the persons employed, in addition and in proportion to their wages. This society is looked upon with favour by employers, but has met with hostility from the "foggers." Facilities, it was stated, were offered to workmen by the firm of Sir W. Armstrong & Co. (14), to acquire an interest in the concern. A considerable number, from 50 to 100, availed themselves of the offer. On the other hand, the Ouseburn Co-operative Engineering Works (15), established at Newcastle, failed. It was stated that [§ 113.] this was due partly to mismanagement, partly to the hostility of the employers; and that the same men who lost money in it are willing to repeat the experiment. A co-operative system was established by the Grimsby branch of the Associated Shipwrights' Society (1), but "bad management and indifference of members stifled it, though it was a paying concern, and wound up with profit". A firm was mentioned by the Liverpool Shipwrights' Trade and Friendly Association (2), which was started some 20 years ago, and also failed. It may be noted that trade unions are prevented by the Provident Societies Act from lending funds to co-operative societies. A representative of the whitesmiths and cutlers of Sheffield (3) was of opinion that an amendment should be made by which they should be allowed to do so, in order to increase co-operative production; but that the alteration should be made in the Provident Societies' Act, and not in the Trades Union Act, since many organisations, like the Scissors Grinders' Union, are not registered under the latter Act.

Co-operative distribution.

113. Very few instances were given in the evidence of the existence of co-operative stores. A representative of the National Association of Blast Furnacemen (4) stated that several works in Scotland have established stores of this nature. There is no direct compulsion to the men to deal at the stores, but the fact that they are situated very near their houses affords a strong temptation to them to do so. From 2*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* 7*d.* in the £. is paid on the purchases. Shares are generally 5*s.* each. The employer has no capital invested in the stores. Little opportunity, it was stated, is given to the men of taking part in the management. They do not interest themselves in the meetings for electing committees for fear of dismissal. The stores are so unsatisfactory that the witness "would prefer that they should not exist at all" (5). There are two co-operative stores (6) for the sale of grocery and other provisions among the nailmakers of Halesowen in Worcestershire, to which a considerable number of the workpeople belong.

2. HOURS.

(i.) STATEMENT OF HOURS.

Sources of information.

114. The tabular statements of hours have been drawn chiefly from the Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions recently issued by the Board of Trade and the Return on "Hours of Labour" ordered by the House of Commons on the motion of Mr. Broadhurst (375, 1890). These details have been supplemented by the oral and written evidence received from employers and employed. The hours given in the above-mentioned Report were furnished by the Associations of Carpenters and Joiners, Shipwrights, Plumbers, Steel Smelters, Iron Moulders (Scotland), Pattern makers, Engineers, and Boilermakers. In the majority of these industries, the average number of hours worked in summer and winter was given for the years 1890 and 1891 for every district embraced by the association in question. The following tables show, firstly, the number of districts in the various trades which work a specified number of hours; and, secondly, the average number of hours worked over the whole country in the different industries included under this group.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. xxi., 333. (2) Digest, Vol. II. p. 56. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 59. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II. Question 18388. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 36. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 61. (6) Digest Vol. II., p. 61. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 133. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 64. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 135. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 155. (10) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 174. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56. (12) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Question 17661. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 59. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (15) Digest, Vol. III., p. 36.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 170. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 171. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 64, 137. (4) Digest Vol. II., p. 39. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Question 14396. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56.

[§ 114.]

TABLE I.—Number of Districts in the following industries, working 53 hours a week and under. 1891.*

Name of Industry.	Number of Districts.	REMARKS.
Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners (Ship).	21	Returns were given for 78 districts.
Associated Carpenters and Joiners (Ship).	3	Returns were given for 20 districts.
British Steel Smelters, 1890	None	Returns were given for 7 districts.
Associated Shipwrights	Summer, 12 Winter, 32	Returns were given for 60 districts. Returns were given for 56 districts.
Operative Plumbers	Summer, 50 Winter, 85	Returns were given for 124 districts. Returns were given for 118 districts.
Amalgamated Engineers	55	Returns were given for 212 districts.
Boilermakers	15	Returns were given for 58 districts. In one district, the hours are 57 from March to October.
Ironmoulders	48	Returns were given for 250 districts.
Pattern Makers	22	Returns were given for 52 districts.

TABLE II.—Number of Districts in the following Industries, working 54 hours per week. 1891.

Name of Industry.	Number of Districts.	REMARKS.
Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners (Ship).	55	Returns were given by the number of districts specified above.
Associated Carpenters and Joiners (Ship).	16	
British Steel Smelters, 1890	None.	
Associated Shipwrights	Summer, 41. Winter, 21.	
Operative Plumbers	Summer, 42. Winter, 25.	
Amalgamated Engineers	134	
Boilermakers	41	
Ironmoulders	171	
Pattern Makers	30	

[§ 114.]

TABLE III.—Number of Districts in the following In dustries, working over 54 hours and under 60 hours. 1891.

Name of Industry.	Number of Districts.	REMARKS.
Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners (Ship).	2	Returns were given by the number of districts specified above.
Associated Carpenters and Joiners (Ship).	1	
British Steel Smelters, 1890	None.	
Associated Shipwrights	Summer, 6. Winter, 3.	
Operative Plumbers	Summer, 31. Winter, 8.	
Amalgamated Engineers	16	
Boilermakers	2	
Ironmoulders	30	
Pattern Makers	None.	

TABLE IV.—Number of Districts in the following Industries, working 60 hours a week and over. 1891.

Name of Industry.	Number of District.	REMARKS.
Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners (Ship).	None.	Returns were furnished from the number of districts specified above.
Associated Carpenters and Joiners (Ship).	None.	
British Steel Smelters, 1890	7	
Associated Shipwrights	None.	
Operative Plumbers	Summer, 1. Winter, none.	
Amalgamated Engineers	None.	
Boilermakers	None.	
Ironmoulders	1	
Pattern Makers	None.	

* Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, Fifth Report.

[§ 114.] [§ 114.]

TABLE V.—Mean of Returns given of Number of Hours Worked per Week, 1891 (Industries arranged in Ascending Order).

Reference.	Industry.	Hours per Week.	REMARKS.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, pp. 189–93, Parliamentary Return, ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion by House of Commons (375, 1890), pp. 18–19. Digest, Group A., Vol. III., p. 40.	Operative Plumbers -	51·84	Returns of the number of hours worked per week, in the summer and winter of the year 1891, were given from 124 and 118 branches respectively, in the Fifth Report on Trade Unions. The average number of hours worked has been calculated from these details to be $53\frac{231}{445}$ and $50\frac{433}{536}$ hours in summer and winter respectively. The average for the whole year is $51\frac{2\,4\,7\,9\,7}{2\,4\,0\,4\,0}$ hours, *i.e.*, about 51·84 hours. In support of the accuracy of this estimate, the following points may be noted :—(1.) That the average similarly obtained for the year 1890 is $52\frac{89}{415}$ hours, and the average for the same year obtained from the Report ordered by the House of Commons, on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890), is $52\frac{1\,2\,7\,3\,9}{2\,4\,0\,4\,8}$ hours. (2.) In the oral evidence, the average number of hours was said to vary from 49 to 53. The average from this source would therefore be 51 hours.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, pp. 238–9. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XLIV. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 46–7. Anderson, 24, 338.	Associated Shipwrights	52·24	Returns of the number of hours worked per week, in the summer and winter of the year 1891, were given for 60 and 56 districts respectively, in the Fifth Report on Trade Unions. The average number of hours worked has been calculated from these details to be $54\frac{1}{170}$ and $51\frac{29}{170}$ hours, in summer and winter respectively. The average for the whole year is $52\frac{711}{1362}$ hours, *i.e.*, about 52·24 hours. In Appendix XLIV., the average number of hours worked on the Thames, the Mersey, the Tyne, at Barrow, and on the Clyde, were stated to be 51, 51·3, 52·5, 53 and 54 hours respectively. The arithmetic mean of these averages gives an average of 52·36 for all the districts, which tallies with the average obtained from the Trade Union Report. It may be also noted that Mr. Anderson, treasurer of the Ship Constructive Association, stated that the hours of shipwrights in private yards averaged about 52 hours five minutes throughout the year.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, pp. 210–7. Digest, Vol. III., p. 41.	Ironmoulders (Scotland).	52·76	Returns of the number of hours worked per week, in the year 1891, were given from 250, out of a possible 300 districts. The average number of hours worked was calculated to be $52\frac{38}{50}$, *i. e.* 52·76 hours.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 18–22. Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890, p. 32).	Iron Founders - -	53·5	The hours vary from 53 to 54 per week, with the exception of the district of Warrington, in Lancashire, where they were stated to vary from 11 to 13 per day, and from 54 to 72 per week. The average hours per week in the year 1890 were given for nine districts in the Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion. The average for the class of ironfounders as a whole obtained from these is $53\frac{17}{18}$ hours per week. This differs but slightly from the above estimate.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 43. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 8–10. Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr, Broadhurst's Motion, p. 30.	Brass Founders - -	53·5	In the oral and written evidence the hours were said to vary from 53 to 54 per week. The arithmetic mean has been taken as the average. This is, however, probably somewhat too low, for the following reasons :—(1.) It was stated that brassfounders generally follow the lead of the engineers in the matter of hours, and work about 54 hours per week. At Newcastle and Sunderland the hours are 53. (2.) The average obtained from Mr. Broadhurst's Return for the year 1890, $53\frac{3}{4}$, when the corresponding average for engineers was $53\frac{5}{6}$.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, pp. 217–8. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 29.	Pattern Makers - -	53·58	Returns of the number of hours worked per week, in 1891, were given in the Fifth Report on Trade Unions for 52 districts. From these details the average number of hours worked has been calculated to be $53\frac{3}{52}$ hours, *i.e.*, 53·58. In the written evidence, the hours were said to vary from 53 to 54 hours a week in the chief engineering centres in the United Kingdom; the average would therefore be 53·5. This is in almost exact agreement with the estimate given.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, pp. 167–179. Parliamentary Returns ordered by the House of Commons on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890), pp. 12–15. Digest, Vol. III., p. 31.	Ship Carpenters and Joiners.	53·64	Returns of the number of hours worked per week in the summer and winter of the year 1891, were given for 39 districts belonging to the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners (Ship). The average number of hours worked was calculated to be $53\frac{39}{56}$ and $53\frac{15}{19}$ hours. in summer and winter respectively. The average for the whole year is $53\frac{5\,4}{1\,0\,0}$ hours. Similarly, ship carpenters and joiners, belonging to the Associated Carpenters and Joiners, work on an average, $53\frac{3}{4}$ hours (*i.e.*, in 20 districts). Taking the returns given for the Amalgamated and Associated Carpenters and Joiners together, the average number of hours worked by ship carpenters, &c. in 1891, is $53\frac{1\,3\,3}{2\,4\,8}$, *i.e.*, 53·64 hours. In support of the accuracy of this estimate, the following points may be noted :—(1.) That the average similarly obtained for the year 1890 is $53\frac{2\,6\,2\,3}{4\,8\,8}$ hours, and the average obtained for the same year from the Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion, is $53\frac{3}{56}$ hours. (2.) In the oral evidence, the hours of joiners were stated to average 54 per week.
"Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions," pp. 219–234. Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890), p. 301. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 16–18.	Amalgamated Engineers.*	53·84	Returns of the number of hours worked per week in 1891 were given in the Fifth Report on Trade Unions for 212 districts. From these details, the average number of hours worked per week has been calculated to be $53\frac{7\,1\,5}{8\,4\,8}$, *i.e.*, 53·84. In support of the accuracy of this estimate, the following points may be noted :—(1.) That the average similarly obtained for 55 districts from the Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890) is $53\frac{4}{5}$, *i.e.*, 53·72 hours. (2.) In the written evidence, the hours vary from 53 to 54 per week. The arithmetic mean would be 53·5 hours.
"Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions," pp. 235–7. Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890), pp. 54–5. Digest, Vol. III., p. 23.	Boilermakers * - -	53·84	Returns of the number of hours worked per week in 1891 were given in the Fifth Report on Trade Unions for 58 districts. From these details, the average hours worked per week has been calculated to be $53\frac{9\,7}{1\,8\,0}$, *i.e.*, 53·84 hours. It may be noted that the average obtained for the year 1890 from Mr. Broadhurst's Return was $53\frac{1\,8}{3\,2\,9}$, *i.e.*, 53·69 hours, for 46 districts. It was stated in the oral evidence that the union does not allow its members to work more than 54 hours a week, unless paid for as overtime, and in most districts the hours have been reduced during the last few years to 53, exclusive of meal times.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 42 - -	Blacksmiths - -	54	It was stated in the oral evidence that all members of the Associated Blacksmiths' Society have a uniform working week of 54 hours.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890), p. 55.	Bargebuilders (Thames)	54	The hours in unionist yards were stated to be 54 per week, and $56\frac{1}{2}$ per week in non-unionist yards.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 38. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 30.	Blast Furnacemen (Cumberland and Lancashire).	56	It was stated that, in these districts, "at all continuous work of a heavy nature eight hours is worked; about five-sixths of the men work eight hours. Some men work nine hours." The average hours per week have been calculated on the assumption that the men work seven days a week.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 50 - -	Millmen (Scotland) -	67	It was stated that work is carried on for six days a week. On five days, the hours are 12 per day, and on Saturday the men stop at three. It has been estimated that the men begin work on Saturdays at 6 a.m., as in the iron and steel works in the North of England.
"Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions," p. 207. Digest, Vol. II., p. 52.	Steel Smelters (1890) -	67·36	Returns are given in the Fifth Report on Trade Unions, showing the average weekly hours in seven districts. The average (*i.e.*, arithmetic mean) obtained from these is $67\frac{2}{7}$, *i.e.*, 67·36 hours per week. It may be noted in support of the accuracy of the above estimate :—(1.) That, in the oral evidence, it was stated that the average working week for steel smelters is 67 hours.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 47 - -	Millmen (North of England).	68	It was stated in the oral evidence that millmen work 12 hours a day for five days, and eight on Saturdays. This statement applies to West Cumberland, Barrow, Lancashire, Yorkshire, North Staffordshire, South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire, and the North of England.
Digest, Vol. II., pp. 46–7 - -	Puddlers (North of England).	70	It was stated in the oral evidence given with regard to the iron and steel workers in the above districts that puddlers work 12 hours a day for five days and 10 hours on Saturdays. In other parts of the country there were said to be no fixed hours for puddlers.
Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890), p. 33.	Blast Furnacemen (South Staffordshire and Wrexham).	71	The hours were stated to be 70 a week in South Staffordshire, and 72 in Wrexham. The arithmetic mean has been taken as the average.
"Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions," p. 207. Digest, Vol. II., p. 52.	Gas Producermen (1890)	81	Returns are given in the Fifth Report on Trade Unions, which show that the average number of hours worked in each of seven districts is 81 per week. On the other hand, it was stated in the oral evidence that gas producers work, on an average, 78 hours a week, because they are relieved in turns on Saturday night.
Parliamentary Return ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's Motion (375, 1890), p. 33. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 30, 368. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 38, 40, 49.	Blast Furnacemen (Cleveland, Durham, Ayrshire, Lanarkshire, and South Wales).	84	Blast furnacemen in these districts are employed in 12-hour shifts. On Sunday and Sunday night, they work one long shift of 24 hours; but it was stated, in Cleveland, &c., that the work is so arranged that the men have in turns an off Sunday and Sunday night, each alternate week.

* *Cf.* Wages, Table XI., for effect of Union on rates of wages

[§ 115.]

Method of dealing with above information.

115. In obtaining the average number of hours worked per week in the following industries, it will be seen from the marginal notes to the table that the same plan has been adopted throughout. Thus, in the Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, returns were given of the number of hours worked on an average per week in the summer and winter of the year 1891 for 124 and 118 branches respectively, of the United Operative Plumbers, Association. From these, it appeared that in the summer of 1891 the members in—

1	district	worked	on an average	60 hours a week.
1	,,	,,	,,	59 ,,
2	,,	,,	,,	57 ,,
13	,,	,,	,,	56½ ,,
5	,,	,,	,,	56 ,,
1	,,	,,	,,	55½ ,,
2	,,	,,	,,	55 ,,
6	,,	,,	,,	54½ ,,
42	,,	,,	,,	54 ,,
9	,,	,,	,,	53 ,,
1	,,	,,	,,	52½ ,,
4	,,	,,	,,	52 ,,
3	,,	,,	,,	51½ ,,
12	,,	,,	,,	51 ,,
2	,,	,,	,,	50 ,,
7	,,	,,	,,	49½ ,,
4	,,	,,	,,	49 ,,
1	,,	,,	,,	48 ,,
7	,,	,,	,,	47 ,,

It was calculated from the above that the average number of hours worked over the whole of the 124 districts from which returns were obtained in the summer of 1891, was $53\frac{37}{248}$ hours. Similarly, the number of hours worked in the winter of the same year was found to be $50\frac{133}{248}$ hours. The average for the whole year, taking the arithmetic mean, is therefore about 51·84 hours. A similar method of calculation was adopted in dealing with the returns given in the other industries, and it may be noted that the conclusions obtained by this process are frequently verified by the information obtained from other sources. The process of obtaining the average number of hours worked by ship carpenters and joiners was somewhat more complicated. Returns were furnished by the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, and by the Associated Carpenters and Joiners; in the former case the average was given for summer and winter separately; in the latter case, the average was given for the whole year. The average for the ship carpenters and joiners belonging to the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners was calculated as before, and the mean was then found between this result and a result similarly obtained for members of the Associated Carpenters and Joiners.

Uniformity in number of hours worked in different districts and in different industries.

116. It may be noted, in connection with the above tables, that the number of hours worked on an average in the different districts in any one industry is comparatively uniform. Thus, in 1890, the pattern makers in 41 districts were stated to work on an average 54 hours a week, and in eight districts, 53 hours a week. In 1891, 54 hours were worked on an average in 30 districts, and 53 in 22 districts. Similarly, among the ironmoulders in Scotland, in 1891, 171 districts were working 54 hours a week, 48 districts between 51 and 54 hours, and 31 districts between 56 and 60 hours. A similar uniformity is shown in the above table to exist between the number of hours worked on an average in the more highly organised industries under consideration. With the exception of the blast furnacemen, the steel smelters and gas producers, the millmen and the puddlers, and certain other industries not included in the table, the average number of hours worked varies from 51 to 54 per week. It was stated by Mr. Dunlop that when full time is kept, the hours worked by all trades directly connected with engineering and shipbuilding average 54 per week. The length of each working day is so arranged as to admit of the afternoon of every Saturday throughout the year being a half holiday. The summer arrangements in some districts, he stated, provide for every alternate Saturday being an entire holiday, and the hours are made up in the course of the eleven days worked each fortnight. This witness further asserted that the length of the hours worked per day or per week was not a tax upon the muscular energy of any man in good health. Moreover, although the members of some trades keep good time, no department can be said to work the full number of hours in respect of the full number of men employed (1).

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 52.

[§ 117.]

Hours of blast furnacemen.

117. With regard to the length of the hours worked by the blast-furnacemen in Cleveland, the following statement was made in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions addressed to the Cleveland Ironmasters' Association: "It is necessary for a portion of the "furnacemen, about 25 per cent., to be constantly at "the works, as the blast-furnaces are practically in "operation year in and year out without ceasing. This "portion of the blast-furnacemen (divided into two "shifts and one shift waiting to be relieved by the next "shift) are in attendance 12 hours on the day shift and "12 hours on the night shift. The work is, however, "so regulated that the men have in turns an off Sunday "and Sunday night each alternate week. It cannot, "strictly speaking, be regarded as 84 hours per week of "actual work for any of the men, as although this "25 per cent. of the men are in attendance 12 hours "per day, about one and a-half hours must be deducted "for meals; thus leaving for this section of the men, "on the assumption that they work continuously except "at meal times . . . 73½ hours per week; but the "10½ hours must be subjected to some deduction. The "men have a certain amount of work to do, which, it is "estimated, does not usually occupy them more than "about three-quarters of their time. The other 75 per "cent. of the furnacemen work, on an average, on each "of the seven days, after allowing for meal times, about "nine hours" and are, therefore, employed for 63 hours per week (1). Nevertheless, the blast-furnacemen in the district, complain that the length of hours is detrimental both to the health and character of the men. In Scotland, moreover, they state that the nominal hours of 12 are practically extended to 13 or 14, because, owing to the scarcity of men, the two shifts have to overlap in order to perform the casting process. Similarly, the nominal hours of 24 on Sundays are sometimes extended to 25 or longer for a certain section of the men employed (2).

Hours in other industries, not given in Table V.

(a.) *Nail and chain trades.*

118. No mention has been made in the above table of the number of hours worked in the nail and chain trades, and in the cutlery and other trades in Sheffield.

(a.) In the Parliamentary Return on the Hours of Labour ordered on Mr. Broadhurst's motion in 1890, the hours in the chain and nail-making industry were given by the employers as follows (3):—

Branch of Industry.	District.	Average Hours per Week.
Chain making - - -	Cradley Heath - -	52½
Chain making - - -	Old Hill - - - -	52
Nail making - - -	Old Hill - - - -	56
Chain cable making -	Dudley - - - -	40

It is not stated in these returns whether the estimate given of the number of hours worked per week is based on the assumption that employment can only be obtained, generally speaking, for a few days in any one week. It was stated by the representatives of the spike nail makers that there was no "standard" number of hours for males. Females were supposed to work from 7 a.m. to 7 p.m., but it was alleged that in practice, both the women and children employed in the industry work "illegally long hours." The operatives are, however, employed at piece-work, and therefore enjoy considerable liberty in the time of starting and finishing work (4).

(b.) *Whitesmiths, cutlers, &c. (Sheffield).*

(b.) The hours of whitesmiths, cutlers, &c., in Sheffield were stated to vary from 50 to an "unlimited" number of hours per week. "Daymen" in the Silver Plate and Britannia Metal trades work on an average 56 and 54 hours a week respectively. "Piece-men" were stated to work for shorter hours, but they are employed less regularly. In the latter trade they do not average more than 30 hours a week in the slack season, and in busy times they work about 10 hours a day. In the Engineer's Tool Making trade the hours average about 54 per week. The Pen and Pocket Knife Cutlers work 65 hours a week and the Razor Scale Pressers, 12 hours a day. It was stated that no stipulated number of hours exists among the file forgers, the fork forgers, the scissors forgers, the table knife blade forgers, and the pen and pocket knife blade forgers. The hours

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 683. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 38.
(3) Parliamentary Return (375, 1890), p. 34. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 43.

worked by the file-smiths and steel fork manufacturers and forgers were said to be "unlimited." It may be noted that the representatives of the Scissors Grinders' Association, the spring knife and table knife cutlers, and the file cutters complain that much time is lost during the week waiting in the warehouses for the work to be given out to them. The men are obliged to make up for the time thus lost by working long hours (1).

119. It may be noted that the hours of labour have been reduced considerably in recent years in the majority of the industries under consideration.

Recent reduction in hours.

TABLE VI.—Table showing recent reductions in the Hours of Labour, obtained from the Return on Hours of Labour ordered by the House of Commons on the motion of Mr. Broadhurst (375, 1890).

Class of Labour.	Mean of Returns given of hours per week in 1850.	Mean of Returns given of hours per week in 1860.	Mean of Returns given of hours per week in 1870.	Mean of Returns given of hours per week in 1880.	Mean of Returns given of hours per week in 1890.	REMARKS.
Operative plumbers	—	—	—	—	52·5	The average hours in the summer of 1890 was calculated to be 54 $\frac{39}{234}$ in 117 districts, and in the winter of 1890, 50$\frac{5}{12}$ in 112 districts. The average for the whole year is, therefore, 52 $\frac{1}{2}\frac{7}{3}\frac{3}{4}$, *i.e.* about 52½ hours.
Shipwrights	58	57·1	55·3	51·6	51·4	The returns are given for three districts, and the arithmetic mean has been taken in each case.
Ironfounders	60·4	58·9	57·8	53·8	53·9	The hours in 1850 and the succeeding years were given for three, four, five and nine districts respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken in each case.
Brassworkers	59·5	57	55·6	54	53·6	The hours in 1850 and 1860 were given for two districts and for three districts in 1870, 1880 and 1890. The arithmetic mean has been taken in each case.
Pattern makers	60	60	55·5	54	54	The hours in 1850 and 1860 were given for five districts and for six districts in 1870, 1880, and 1890. The arithmetic mean has been taken in each case.
Ship carpenters and joiners.	—	—	54·9	53·6	53·5	The hours in 1870, 1880 and 1890, were given for the summer and winter of each year for 20, 31, and 40 districts respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken in each case.
Engineers	59·3	59	58	54	53·7	The hours in the years 1850 to 1890 were given for 34, 38, 47, 53 and 55 districts respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken in each case.
Bargebuilders (Thames)	63	58·5	58·5	56·5 and 58·5	54	
Boilermakers	60	59·5	57·6	53·9	53·7	The hours in the years 1850 to 1890 were given for 28, 32, 37, 42 and 46 districts respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken in each case.

It appears from the above table that the greatest reduction, amounting to nine hours a week, has taken place among the bargebuilders on the Thames. Among the shipbuilders, the ironfounders, the pattern makers, and the boilermakers, the hours have been shortened by six to six-and-a-half hours a week, and among the engineers and brass workers, by between five-and-a-half and six. Formerly, it was stated, there were no fixed hours for puddlers. They were employed to do six heats a day and each man was at liberty to leave off as soon as he had finished his task. The period of time occupied for this purpose was about thirteen hours, but it varied from day to day and between one man and another. In 1872 an award was made by Sir Rupert Kettle, fixing the hours for puddlers in the North of England at an average of eleven per day throughout the week. Their hours at the present time are only slightly above this average (1).

120. In conclusion, two points remain to be noticed, viz., the amount and remuneration of Sunday work and the question of overtime.

(*a.*) Complaints with regard to the former were brought forward by the representatives of the blast furnacemen and British steel smelters. The owners of blast furnaces assert that the boilers and the quality of iron produced would be seriously affected by the variations in temperature consequent on a weekly stoppage. The men claim, on the other hand, that the loss of coal caused by damping down the furnaces on Sunday is nothing in comparison to giving the men a Sunday at home. "I cannot understand," Mr. Snow stated, "either a ton of coal or a ton of bread being so "valuable as a man's Sunday to him. I think a man's "Sunday is more to him either than a ton of bread or a "ton of coal." In the opinion of the blast furnacemen it would be quite possible to do away with Sunday work, if all firms agreed to abolish it at the same time (2). The steel smelters under the present system on the north-east coast of England start work on Sunday at 6 p.m., and in Scotland at 8 p.m., except in one firm, where work does not begin till midnight. In the north-west coast of England some firms do not start working till midnight, others begin at 6 p.m. or 9 p.m. In South Wales, midnight is the usual time except in a few cases. In one or two firms in Sheffield no work is done on Sunday before 12 p.m., and this was formerly the usual time at Rotherham. In this district, it was asserted that the men had, through lack of organisation, permitted their day of rest to be encroached on by the majority of the employers, and, at the present time, the hour varies from 4 p.m. to midnight (3).

(*b.*) Details with regard to the extent to which overtime is worked were given by the Amalgamated Society of Engineers and by the Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society in the Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions to which previous reference has been made. The districts belonging to the former Society, in which little or no overtime, systematic overtime or overtime to the extent of 18 hours per month, is worked, were given in a Report specially prepared for the Commission by the Amalgamated Society of Engineers (2). According to this Report, little or no systematic overtime is worked in 59 districts, representing 8,745 or 15·8 per cent. of the members of the society. Systematic overtime is worked when trade is good in 61 districts, representing 39,630, or 71·7 per cent. of the members. Overtime is restricted to 18 hours per month in five districts, viz., Newcastle, Hartlepool, Middlesbrough, Stockton, and Hull. These together represent 6,906 or 12·5 per cent. of the members of the society. Generally speaking the rate of remuneration varies from time-and-a-quarter to time-and-a-half. "Bare time" is stated to be paid in 18 districts out of 154 in which the rate of payment is given. In these 18 districts, with the exception of Keighley, Leeds, and Stalybridge, the number of members of the society varies from 18 to 88 (3). Little or no overtime is worked by the members of the Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society in 27 out of 44 districts. The amount of overtime is restricted, either to eight hours per week, half a day per week for one man in ten, or two half days by a limited number of men each week, &c., in 13 out of 44 districts. In the others, it was stated not to be worked systematically, but only "as required" or "moderately." The rate of remuneration varies from time-and-a-quarter to time-and-a-half. In some cases it is stipulated by the Union that "every day's overtime (is) to stand for "itself. All percentages on overtime (are) to be paid "by the employers, and (are) not to come out of the "contracts of members working piece-work" (4). The rate for overtime among the shipwrights, the pattern makers, the ironfounders, and the brass founders varies from ordinary time to time and a-quarter and double time (5). It was stated by the representatives of the boiler makers and ship builders that systematic overtime is far too common and ought to be discouraged (6). With a view, it was asserted, to secure regular employment for as many of its members as possible, the Carpenters and Joiners' Association has forbidden the working of overtime in the Tyne district, in the case of new work, by more than six joiners a vessel and for

(1) Digest, Vol. II. pp. 46–7. (2) Snow, 14133, Digest, Vol. II., pp. 38, 40–41. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 52–3.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 62–66. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 12–16 (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XLVI. (3) "Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions," pp. 219–33. (4) Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, pp. 235–8. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 44–5. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 46–7, 29, 18–22, 8–10. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 26.

120 (*b.*)] more than half a day. Moreover, in order to take full advantage of the overtime, the employers are obliged to engage all the six men at once. Exceptional cases which seem to justify any breach of these rules are, it was stated, referred to the Union District Committee (1). The Society of Operative Plumbers in some districts fines its members for working systematic overtime when other members are out of work, but it recognises the necessity of overtime in cases of emergency (2). Some trades forbid their members to work overtime under any circumstances, unless the employer has previously procured written permission from their secretary and council. The Amalgamated Engineers' Society limits the amount of overtime to 12 hours per man per week, or, if continued, to 18 hours per man for four weeks. The Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society limits the amount to a total of 32 hours per month, and the joiners grant 203 quarters of a day at the finish of a vessel. Shipwrights, on the other hand, refuse to give any definite undertaking to work overtime at all, but they are generally ready to do so in cases of emergency (3). The employers assert that it is impossible to carry on their work satisfactorily in view of the restrictions imposed by these unions (4). The demands for overtime to a certain extent, but not entirely, can be foreseen and arranged for, and recourse can sometimes be had to a double shift. But, in the case of repairs or breakdowns, the extent of the work to be done, or the time it may occupy, may not permit a system of relay work. Thus, in some departments of work, such as graving-docks, and in districts where purely repairing shops exist, overtime is chronic, and little or no attempt is made to interfere with it. The unions chiefly impose their restrictions in the case of new work, and the employers assert that overtime is only resorted to for this class of work in the engineering and shipbuilding trades in cases of absolute necessity. Overtime in this industry, Mr. Dunlop stated, is a necessity that cannot by any means be dispensed with. The employers were unanimous in the opinion that moderate overtime was necessarily a loss in consequence of the high rates of wages, and that systematic overtime was a costly method of production and against their own interests. Moreover, they asserted that the unions themselves prevent the abolition of overtime by insisting on the payment of night shifts at overtime rates. Under these circumstances, the employers stated that they naturally prefer to keep on their own men rather than a special shift which would require more supervision (5). "The "employers claim that without asserting the right to "order systematic and unlimited overtime, they alone "are competent to define its limits when emergencies "arise which make it necessary. . . It is not to "the interest of the employer to work systematic "overtime, it is directly against his interest" (6).

(ii.) LIMITATION OF HOURS BY LAW. "THE EIGHT HOURS DAY."

Extent of desire in industries under consideration for an eight hours day.

121. Much difference of opinion exists amongst the representatives of the industries in this group on the question of the limitation of the hours of labour. The National Society of Blastfurnacemen, and the Amalgamated Society of Enginemen, Firemen, and Boilermen, are strongly in favour of an eight hours day (7). The only instance of any definite demand amongst the iron and steel workers comes from the Associated Society of Scotch Millmen, and even in this case the executive of the union has never taken the votes of the men on the subject (8). In the Associated Blacksmiths' Society, a small majority of votes was obtained about three years ago (*i.e.*, in 1889) in favour of the eight hours day, but the witness inferred from the fact that very few voted at all, that the majority were really against legal restriction (9). The men engaged in the grinding trades, the boltsmiths, the spring and table knife cutlers, and the brass-founders, are all in favour of an eight hours' day, voluntary or legal. The file cutters would accept it under certain conditions, "without serious objection". The representatives of the Sheffield Silver Plate Protection Society and the Britannia Metal Smiths' Union, approved strongly of the proposal (1). The Amalgamated Society of Engineers have passed a vote in favour of an eight hours day by a very large majority (2). Two of the representatives of the boilermakers and iron shipbuilders, an employer in the same industry, and the secretary of the bargebuilders, also approved of the proposal. Finally, the secretary of the Southside Labour Protection League, a worker in the Woolwich Arsenal, and the representative of the Pembroke Branch of the Ship Constructive Association, also advocated an eight hours day (3). On the other hand, it appears from the evidence given by Mr. Trow, general secretary of the Associated Iron and Steel Workers of Great Britain, that the great majority of the men belonging to this society are strongly against an eight hours day. In the steel industries, the puddlers also offer a steady opposition to the proposal of their employers to reduce their hours. The iron moulders and the lock and key smiths, the secretary of the Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society (Mr. Knight), all the employers belonging to the Iron Trades Employers' Associations (4), the ironmasters of Cleveland (5), and the Director of Dockyards, are distinctly opposed to an eight hours day (6). [§ 121.]

Arguments in favour of an eight hours day.

(*a.*) *Non-economic. That the hours of work are excessive.* (*i.*) *in themselves.*

122 (*a.*) In a few trades the demand for a legal eight hours day arises from dissatisfaction with the present length of hours in themselves. It is mainly on this ground that the blastfurnacemen base their claim. Considering the arduous nature of their employment, they urge that their hours are oppressively long, especially in Scotland. It may be noted that in the industries here under review this is the chief instance of the demand springing directly from this cause (7). In other cases it is mentioned incidentally. A shipwright in a Government dockyard was of opinion that "in eight hours . . . a man thoroughly exhausts himself, and if he were employed for 10 or 12, I do not think (he said) he would do a great deal more work continuously" (8). But the demand for legal limitation of the hours seems more often to arise from the excessive hours, consequent on systematic overtime. Apart from the grievance of "systematic overtime" * there would be little demand, in many industries, for a compulsory eight hours day. This is shown by the evidence of the bargebuilders, the engineers, and the workers in Government dockyards and arsenals. Thus, a representative of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers referred to systematic overtime as a "standing grievance", another "complained grievously" of it, a third regarded its abolition as a "necessary preliminary" to an eight hours day" (9). "We consider it unfair," said a shipwright in the Portsmouth Dockyard, "to introduce systematic overtime . . . . We ask that "systematic overtime should be abolished altogether" (10). The advocates of an eight hours day claim that the reduction in hours and abolition of overtime, if obtained, would result in moral and physical benefit to the employed. It was stated by a blast furnaceman from Cleveland that the length of the 12-hours' shift, which was liable to be extended, was detrimental to both the health and the character of the men. They grow prematurely old, and owing to rapid exposure to extremes of heat and cold, their lungs are often affected (11). Mr. Walls, the representative of the blast furnacemen in Cumberland, said that in his district in which the eight hours day had already been obtained, the moral and physical condition of the men had distinctly improved. This was witnessed by the fact that 50 per cent. more men belong to the temperance association now than before, and that 20 to 25 per cent. less money was spent in sick relief by friendly societies in 1891 than in any of the five preceding years (12). Mr. Allan, of Sunderland, who has introduced the eight hours day in his firm, said, that as far as his experience had gone he had found that the attendance had been much more regular and punctual, and that a great physical improvement had been shown in the workers, especially in the boys (13). The Managing Director of the Thames Ironworks Shipbuilding Company referred to the bad effect of overtime on the physique of the men and its tendency to divide them into two classes, one of which is overworked and the other out of employment (14).

(*ii.*) *The excess is partly due to systematic overtime.*

That it would be a moral and physical gain to the employed.

* See also *supra*, Section 120 (*b.*).

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 31. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 51, 53. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 53. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 46, 48, 51, 53. (6) Price, 26285, 26302. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 89–90. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 91. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 35. (3) Digest, Vol. III. p. 79. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 78, 79, 80. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 89. (8) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 24, 416. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 78. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 79. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 89. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90. (13) Minutes of Evidence taken before the Commission (Sitting as a Whole), Jan. 24, 1893. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44.

§ 122 (b.)] .) *Economic. That it ould tend absorb the nemployed nd to pro- uce greater egularity of ork.*

That its doption is asy in ertain dustries.

That it ould not ppreciably ecrease the ost of pro- uction, or ecrease the ate of ages.

(*b.*) Another argument brought forward for the abolition of overtime and the introduction of a legal eight hours day is that by a more equal distribution of work it would lead to the employment of surplus labour. Thus, Mr. Whitburn, the representative of the Enginemen, Firemen, and Boilermen's Amalgamated Union, advocated an eight hours day, principally because by this means employment could be found for the large amount of surplus labour in the country. The existence of this was, in his opinion, such a strong argument in favour of the proposed change as to throw the burden of proof on the other side (1). The representative of the Sheffield metal smiths took a similar line. "A legal eight hours "day, or a working week of 48 hours, would conduce to "the benefit of the workers generally: while it would "decrease the output in certain industries and tend in a "small degree to reduce wages, the benefit derived by "calling into demand the surplus labour of the country "would outweigh any inconvenience or loss sustained by "those now in full work" (2). An engineer complained that systematic overtime resulted in "ten per cent. of "the members going idle," and Mr. Quelch of the South Side Protection League held that the chief object of an eight hours day was to provide employment for those able and willing to work. If a legal limit of eight hours proved insufficient for this purpose he would even "go "for a four hours' limit, until they had reached the "irreducible minimum of work which it was necessary "for everyone to perform." It was also claimed that an eight hours day would result in greater regularity of work. One shipwright desired it on the ground that it would be preferable to have a day of uniform length rather than long days in summer and short ones in winter (3). The Secretary of the Chatham Dockyard Labourers' Protection League expressed a fear lest the fixed sum of money annually appropriated to dockyard wages should be expended, in consequence of systematic overtime, before the end of the year, with the result that the staff would be reduced. He asked "for the "48 hours a week with a view to spreading the work "over a larger period" (4). It is further claimed that its adoption would be easy in certain industries and especially in work in blast furnaces. This lends itself more easily than almost any other to the eight hours' day. As the nature of the work does not admit of stoppage, the adoption of three eight-hour shifts instead of two twelve-hour shifts would be just as practicable. The best proof of this lay, it was stated, in the success of the experiment of three eight-hour shifts in Cumberland. Mr. Walls stated that the eight hours' day had been obtained in that district without a strike, through the action of a joint committee, and that at the last annual meeting the employers had said that they would not restore the twelve-hours shift even if they could (5). A representative of the puddlers said that he "did not "know any trade that was more adapted to an eight hours' "day" than his own. He further stated that the employers in the puddling industry would prefer the three shift to the two shift system, because under the former the output of each furnace would be increased by 33 per cent The efforts of the employers and of the executive of the men's union, in the direction of limiting the hours, however, have been completely non-plussed by the steady opposition of the men themselves (6). The successful introduction of an eight hours day in the works of Mr. Hadfield, a steel manufacturer at Sheffield (7), Mr. Allan and Messrs. Short, engine-builders and ship-builders in Sunderland, show that it has been found practicable in those trades (8). The advocates of an eight hours day finally state that it would not lead to any appreciable increase in the cost of production, and hence that the rate of wages would be only very slightly decreased. The increased efficiency of the work would compensate for the shorter hours. The experience gained from the actual experiments of an eight hour day supported the view. It was stated that the blast furnacemen in Cumberland were earning almost as much as they earned when they worked on the twelve-hours shift (only 2*d.* a day less). The reduction in hours had only increased the cost of production from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 3*d.* per ton (*i.e.* by about 12½ per cent.) because under the shorter hours the men do not have to "lay off" owing to overwork, and therefore fewer hands per shift are necessary (9). Mr. Allan of Sunderland. also gave evidence to the effect that with an eight hours' day he was able to pay his men the same wages as before, and that the cost of production, "if anything, is a little less" (10). In a letter from Messrs. Short of Sunderland, it was stated that "the introduction "of the eight hours day had more than met their expecta- "tions. (They) were paying considerably more wages, and "consequently turning out more work" (11). The representatives of the Enginemen, Firemen, and Boilermen's Amalgamated Society, and of the Sheffield metal smiths, both acknowledge that a possible lessening of output and diminution of wages might be the result of the limitation of the hours of labour. But they contend that the employment of surplus labour would out-weigh this disadvantage (12).

[§ 122 (b.)]

Summary of arguments in favour of an eight hours day.

123. The arguments urged by the advocates of an eight hours day in the industries under review are these: Firstly, that it would call into demand a large part of the surplus labour of the country; secondly, that it would result in moral and physical benefit to the employed; thirdly, that it would involve no appreciable economic loss to the community.

Arguments against an eight hours day.

(a.) Non-economic. That there is no real need nor any general desire for it.

124. (*a.*) On the other hand, the opponents of the eight hours' day in the first place deny that the present length of working hours is excessive. It was stated by the employers, that as far as the blast furnacemen were concerned, the hours were not as long in practice as they appeared. Though nominally twelve, the men were at work less than ten and a-half hours. An ironmaster from Cleveland distinguished carefully between being "on duty" and "at work" (13). It was stated by Mr. Knight, the secretary of the Boiler-makers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society for the United Kingdom, that a legal eight hours' day was unnecessary in his trade, because the average hours in ship-building yards are now less than eight (*i.e.*, 1891). Mr. Seaton also asserted that in the case of laborious work, such as boilermaking, and in the case of those on "day "work", the average hours now worked were less than eight (14). With regard to the complaint of excessive overtime, a member of the Iron Trades Employers' Association stated that the amount worked was "trifling"; another denied that it was "systematic." (15) "One only "uses overtime when one cannot help it," as "systematic "overtime is simply ruinous." But one employer acknowledged that it was "very continuously worked."

(b.) Economic. That it is absolutely impossible to abolish overtime.

(*b*). It was said, however, to be absolutely impossible to abolish overtime in certain industries. Speaking for the men in the shipyards, Mr. Knight said that an eight hours' day could not be enforced unless overtime were prohibited, and "it is perfectly impossible to do away "with all overtime." This is especially the case in the repairing branch of the trade. "Perhaps two or three "thousand hands are dependent upon the repairing of the "boiler for the starting of the engine in the morning." "It is perfectly impossible to stop a job at a given point." (16) For similar reasons, the members of the Iron Trades Employers' Association asserted unanimously that an eight-hours' day was impracticable. One of them instanced the contingency of a ship wanting repairs at once, in order to enable it get off at high tide (17). Another argued that there were not always enough capable workmen to supply a special night shift in times of pressure. A third stated, that "we have endeavoured "to work the night shift and double gang system, and we "have never succeeded . . . . the difficulty of any person "taking up the bit of work that another man has com- "menced is very great, and the difficulty of apportioning "the blame for mistakes is enormous." (18) Again, it was said that any restriction of overtime would press very hardly upon young growing firms, because it would destroy their opportunity of taking work at remunerative prices during periods of good trade. This would limit the amount of production in proportion to the fixed expenses. The only way of maintaining the output, were overtime to be thus restricted, would be by sinking capital in the extension of the works and the machinery, which, however, in dull times, would lie unproductive and unremunerative. (19) "Systematic" overtime in Government Dockyards was stated to be against the Admiralty regulations. It would be very difficult to abolish it altogether, for it is not always possible to man a second shift, owing to the distance at which all Government yards are situated from the centres of the great shipbuilding industry. Even if this difficulty were overcome, it would involve a departure from the approved policy of preserving, as far as possible, uniformity in the number employed. (20) It was also denied that all the men disliked overtime. One employer, who dis-

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Question 19030. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Question 21572. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Question 24,047–8. (5) Digest Vol. II., pp. 89, 90. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 91. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 78. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90.

(10) Minutes of Evidence taken before the Commission (Sitting as a Whole). 14th Day; 24th January 1893. (11) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Question 21,204. (12) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 90, 92. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 80. (15) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 79, 80. (16) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Questions 20,825, 20,828. (17) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47. (18) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Question 25,738. (19) Digest, Vol. III., p. 48. (20) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64.

approved of overtime unless absolutely necessary, said that the men were "much too willing" to resort to it. Another stated that, though the unions object to it, many of the men liked it. The general opinion of the employers was summarised by one of them in the following statement: "To do away with all overtime would "be exceedingly inconvenient and detrimental to all con- "cerned, to the customer, the employer and, I think, to "the men themselves." (1) But even if these practical difficulties could be overcome, there remains one objection which, in the opinion of the employers, would be more fatal than any other. This is the increase in the cost of production. An ironmaster from Cleveland stated, in opposition to a blast-furnaceman from Cumberland, that this increased cost of production could not be estimated at less than 33 per cent., and would probably be more, even if the men would consent to receive lower wages, and to forego the bonus now paid, which was doubtful. He did not believe that a compensating economy could be brought about by reducing the number of men employed about the yards. He referred to the fact that the West Cumberland Works had just closed their last furnace, which he thought might "probably" be in consequence of the introduction of the three shift system. (2) In the present state of foreign competition any increase in the cost of production was a "very serious matter." (3) This last assertion is supported by the Memorandum drawn up by the British Iron Trade Association, in which it is stated, that "out of a total of 24,404,000 tons of pig "iron produced by the five leading nations in 1890, and "10,273,000 tons in 1870—

	In 1890.	As compared with 1870.
Great Britain produced	32 per cent.	58 per cent.
The United States "	37 "	16 "
Germany "	19 "	11 "
France "	8 "	9 "
Belgium "	3 "	5½ "

It was further stated by an owner of blast furnaces and rolling mills at Stockton-on-Tees that in the present state of competition, not only locally but internationally, employers could not afford to introduce any new practice which would necessitate an increase in the tonnage cost on the finished iron. In his opinion, however, if the wages of the men were reduced in proportion to the reduction in hours, that cost would not be increased (4). A member of the Iron Trades' Employers' Association considered that "an eight hours' day would be a very serious "matter for the country, as a whole, if it were adopted. "We cannot compete with foreign countries if we have "that dead weight against us. I think it would put us "out of the market to a very large extent" (5). Finally, it was stated that the lock and key smiths do not desire an eight hours' day because they thought that "foreign "competition would come in then" and that it would "damage trade." They were, however, in favour of a ten hours' limit (6).

125. The arguments brought forward against an eight hours' day in the industries under review resolve themselves into three. Firstly, there is no real need for it, nor is it generally desired. Secondly, it is impracticable owing to the immense difficulties involved in any attempt to restrict overtime. Thirdly, and chiefly, because in the present state of foreign competition the industries in question could not support the increased cost of production, which would necessarily result.

126. (*a.*) By far the greater number of the representatives of the industries under consideration who desire an eight hours' day are in favour of procuring it by voluntary effort or by trade union action. Many merely make this statement without giving definite reasons. The blast furnacemen at a meeting held in August 1891 passed a resolution to the effect that it would be better to obtain an eight hours' day by trade union effort than by legislation, but by legislation rather than not at all (7). The representative of the Blacksmiths' Society stated that he was "in favour of an eight hours' day, not a legal eight hours' day" (8). The Scissors Grinders' and Spring and Table Cutlers' Society "have not expressed themselves in "favour of any particular method" (9). The witness representing the bolt makers said "they will not object "to get it any way," but they would "prefer voluntary "effort" (1). An engineer said that in his opinion "the "men should get lower hours by their own efforts" (2). In other industries, it is stated more definitely that the question of the regulation of the hours of labour can be more satisfactorily dealt with by those most nearly concerned than by the State. Thus the representative of the iron moulders, thought that "for the general indus- "tries of the country," with the exception of railway servants and miners, "the fixing of the hours of labour "might safely be left in the hands of employers and "employés." (3). A witness speaking for the puddlers said that the hours might be fixed by law if all the men were of exactly "the same stature, strength and brains, but "until you have all men made in the same mould, Par- "liament would be stepping outside of its functions" if it attempted to regulate their hours of labour. The union officials are better acquainted with the wants of their own district "than all the Members of Parliament" (4). A representative of the boilermakers and iron shipbuilders stated that "it would be impossible to reduce the hours "by Act of Parliament" and that they "prefer to leave the "matter in the hands of the employers and themselves" (5). A witness representing the engineers said that he relied rather on "more effective organisation on trade union lines" than on legislation for which the men "are not yet quite ready" (6). The question of legal limitation was regarded by the employers as "not a practical question," "unworkable," and "mischievous in the extreme" (7).

(*b.*) In a few industries, however, there is a distinct desire to procure an eight hours' day by legislation, although opinions differ as to how far such a law should be universal. Though the blast furnacemen wish for legislation as a last resource, they wish for it only "in heavy and dangerous employments" (8). The Enginemen's, Firemen's, and Boilermen's Amalgamated Union, and the Associated Society of Scotch Millmen both advocate Parliamentary interference, on the ground that nothing else will be strong enough to effectually limit the hours of labour. Mr. Whitburn stated that as things stand, "in bad times," the employers must either reduce wages or lengthen the hours in order to secure a profit. The men, if left to themselves, will always accept the second alternative, and thereby increase the number of the unemployed. This can only be prevented by law, which, while it forbids overtime, makes the other alternative of reduction of wages obligatory in such cases (9). The representative of the barge builders stated that he had only been converted from a belief in organisation, to one in legislation, as the best means of securing reductions in the hours of labour, through his experience of the evil of strikes (10). This view is supported by the evidence of an engineer, who said that the opinion was gaining ground that "it is cheaper and easier to get shorter hours by Act of Parliament" than by strikes (11). Mr. Hobson of the Sheffield Federated Trades Council and the Britannia Metal Smiths' Union said that most of the men in the industries represented by him were in favour of a legal eight hours' day (12). The question of legal limitation of hours in the case of workmen in Government dockyards and arsenals stands somewhat apart. From the nature of their position as Government employés, it would be useless for them to strike. They can, therefore, only prefer their grievances by petitioning the Lords of Admiralty, and by bringing pressure to bear upon Members of Parliament. Hence those who are in favour of an eight hours' day naturally hope to procure it through legislation (13).

(*c.*) Three of the representatives of the industries above mentioned who are in favour of a legal limitation of hours, would permit trade option under certain conditions. The Enginemen's, Firemen's, and Boilermen's Union states in reference to an Eight Hours Act, "Such a measure should apply to all classes of labour "except where a majority petitions against it." Exemption, however, should only be conceded by trade option, where the minority are not able to prove before a tribunal appointed by the Government for the purpose, that longer hours are detrimental to their health. The justice of this proviso, it is stated, is based upon the principle that a majority has no right to force upon a minority anything opposed to its well being (14). The representative of the Scotch millmen was also in favour of trade option. On being cross-questioned as to the lines on which exemption should be granted, he appeared to desire the following conditions: (i.) That employers

[§ 126 (*a.*)]

(*b.*) *Legislation.*

(*c.*) *Trade and district option.*

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 40. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Questions 14674, 1,675 (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 44. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Questions 25280; 25389. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Question 18319. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 89. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79. (9) Minutes of Evidence Vol. II., Question 19537.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Question 17949–50. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 78. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Question 15242–3. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 78. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 79, 80. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 78. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. (13) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 57, 72. (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90.

[§ 126 (c.)] and employed should have an equal voice in making the decision ; (ii.) That only unionists should be allowed to vote ; (iii.) That on failure to agree, the matter should be referred to arbitration ; (iv.) That the trade, not the district, should be the unit. The trade might, however, be split into sections, according to departments or "functions" for the purpose of the eight hours' option (1). Mr. Hobson, of the Sheffield metal smiths, while in favour of trade option, was also opposed to district option even in the case of miners, on the ground that any branch of a trade exempted from the eight hours rule would be competing unfairly with the other branches of the same trade. In his opinion the difficulty of defining a trade could be solved by requiring every trade to formulate its own definition (2). On the other hand, a representative of the Government workmen from the Woolwich Arsenal was opposed to trade option, because he thought that trades could not always be trusted to know their own true interests. He held that the law should be enforceable against employer and employed alike, exception could only be made in cases of emergency, and the burden of proving emergency should rest with the person who had committed the breach (3). Mr. Hobson would permit overtime where "absolutely necessary" (4). While the witness for the Scotch millmen would make the Act penal on both parties, he considered there should be "some "means of devising something" to meet cases of emergency (1). In fact in most cases the plea of "real emergency" appears to have been recognised. [§ 126 (c.)]

3. STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT.

127. Evidence with regard to the conditions of employment in Government Arsenals and Dockyards was received from the Financial Secretary to the Admiralty, the Director of Dockyards, and from the representatives of various classes of workers employed. The general opinion held by the latter was that although there are advantages attaching to Government service, yet these are not sufficient to compensate for the existence of certain alleged grievances. These grievances referred mainly to the low rates of wages and methods of payment of wages in Government compared with private dockyards. Government and private employment contrasted.

(*a.*) The following table shows the past and revised rates of wages paid to certain classes of "established" and "hired" workers in the Government Dockyards :— *(a.) Wages in Government arsenals and dockyards.*

TABLE I.—Table showing the "Present and Revised Scales of Wages" in January 1891 for certain classes of "Established" and "Hired" Workmen in Her Majesty's Naval Establishments at Home.*

Class of Labour.	"Established" Men.		"Hired" Men.	
	Daily Rates of Pay.		Daily Rates of Pay.	
	Present.	Revised.	Present.	Revised.
	s. d. *s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*
Boilermakers	5 0 to 6 8	5 4 to 6 8	4 4 to 7 6	5 4 to 7 6
Caulkers	5 0	5 0 to 5 4	4 8 to 5 2	5 0 to 5 6
Founders	5 0 to 7 0	5 4 to 7 0	4 4 to 7 4	5 4 to 7 4
Joiners	4 6	4 6 to 5 0	5 0 to 4 10	4 6 to 5 2
Pattern makers	5 0 to 6 6	5 4 to 6 4	4 10 to 7 0	4 10 to 7 0
Plumbers	4 9	4 10 to 5 2	4 0 to 5 0	4 8 to 5 4
Shipwrights	5 0	5 0 to 5 6	4 6 to 5 4	5 0 to 5 8
Labourers, skilled	3 3	3 6 to 4 4	3 0 to 4 6	3 4 to 4 6
Labourers, ordinary	2 9	2 10 to 2 11	2 6 to 2 10	2 10 and 3 0
Smiths	4 9 to 7 6	5 0 to 7 6	4 0 to 7 6	4 8 to 7 6

* For fuller information, *see* document handed in by the Right Hon. A. B. Forwood, M.P., and for information as to the rates of wages in April, 1893, *see* p. 138.

In connection with the above table it must be noted that work in Government Dockyards is never stopped on account of bad weather. "Established" men are guaranteed regular employment and "hired" men, though liable to be discharged at a week's notice, are in the majority of cases employed just as continuously. Mr. Forwood further stated that he had arranged his programme of work in such a way that when the members of any given trade had finished their task on one ship, another vessel was just ready for them to begin. Thus, regularity of employment was rendered possible in Government yards, while in private yards the supply of ships must be regulated by the owners' demands (5). It must be further noted that Government employés are granted the following allowances : If sick, their place is kept open for three or four months, provided there is a chance of recovery. If injured, they get medical attendance gratis, and half-pay during disablement. If permanently incapacitated for work, "established" men get a special pension, *i.e.*, one in excess of that due in consideration of their years of service on the "establishment," and "hired" men get a bonus. The latter also receive a bonus, on the recommendation of their officers, equivalent to a week's pay for every year's service, if they are dismissed owing to scarcity of work after being employed for seven years (6). In case of fatal accidents, the widow of a "hired" man gets 10*l.*, and of an "established" man, 12*l.* a year (7). "Established" men, upon retiring at the age of 60, or, if declared medically fit to continue at work for so long, at the age of 65, receive a pension based upon $\frac{1}{60}$th of their average pay during the last three years and ranging over every year of "established" time. With regard to these pensions, however, the men complain firstly, that if a man dies before reaching a pensionable age, all the sums deducted on the ground of a future pension lapse to the State, and, secondly, that the amount of the pension is based on the number of years of "established" service only (2). It was stated by a shipwright working in Her Majesty's Dockyard at Portsmouth, that only 5 per cent. of the men live to enjoy the pension for which 1*s.* 6*d.* a week has been deducted from their wages. The pension only amounts to one day's pay per week if they have served ten, and to three days' pay per week if they have served thirty years on the "establishment" (3). Mr. Forwood, on the other hand, stated that the numbers of persons living to the pensionable age is greatly in excess of the men's estimate. Thus, of the 442 men employed at Portsmouth who obtained their right to the pension during the seven years ending December 1887, and did not subsequently lose it, only 93 died before reaping the benefit (4). The workmen complain that, with regard to deductions by fines or other forms of stoppage, if they are 15 minutes late in the morning, they are checked to lose one-eighth of a day's wages, and, on Saturday, the whole day's wages, and if a man, not prevented by sickness or other reasonable cause, is absent from work for four days, he not only loses four days' pay, but is fined to the extent of three or four days' wages as a punishment (5). A further ground of complaint is found in the method of the payment of wages. This was stated by Mr. Forwood to be as follows : "Associated" piece-work is performed on two systems, viz., "task and job" and "tonnage." According to the former system, "the men are paid "according to the quantity or amount of work done," *i.e.*, the number of rivets or plates, &c. Under the

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 91 ; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Questions 16269–84. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. (5) Digest, Vol., III., p. 63. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 63. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 58.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 91. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 62. (3) Digest, III. p. 57. (4) Forwood, 25812 ; Digest, Vol. III., p. 62. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 58, 62.

[§ 127 (a.)] tonnage system, "they are paid according to the "weight of material added to the ship" (1). The members of each trade are paid day wages according to a graduated series of rates. The lump sum paid by "task" or "tonnage" for the joint work of a group is divided by the officials between all the members of that group in proportion to the different ratings of each (2). On the tonnage system, the men "may be "called upon to put in 500 tons weight of material, and "until the whole of that material is in (and it requires "a great many men to work at it), the earnings made "by putting it in cannot be ascertained." In this kind of work, the men are paid "a little over day "pay . . . and the officers have to estimate how "much they think they can afford to pay the men over "and above their day wages afterwards, when the job "is completed." Associated piece-work on "task and "job" is usually "quickly finished" (3). The system of piece-work, Mr. Forwood added, had caused an addition to day wages in all yards combined of 20,000*l.* in 1888–89, and of 42,000*l.* in 1891–92 (4). With regard to this method of calculating wages, it was, however, acknowledged by Mr. Forwood that the tonnage system is an "experimental one" and "is likely to be discon-"tinued." It was based upon the completion of so large an extent of tonnage, so large an amount of material, that it required so many men to be employed upon it that the individual man's own personal exertions were rather lost in that of the aggregate, and, therefore, the incentive to his work is not as great as where he works with a smaller number of men, and where he can get the result of his labour at an earlier date than he can where he works up such a large number of tons into a ship (5). The men, moreover, are strongly opposed to the system. They state that this system of payment by piece-work is unsatisfactory in principle and practice, because it stimulates every man to work harder to the detriment of his fellows, and because the piece rates are arbitrarily fixed by the foreman without consulting the men or their representatives. They further claim that, under these rates, the men in many cases cannot earn their day wages, which are reduced under a system of "check measurement" (6). It was, however, asserted by Mr. Forwood that this system enabled officers to verify any suspicion of lack of industry on the part of an individual or a gang, and is only practised where an officer has good ground for suspicion (7). As before stated, the members of each trade are paid according to a graduated series of rates. The men complain that, under this system of classification, different rates of pay are given to men of the same working value, and promotion to the highest rates of payment is obtained, not by merit, but by favour. The following resolution was passed on one occasion by the shipwrights, who dislike this system of classification even more than the members of other trades: "That this general meeting of shipwrights emphatically "condemns the underlying principle of the wages' "scheme, and declares its conviction that no arrange-"ment which classifies workmen after a system of "discretionary recommendation by officials will ever "give satisfaction; and we further deliberately declare "that we would have preferred to have continued "without any advance in wages rather than suffer the "introduction of such an objectionable system into "our trade" (8). In opposition to these objections, Mr. Forwood stated that under a system of uniform rates of wages there would not be sufficient inducement to work on the part of "established" men, who are exempted from any fear of dismissal, except for very grave faults. A system of graduated payment, he added, is the only way of doing justice to exceptional merit, where it exists, and of producing it where it does not exist. As to the charge of favouritism, when the regulation was made fixing the number of persons in each class, and authorising the heads of departments to recommend candidates for promotion, it was stipulated that all such recommendations should be accompanied by a list of the names of senior men passed over (9). This was done in order to prevent any charge of this nature. Apart from these grievances, the men complain that the advantages enjoyed in Government, compared with private, shipyards, are not sufficient to compensate for the low rates of wages paid. The following table shows the rates of wages in Government shipyards of "established" and "hired" men, compared with the average rates in private shipyards in the United Kingdom. [§ 127 (a.)]

TABLE II.—Table showing the comparison between the wages paid to various classes of Her Majesty's and Private Shipyards, 1891–2.

Class of Labour.	Average rate per week in Government Yards* (revised Rates), *see* Table XII.		Average Rate per week in (i) United Kingdom; (ii) England. (*See* Tables I., VI., VII., X).
	Established.	Hired Men.	
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Shipjoiners -	1 8 6 (*i.e.* 1 7 0 to 1 10 0).	1 7 6 to 1 10 0.	(ii) 1 17 1½
Ironfounders -	1 17 0 (*i.e.* 1 12 0 to 2 2 0).	1 12 0 to 2 4 0.	(i) 1 6 0 to 1 18 0.
Shipwrights -	1 10 0 to 1 13 0.	1 12 0 to 2 4 0.	(i) 1 10 0 to 2 2 0.
Caulkers - -	1 10 0 to 1 12 0.	1 10 0 to 1 13 0.	(i) 1 8 0 to 1 16 0.
Smiths - -	1 10 0 to 2 5 0.	1 8 0 to 2 5 0.	(i) 1 16 0 to 2 10 0.

* The weekly rates in the Government Yards have been obtained on the supposition that work is carried on six days a week.

It would appear from the above table that the wages paid in Government Yards are only slightly lower than the average rate in private yards. According to the oral evidence given by the Government employés before the Commission, the difference between the rates paid is more marked. It was stated that when assisting stevedores to load ships at the wharf, the labourers at the Store Department work for 4*d.* an hour, while the dock labourers on the other side of the Thames are paid 6*d.* an hour. The crane drivers in the Arsenal are paid only 21*s.* 6*d.* or 22*s.* 6*d.* a week, compared with 28*s.* in the Victoria Docks (1). The average earnings of the shipwrights in Her Majesty's Dockyards at Portsmouth, compared with the Southampton and Woolstone rates, were stated to show a deficiency of 3*s.* a week (2) The mean wages paid by private firms doing Government work on the Thames, the Mersey, the Clyde, the Tyne, and at Barrow, for the years 1886–90 inclusive, were 1*l.* 16*s.* 10*d.* per week, whereas the mean wages of Government shipwrights were about 1*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.* (3). On the other hand, it was stated by Mr. Forwood that the revised scheme issued in 1891 was based on the mean between the rates paid by the private firms on the Tyne, the Clyde, the Mersey, and the Thames, and at Belfast, Hull, and Barrow in 1886 (when wages were at their worst) and in 1890 (when wages were "exceedingly good"). In the case of "hired" men, the average wages are exactly identical with that mean. The wages of "established" men are reduced in consideration of the exceptional advantages enjoyed by them. Almost every man received some increase of wages in 1891 (4).

(b.) Hours in Government Arsenals and Dockyards.

(*b.*) Another of the special advantages stated to attach to Government service lay in the fact that the number of hours worked in Government arsenals and dockyards average 50½ per week throughout the year, compared with 54 in private firms (5). This statement was made by Mr. Forwood, the Financial Secretary to the Admiralty, and from a table handed in by the same witness "showing the average hours worked . . . at Barrow, and on the Thames, Mersey, Tyne, and Clyde, in the years 1886 and 1890, in comparison with Her Majesty's dockyards," it appears that this average applies equally to all classes of workers (6). On the other hand, the following statements were made by the representatives of the employed in the Government arsenals and dockyards. In the manufacturing departments in the Royal Arsenal at Woolwich, the normal weekly hours were said to be 53 per week, exclusive of meal times (7). In the Ordnance Store Department, Woolwich, the hours worked were stated to be 54 in summer and 51 in winter (8). The hours of shipwrights in the Portsmouth and Pembroke Dockyards average 51 per week (9). Riggers work 53 hours a week in summer, and 44¾ in winter; that is an average of 51 hours throughout the year (10). It may be noted that the only instance of exact agreement between the estimate given by the employés and by Mr. Forwood occurs in the

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64; Forwood, 25882. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 55. (3) Forwood, 25915–20. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64. (5) Forwood, 25822. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 57, 8. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 55, 57, 59, 61, 63. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 63.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 57. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 58. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 62. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 53. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LXxI. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 57. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 58, 60. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 62.

127 (b.)] statement made by the workers in the Storehouse Department at Chatham (1). It is not stated in the evidence, generally speaking, whether the hours given include or exclude the time allowed for meals, nor whether, in giving the average, a certain amount of overtime has been added to the standard. This may account for the discrepancies which occur in the information obtained from different sources. With regard to the complaints of overtime urged by the employés, Mr. Forwood asserted that in his opinion, there are many objections to the total abolition of overtime by the employment of a double shift, and he further held that it is desirable to be able to resort to a limited amount of overtime in cases of emergency. Systematic overtime, he stated, was contrary to the Admiralty regulations (2). Mr. Gould, a shipwright, employed in Her Majesty's Dockyard at Pembroke, stated on the other hand, that overtime had been made systematic in that district, especially with regard to keeping the men at work after 2 p.m. on Saturdays. It was also stated that overtime had lately been so systematic in the Storehouse Department at Chatham, that the men feared lest the sum of money annually appropriated to dockyard wages should be expended before the end of the year. The growth of overtime was said to have been already accompanied by reductions in the staff.* Overtime work is generally paid for at a special rate or time is given in lieu of time, *i.e.* a man kept overtime one day is allowed a corresponding number of hours off the next day. This latter system is regarded with disfavour by the men (3).

) *Additional advantages in vernment ployment.* (*c.*) Mr. Forwood further asserted that additional advantages are enjoyed by Government employés in the matter of instruction and possibilities of promotion. Apprentices are allowed to be entered annually in each trade, and enable workmen to earn an extra 2*s.* a week for teaching them, while they themselves derive an exceptional advantage from the Government service in receiving free instruction in the various branches of mathematics, physics, and other sciences. The possibilities of promotion in Government yards, he added, are unattainable in private firms. After serving six months as a journeyman, a workman can compete for the position of a second class draughtsman, and, after three years, for the position of "leading man" or dockyard writer. The workmen can also rise to be foremen of a yard, masters of a trade, assistant constructors or chief constructors (4). The employés, however, complain that they are only allowed to compete for the post of "leading man," provided that they get a recommendation from their officers. This they consider to be unjust. Moreover, they further complain that the result of the examination for the post is not made public nor are the candidates officially made acquainted with the number of marks they have obtained. Even if the examination is passed with success, the men assert that there is no guarantee that promotion will take effect (5).

4. INSPECTION AND REGULATION OF FACTORIES† AND WORKSHOPS, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

bjects luded ler pection regu- on. 128. Government regulation of the conditions of labour in industrial establishments, whether factories, workshops, mines, railways, or merchant ships, is in all cases the creation of statute. The evidence under this head, therefore, is necessarily confined to such subjects as the Legislature has either dealt with already, or ought, in the opinion of the witnesses, to deal with hereafter. In connexion with the industries at present under review, such subjects are sanitation, safety, inquests, domestic workshops, the employment of women, young persons, and children, medical certificates of fitness, the publication of abstracts of the Factory Acts, special rules and notices, inspection, the proposed application to adult workers of certain regulations at present confined to women, young persons, and children, and the issue of certificates of competency to enginemen's and ships' carpenters.

itation. 129. Sanitation is already provided for by the Legislature to the following extent. Inspectors under the Factory Acts are ordered to see that factories are not overcrowded, are kept clean, free from effluvia, [§ 129.] and well-ventilated, and that the walls and ceilings are limewashed once in 14 months, or painted in oil once in seven years, and washed once in 14 months with hot water and soap. They must likewise institute proceedings against occupiers of factories if, where dust is generated by grinding, glazing, or polishing, a fan is not provided to prevent the dust being inhaled. Occupiers of workshops they can prosecute only in case of the last offence (1). In all other cases they must be dealt with by the local sanitary authorities in the manner provided by the Public Health Act, 1875. The Secretary of State, however, has power to give the Factory Inspectors the same authority in regard to any particular workshop or classes of workshops which they possess in regard to factories. Mr. Hodge, representing the British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association, advocated "the amendment of the Factory "Acts in such a way as to give the inspectors greater "power to protect men engaged in so hot an employment "as steel smelting from the inclemency of the weather (2)," and Mr. Lindsay, representing the Branch of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers in the Dundee District, complained that the law was not sufficiently definite and precise in respect to the obligation of employers to provide for decency and comfort (3). But beyond this, no definite proposal for the amendment of the sanitary provisions of the Acts was expressed, although a large number of complaints as to the sanitary condition of the workplaces were preferred by almost all the representatives of the employed.

130. Safety is provided for by the sections of the Factory Acts that authorise inspectors in the case of factories, but not of workshops, to see that all hoists, teagles, steam engines, water-wheels, mill-gearing, and dangerous machinery, including driving straps or bands, are securely fenced, though summary powers are not given in all cases. It was the opinion of several witnesses that these provisions were insufficient. Thus, Mr. Whitburn, representing the Enginemen's, Firemen's and Boilermen's Amalgamated Society, considered that the interests of safety demanded the enactment of a law compelling employers to appoint competent practical engineers to the posts of foremen (4). Mr. Hodge, representing the British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association, stated that the Factory Acts should be amended in such a way as to afford better protection to men engaged in steel smelting from the dangers arising from the use of machinery (5); Mr. Holmshaw, representing the Sheffield Federated Trades' Council and Scissors Grinders' Association, desired Section 8 of the Act of 1878, relating to the use of faulty grindstones, which was repealed in 1891, to be re-enacted, but without the seven days' notice proviso (6), and Mr. Uttley proposed to give inspectors power to deal with the faulty construction of workshops (7). In regard to the engineering and shipbuilding industry, moreover, Mr. F. Fox, representing the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society, was prepared to welcome any amendment to the law that would secure greater immunity from the accidents to which the boilermaking and shipbuilding industry was peculiarly liable, and desired to extend the jurisdiction of the inspectors to all spars and planks used in the construction of staging, and to all ropes and chains upon which staging is suspended. Some local authority, he added, should also have power to examine oil tank steamers, and all users of boilers should be compelled by law to have them inspected by certificated boilermakers appointed for the purpose (8). Mr. J. Heslop, also of the Associated Shipwrights' Society, considered that Government inspection should be extended to out-door work in the shipyards (9). The entire evidence bearing on the present condition of the workplaces showed that, in spite of the provisions of the law, which, according to the testimony of most of the witnesses, were not adequately enforced, accidents of a more or less serious nature were not uncommon.*

131. Inquests into the causes of fatal accidents in factories and workshops are provided for, in England, under the ordinary law, and, in Scotland, in virtue of Section 33, Sub-section 5, of the Factory Act of 1891, which runs as follows:—"In the application of this Act "to Scotland, the following modifications shall be made, "namely . . . where a death has occurred by accident "in any factory or workshop *a public inquiry in open* Inquests.

* See also *supra*, section 122 (*b*).

† The terms "factories," "workshops," "young persons," &c., are used throughout in the sense defined by the Legislature.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 61. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 56–7, 60–62. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 63. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 62.

* See also *infra*, Section 137.

(1) Factory and Workshops Act, 1878, sections 3, 4, and 33, and Factory and Workshops Act, 1891, sections 1–5. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 52. (3) Digest Vol. III. p. 37. (4) Digest, Vol. II, p. 42. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 52. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 26. (9) Digest III., p. 28.

31.]

" *court shall be held* by the sheriff *upon the petition of* " *any party interested*, and the sheriff shall forthwith ad- " vise the district inspector, under this Act, of the time and " place, of the holding of the inquiry, and at such inquiry " any relative of any person whose death has been caused " by the accident with respect to which the inquiry is " being held, and the occupier or manager of the factory " or workshop in which the accident occurred, and any " person appointed by the order in writing of the " majority of the workpeople employed in the said " factory or workshop shall be at liberty to attend and " examine any witness, either in person, or by his " counsel, solicitor, or agent, subject nevertheless to " the order of the sheriff." And, that English workmen may enjoy similar protection in regard to the inquests held under the ordinary law, Section 22, Sub-section 3, of the same Act provides that : " Where a death has occurred " by accident in any factory or workshop, the coroner shall " forthwith advise the district inspector, under this Act, " of the time and place of the holding of the inquest, and " at such inquest any relative of any person whose death " may have been caused by the accident with respect to " which the inquest is being held, and any inspector, " under the principal Act, and the occupier of the factory " or workshop in which the accident occurred, and any " person appointed by the order in writing of the " majority of the workpeople employed in the said " factory or workshop shall be at liberty to attend and " examine any witness either in person or by his counsel, " solicitor, or agent, subject nevertheless to the order of " the coroner." It was the opinion of all the representatives of Scotch workmen, and of Unions including Scotchmen among their members, that the 5th sub-section of Section 33, quoted above, should be rendered unnecessary by a complete assimilation of Scotch to English law on the subject of inquests into the causes of fatal accidents. (1) Public inquiries, they urged, should be held in all cases of fatal accidents, not merely when one party demands it, and not only in respect of factories and workshops. At the same time, Mr. Jack considered that it was unnecessary and, indeed, undesirable, to extend the proposed reform to cases of sudden deaths other than accidents (2). Mr. Whitburn desired to amend the section relating to England by giving Union officials independent legal standing at inquests, or at any rate, by giving the relatives of the deceased, in addition to the right of attending inquests and examining witnesses either personally or by counsel, the right, at present conferred only on a majority of the fellow-workers of the deceased, of appointing Union officials to represent them, instead of solicitors whom they they are often not well enough educated to instruct. He also desired the composition of coroners' juries to be confined to persons connected with the trade in which the fatal accident occurred (3), and, on this point, he received the support of Mr. R. Anson, of the British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Society, who further proposed to make these juries representative of both employers and employed (4).

omestic orkshops.

132. Domestic workshops, that is to say, private houses' rooms, or places, where work is carried on solely by members of the same family dwelling therein, are subject to Government regulation in respect of young persons and children, but not in respect of women. It appeared from the evidence given by representatives of the chain, nail, nut, bolt, lock, and key making industries, that, in order to properly enforce the rules of the Factory Acts with respect to hours, and of the Trades Unions with respect to wages, it would be necessary to abolish domestic workshops altogether. This abolition, in the opinion of some witnesses, could only be effected by law, because, although most employers were willing to unite with their men in reforming the system, some were unwilling to do so, and these, by continuing to take advantage of the relative cheapness of home work, compelled their competitors to do the same. The majority of the workpeople, however, considered the time was not ripe for so radical a change and would not support it (5), and as an alternative, Messrs. R. Juggins and J. Powell proposed to extend to domestic workshops the regulations at present in force in other workshops with respect to the employment of women (6).

ie employ- ent of ung rsons.

133. The employment of young persons, *i.e.*, persons between the ages of 14 and 18, of both sexes is subject to the same regulations in respect of hours as that of women. Mr. J. Whittaker, of the Manchester Branch of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, considered that immediate steps should be taken to amend the Factory Act by raising the age at which " young " persons " ceased to be such to 21. As matters stand at present, he said, employers prefer to employ apprentices overtime to journeymen, much to the disadvantage of the lads, who are more likely to appreciate the value of leisure for the purpose of useful study between the ages of 18 and 21 than when they are younger. He added that the abolition of the overtime employment of apprentices, which the proposed amendment would effect, would not put English employers at a disadvantage, because foreign youths of the same age are hindered from working by the law of conscription which compels them to devote these years of their life to service in the Army (1). [§ 133.]

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 39, 52 ; Vol. III., pp. 41, 42. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 41. (3) Digest, Vol., II., p. 42. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 53. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 54-60, and Vol. III., p. 17. (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp 57 and 59.

134. The employment of boys under 14 is subject to certain regulations with respect to hours, and is forbidden in any factory or workshop in which any dry grinding in the metal trade is carried on. In any grinding, other than dry grinding, however, it is permitted after the age of 11 years. It was the opinion of Mr. Holmshaw, representing the Sheffield Federated Trades Council and the Scissors Grinders' Association, that, owing to the unhealthy incidents of the employment, no boy should be allowed to commence work at a grinding wheel under 14 years of age. The Scissors Grinders' Association, he added, has made a rule to this effect, and a similar provision should be incorporated in the Factory and the Education Acts (2). Mr. A. Fretwell, moreover, of the Sheffield Federated Trades Council and the Spring-Knife Cutlers' Society, desired to prohibit the employment of boys under 13 in the cutlery trade (3). The employment of boys

135. Medical certificates of fitness for employment are required, in factories, for all persons under 16 years of age, and, inasmuch as the obligation to procure such certificates is laid upon the occupier, it follows that a fresh certificate must be obtained in respect of each person every time he or she moves from one factory to another. Mr. S. Uttley, of the Sheffield Federated Trades Council and the File Cutters' Association, considered that the limitation of the rule relating to medical certificates to the case of factories, *i.e.*, to places where " power " is used, was a defect for persons to whom such certificates are refused on the ground of health, can and often do obtain employment at places where no " power " is used, but where the work is very much harder than in factories. The necessity of renewing the certificates for every fresh situation, moreover, is objectionable, for changes, especially in the case of boys, are so frequent that the law cannot possibly be kept, and the witness considered that one certificate and one registration ought to hold good permanently (4). Publication of abstracts of the Factory Acts, special rules, and notices and other documents is ordered to be effected by posting them up in legible characters in conspicuous places, in every factory or workshop other than a domestic workshop, in such position as to be easily read by the workpeople. It was pointed out, however, by Mr. Evan Jones, Mr. Davies, and Mr. Rudman, of the South Wales Iron and Steel Workers' and Mechanics' Association, that in South Wales the specified documents were not posted up at all (5), and by Mr. Caldwell, of the United Journeymen's Brass Founders Association, that in Lancashire they were posted up so high that nobody could read them (6). Medical certificates of fitness and publication of abstracts of the Factory Acts, &c.

136. Inspection is provided for, subject to the terms of Section 67 of the Factory Act of 1878, which empowers the Secretary of State to appoint such inspectors as he may think necessary for the execution of the Act, subject to the approval of the Treasury as to numbers and salaries, but prohibits the appointment for this purpose of persons that are interested in factories or workshops, whether as occupiers or as workmen, or otherwise. In accordance with this section, there was, under the Home Secretary, at the time at which this was written, a staff, consisting of one chief inspector, four superintending inspectors, thirty-nine district inspectors, one inspector for cotton-cloth factories, and twelve junior inspectors, or fifty-seven in all (7) The total annual appropriation for the Factory Department of the Home Office is about 31,000*l*., of which about 5,600*l*. is devoted to the payment of Inspection.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 35. (2) Digest, Vol. II. p. 63. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 66. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 49. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 43. (7) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 35.

[§ 136.] inspectors' travelling expenses and other charges incidental to their work. In addition to the above staff, two women, Miss Abraham and Miss Paterson, were appointed in the beginning of May 1893, to assist the district inspector in dealing with places where women are employed. Miss Abraham had previously served as Lady Assistant Commissioner under the Commission. The number of registered factories is 64,098, and of registered workshops 69,990, making a total of 134,088 establishments subject to Government inspection, excluding those not on the register. Nearly all the representatives of the employed concurred in thinking the present administrative machinery to be insufficient, and most of the complaints detailed above with reference to sanitary and other defects were preferred in support of this view. Mr. Price, of the Spike Nailmakers' Association; Mr. Juggins, representing the Nut and Bolt Makers; Mr. Day and Mr. Martin, of the National Amalgamated Lock and Key Smiths' Society; Mr. Powell, of the Bromsgrove Co-operative Nailmaking Society; Mr. Hobson, Mr. Holmshaw, Mr. Fretwell, and Mr. Uttley, of the Sheffield Federated Trades Council; Mr. Mosses, of the United Pattern Makers' Association; Mr. Whittaker and Mr. MacDowell, of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers; and Mr. Caldwell, of the United Journeymen Brass Founders' Association, desired the staff of inspectors to be increased by the addition of working men connected with the trade, and, perhaps, with the district which they have to supervise, at salaries of about 150*l.* a year (1). Mr. Mosses and Mr. Whittaker further desired inspectors to wear some badge by which they might be distinguished, the former witness adding that extracts from their reports should be affixed to the gate of every factory or workshop, in order that the workpeople might know that they were doing their duty (2). At the same time, it appeared from the evidence of Mr. Powell, Mr. Mosses, Mr. Whittaker, and Mr. Glennie, that the workpeople, both in their individual and in their corporate capacities alike, neglected their duty of assisting the Government inspectors by calling their attention to the existence of defects, although, as Mr. Glennie pointed out, the neglect was probably due to fear of the employers' inquiry notes and to ignorance of the fact that communications to the authorities might be made anonymously (3). In spite of the unanimity with which the men's representatives complained of the failure of the administrative staff to adequately cope even with its existing duties, it was proposed to make a considerable addition to those duties by extending the Factory Acts to occupations and persons at present outside their scope. Thus, Mr. Heslop, of the Associated Shipwrights' Society, considered that Government inspection ought to be extended to outdoor work in the shipyards, on the ground that it would be more effective, because more independent, than inspection by officials of the firm, (4) and Mr. Day and Mr. Martin, representing the National Amalgamated Lock and Key Smiths' Society, stated that both masters and men had combined to express themselves in favour of the extension of the Factory Acts to adult males in both factories and workshops. (5) Other proposed extensions of Government regulation were those made by Mr. Whitburn, the representative of the Enginemen's, Firemen's, and Boilermen's Amalgamated Society, and Mr. Wilkie, of the Associated Shipwrights' Society, with respect to the issue of certificates of competency to members of their respective trades. The former said that, in order to secure recognition for the skilled nature of the employment, as well as to prevent incompetent men being employed, it was desirable to immediately pass into law the Enginemen's Certificate Bill, which provides for the granting of first-class certificates of competency to men that have been managing engines or boilers for five years, and of second-class certificates to those that have been so employed for twelve months, the latter class being obliged to work under the supervision of the former. (6) Mr. Wilkie, after stating that, beyond the issue of the Marine Department of the Board of Trade of a circular containing a rule to the effect that every ship must carry one or more certificated carpenters, nothing had been done to carry out the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Loss of Life and Property at Sea that "a simple and "professional examination should be required for the "rating of boatswains and carpenters," intimated that "every man going to sea as a ship's carpenter should be obliged to possess a certificate of competency similar to those issued to marine engineers. (7)

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 56–66, and Vol. III., pp. 32, 34, 37, and 43. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 32, and 34. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 59, and Vol. III., pp. 32, 34 and 36. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 28. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 58. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 42. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 28.

5. ACCIDENTS AND EMPLOYERS LIABILITY AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

[§ 137.] Accidents.

137. Accidents were stated to be very prevalent among the Scotch millmen and the boilermakers and iron and steel shipbuilders in South Wales. Complaint was made by the operatives connected with the Scissors Grinders' Association that the machinery is frequently unprotected, and the work-places dangerous. It was asserted that the work of boilermakers and iron shipbuilders, and of steel smelters, is very dangerous, but only a few of the accidents which occur in the latter industry are fatal. (1) The accidents which take place in shipyards and boiler shops are mainly traceable to defective planks and staging. It appears that the liability to accident in the industries under consideration is much less than in mining and quarrying. (2)

Employers Liability Act.

138. It was stated by Mr. Knight, the General Secretary of the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society, that since the Employers' Liability Act had come into operation every possible effort had been made, both by employers and employed, to insure safety and provide adequate inspection. (3) Except in the Elswick Works, where an Accident Compensation Fund has been established "in lieu of any claim . . . "under the Employers' Liability Act, 1880," the men do not appear to "contract out" of the Act. A representative from the British Steel Smelters stated that several firms had tried to introduce a system of compulsory insurance, whereby the men were "practically" to be made to "pay for the insurance of the firms." "The "employers were going to contribute nothing, and they "wanted the men to contract out of the Employers' "Liability Act." But, Mr. Hodge added, "as far as I "am able to learn, the only works where compulsory "assurance is in vogue is in the works of those railway "companies who own melting plant." (4) It may be noted that the unions frequently undertake to obtain compensation for their injured members under the Act. Thus, among the Scotch millmen, every case of accident is reported to the Union, which at once serves the employer with a notice under the Employers' Liability Act. (5) Provision is made in the rules of the Society of Associated Iron Moulders (Scotland) that legal action under this Act shall be taken on behalf of the members. It was stated by the representatives from the former industry that hitherto the employers had always paid adequate compensation on the receipt of such notice, and no case had been brought into court. The Ironmoulders' Association had obtained damages on several occasions, and had only once taken a case into court. The decision given on that occasion was in favour of the workmen, and subsequent cases, it was stated, had therefore been settled by mutual conference. "In no "case," Mr. Jack stated, "is it with a view, or solely on "the ground of compensation we push cases, but rather "for security and safety being got to all workers "than risk of any kind being incurred." (6) The representatives of the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society asserted that where questions of compensation cannot be settled by conference, it is to the interest of both parties to go into court, and proceed under the Act. The policy of the Union, he stated, never to let a doubtful case pass without securing a legal decision upon it has been pursued since 1883, and has never caused the slightest friction with the employers. (7)

Compensation for accidents, apart from Employers' Liability Act.

139. Compensation for accidents other than that afforded by the Employers' Liability Act is, in some instances, granted by the employers. Thus, it is an old custom at Ebbw Vale for the widows of the men killed by accidents while at work in the iron and steel works to receive houses and coal free of charge until they die or re-marry, and the deceased workman is buried at the expense of the Company. Moreover, during disablement, a man receives 10*s.* a week, if the allowance is expressly applied for. This sum was stated to be a free gift from the Company. At the majority of works in the district, however, no compensation is paid in the event of fatal accidents beyond the cost of burial. (8) At most of the shipyards and boilershops in Sunderland, employers and employed contribute equally to the support of a fund to be applied in cases of sickness and accident. The men's

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 50, 52, 63–4. Digest, Vol. III., p. 26. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 39. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 24, 25, 26, 28. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 52. Hodge, 16,429. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 41. Jack, 23473. (7) Digest, Vol. III. p. 24. Digest, Vol. II., p. 49.

39.] subscriptions are, with their consent, deducted from their wages. It was stated that the employers had, in no instance, sought to be exempted from their liability under the Employers' Liability Act in virtue of the existence of these funds. Shop funds for cases of accident are also in existence among the Scotch millmen, but, generally speaking, the employers do not contribute to their support. (1) The rules of the following mutual benefit societies have been handed in to the Commission:—The Mutual Benefit Society at the works of Kenrick and Sons, Limited (Hollow-ware Foundries, West Bromwich); the Infirmary and Incidental Fund at the Whitfield Works (Engineers and Boilermakers, Glasgow); and the Elswick Works Accident Compensation Fund. A draft scheme of the Sick and Superannuation Fund at the Thames Iron Works has been printed in the Appendices of the third volume of the Minutes of Evidence. At the Elswick Works the men have voluntarily contracted themselves out of the Employers' Liability Act. (2) The rules of the management of the Compensation Fund established at these works have therefore been dealt with apart from those of the funds in West Bromwich and Glasgow.

Mutual efit ieties at st Brom- h and at van, sgow.

(*a*.) The government of the societies in West Bromwich and Glasgow is vested in a Committee, certain members of which retire periodically but are eligible for re-election. The Committee in the former society elects its own chairman, vice-chairman and secretary. The officers in the latter society consist of an honorary president, a president and secretary. General meetings are held yearly. Special general meetings may be called at the discretion of the Committee or on the requisition of a specified number of members. Seven days' notice of all general meetings is required in the society at West Bromwich, and the nature of any special business to be brought forward must be stated in such notice. The Committees meet once a month. Special meetings of the West Bromwich Committee are convened at the discretion of the chairman, and two days' notice of such meetings is required. At meetings of the Committees, questions are decided by the majority of votes, and, in the event of the votes being equal, the chairman has a second or casting vote. No alteration may be made in the rules of the societies, except at the annual general meeting. Disputes which may arise among members of the society in West Bromwich are referred to the Committee for settlement. Either of the disputants may appeal from its decision to Messrs. Archibald Kenrick and Sons, whose decision is final. Membership of the societies is restricted to all persons employed at the works in question. Any person leaving the employment of Messrs. Archibald Kenrick and Sons ceases to be a member, but on application to, and subject to the decision of, the Committee he may remain a member so long as he conforms to the rules and does not work for another employer. A table showing the contributions to, and benefits granted by, these societies is given below. [§ 139 (*a*).]

TABLE showing the Rate of Contributions and Benefits in Societies in West Bromwich (Messrs. Kenrick and Sons), and Glasgow (Messrs. Ross and Duncan).

Contributions.	Mutual Benefit Society, West Bromwich.	Infirmary and Incidental Fund, Glasgow.
1. Members' contributions -	Class A., 6*d*. per week. Class B., 4*d*. per week. Class C., 2*d*. per week. Class D., 1*d*. per week. *N.B.*—Every person on first becoming a member shall be entered in Class D., but may be transferred to Classes A., B., C., with the consent of the Committee, except those persons over 50 years of age. No person earning less than 15*s*. a week can belong to Classes A. and B. No person earning less than 7*s*. 6*d*. a week to Class C.	1*d*. a week from every worker rated at 10*s*. a week and upwards. ½*d*. per week from every worker rated under 10*s*. a week.
2. Employers' contributions -	Messrs. Kenrick keep the accounts of the Society, bear all the expenses of management, allow interest on funds in their hands at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, and guarantee the payment of the benefits.	Not less than 10*l*. per annum.

Benefits.	Mutual Benefit Society, West Bromwich.	Infirmary and Incidental Fund, Glasgow.
1. Accident - - - -	Accident benefit appears to be included under Sick Benefit.	10*s*. a week, full members. 5*s*. a week, apprentices and boys. After six weeks the question of further payment is considered by the Committee.
2. Death - - - - -	Class A.—Death of member, 9*l*. Death of wife or husband of member, 4*l*. 10*s*. Death of child of member between one and fourteen years old, 2*l*. 5*s*. Death of child under one year of age, 1*l*. 10*s*. Correspondingly lower benefits are paid to Classes B., C., D.	In the event of a fatal accident, 7*l*. is either paid to the nearest relative or expended by the Committee to the best advantage.
3. Sick - - - - -	Class A., 15*s*. per week. Correspondingly lower benefits are paid to Classes B., C., D. *N.B.*—Full pay given for 26 weeks, half and quarter pay for another 26 weeks, in accordance with certain conditions.	——

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24–5. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46.

[§ 139 (a).]

The above benefits are only given to members in accordance with certain conditions specified in the rules. It may be further noted that reserve and benevolent funds have been formed in connection with the Mutual Benefit Society in West Bromwich. The former provides "for "accidents and unforeseen sickness or mortality," and amounts at any time to "one year's contributions of all "the members in the society for the time being." The rules further provide that "if, in any year, the amount "received in contributions shall be less than the amount "paid away in benefits, the deficiency so created shall be "made up out of the reserve fund; but the sum so taken "from the reserve fund must be repaid thereto from "the surplus of receipts over payments in the following "years before any other appropriation of such surplus is "made." The benevolent fund exists for "those members "whose long-continued illness shall disqualify them from "receiving the ordinary full or half pay." Contributions to the fund are 6*d*., 4*d*., 2*d*., and 1*d*. per quarter for members of Classes A., B., C., and D. respectively. The sufficiency of this fund is not guaranteed for all the claims that may be made upon it; but should the fund require further assistance the Committee have power to raise additional levies.

(b.) Thames Iron Works and Shipbuilding Company Superannuation and Pension Insurance Fund.

(*b.*) According to the draft scheme of the Thames Iron Works and Shipbuilding Company Superannuation and Pension Insurance Fund, (1) handed in by Mr. Hills, membership of the fund is to be purely voluntary, and can commence at any age after admission to the company's service. All premiums paid to members are, with certain exceptions, to be returnable plus simple interest, and the company is to contribute a sum equivalent to the profit balance at the end of each year on the premium paid by members. The suggested premiums payable by, and benefits payable to, members are given in the following table:—

Premiums -	2½ per cent. on wages paid (fractions of a pound being represented as follows):— 1½*d*. for every 5*s*. or under. 3*d*. " 10*s*. " 4½*d*. " 15*s*. " 6*d*. " 1*l*. "
Benefits—	
1. Discharge -	Owing to misbehaviour:— Back money may be claimed at the rate of 5*s*. a week without interest or company's premium. *N.B.*—This may, by consent of Managing Committee, be commuted into payment of a lump sum. Owing to slackness of work:— 10*s*. a week may be claimed for 10 weeks or longer at discretion of Committee. Sums thus paid not to exceed the premiums paid, plus 4 per cent. simple interest, plus such portion of the company's premium due under his term of service. Owing to retirement:— Invested fund may be claimed either in lump sum or by weekly payment, and subject to the rules as to the payment of the company's premium.
2. Temporary incapacity owing to illness.	Sick pay may be claimed at the rate of 10*s*. a week for 10 weeks or longer, at discretion of Committee. Sum thus paid not to exceed investment fund.
3. Temporary incapacity owing to accident.	Benefits the same as in 2.
4. Incapacity owing to old age.	Superannuation allowance to commence (except for special reasons) at the age of 64. A weekly pension may be commuted into a lump sum payment, at the discretion of the Managing Committee. (Tables regulating the amount of this allowance were not filled in in the draft scheme.)
5. Death -	All unexhausted premiums, subject to rules as to company's premiums, payable to executors or next-of-kin in weekly payments or lump sum, according to discretion of Committee.

Elswick Works Accident Compensation Fund.

140. The administration of the Elswick Works Accident Compensation Fund is entrusted to a Committee of twelve members, four of whom are elected by the Company and eight by the workmen. The Committee elects annually a chairman, vice-chairman, secretary and treasurer, and one or more auditors are also appointed. When necessary, Sub-committees are elected by the Committee from among themselves. At meetings of the Committee, questions under discussion are decided by the majority of votes, and the rules provide that in the case of the votes being equal the chairman has a second or casting vote. The Committee has "power to "alter or to add to these rules as their experience shall "suggest." Notice of the proposed alteration or addition is however posted for fourteen days, and "on request of "a reasonable number of workmen," the rules provide that "a meeting of workmen will be held for an expression of opinion upon the same." Disputes as to the construction of the rules are referred to the Committee, whose decision is final. "All workmen employed by "the Company are engaged on condition that they con- "tribute to the fund, and accept the benefits which it "provides in case of accidents, in lieu of any claim which "they or their representatives might otherwise have had "against the Company, under the Employers' Liability "Act, 1880." With regard to the contributions to, and benefits granted by, the fund, the workmen are arranged in four classes according to the rate of wages earned. Their contributions vary from a farthing to a penny a week. Ordinary contributions are paid every fourth week, and the Company pays a sum equal to twice the amount raised by the workmen. Benefits are paid in the event of fatal and non-fatal accidents and permanent disablement, whether total or partial. The sum paid in case of fatal accidents does not exceed an amount varying from 50*l*. to 200*l*., according to the class to which the deceased workman belonged. In the case of non-fatal accidents, a weekly allowance is paid varying from three-fourths of the weekly wage to the sum of 24*s*. A member permanently prevented from following his usual employment receives a sum not exceeding 25*l*. to 100*l*. If permanently prevented from following any employment, the amount of compensation varies from 50*l*. to 200*l*. These benefits are only given in accordance with certain conditions laid down in the rules. It may be noted that compensation is payable either "in weekly "amounts, or in a lump sum, or in such other way and "at such times as the Committee may determine" (1).

[§ 140.]

Suggested amendments in Employers' Liability Act.

141. Certain amendments were suggested in the course of the evidence in connection with the clauses which refer to compensation in the Employers' Liability Act. The terms of the present Act provide that "the amount "of compensation recoverable under this Act shall not "exceed such sum as may be found to be equivalent to "the estimated earnings during the three years preced- "ing the injury of a person in the same grade employed "during those years in the like employment and in the "district in which the workman is employed at the time "of the injury." "An action for the recovery under "this Act of compensation for an injury shall not be "maintainable unless notice that injury has been sus- "tained is given within six weeks, and the action is "commenced within six months from the occurrence of "the accident causing the injury, or, in case of death, "within 12 months from the time of death: provided "always that in case of death the want of such notice "shall be no bar to the maintenance of such action if "the judge shall be of opinion that there was reasonable "excuse for such want of notice." It was, however, desired that full power be left to the court to assess the amount of compensation (2); that the period of six weeks be extended to three (3) or six (4) calendar months; that the doctrine of common employment be eliminated (5); and that a public inquiry into the causes of fatal accidents be made compulsory in Scotland (6). With regard to these amendments, Mr. Price stated that he could "see no reason for, first, increasing the "amount recoverable under the Act; secondly, for in- "creasing the period of notice." No instance had come under his observation "in which a man capable of making "a claim has failed to make it, or found it difficult to "make it, within the prescribed period," or in which he had "been a loser on account of not having made it." With regard to the abolition of the doctrine of common employment, the same witness asserted that the workman would then "look upon that as warranting him in claim- "ing compensation for all accidents of every kind which "may befall him in his employment. . . . I appre- "hend that every accident that happened to every man "would be considered a ground of action against the "employer" (7).

6. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

Grievances connected with other conditions of labour.

142. Certain other grievances to which reference has been made in the evidence remain to be noticed; viz., complaints with regard to apprenticeship, character notes, the introduction of machinery, and certain minor matters in the less highly organised industries.

Apprenticeship.

143. On the subject of apprentices, the men urge, firstly, that the number of apprentices employed is too

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LIII.

(2) Rules of the Elswick Works Accidents' Compensation Fund, handed in by Captain Noble. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XL. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XL. (5) Conley, 21219. (6) Conley, 21129. (7) Vickers, 14293–4; Jack, 23473; Price, 26319–28.

143.] great in proportion to the number of journeymen; and, secondly, that the system of apprenticeship itself is not properly regulated. The United Operative Plumbers' Society, the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society, and the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, regard the proportions of apprentices to journeymen, 1:2, 1:5, and 1:4 respectively, as sufficient to maintain the trades in a flourishing condition (1). With the exception, however, of that fixed by the plumbers, from whom no complaint comes, these proportions are not generally adhered to by the employers. Among the boilermakers and shipbuilders, the proportion observed in the yards and shops in Scotland is at present about double the proportion laid down in the rules of the men's association (2). In fact, it appears that this rule, although it was stated to be observed by the employers on the Mersey and in Sunderland, is not generally enforced thoughout the country (3). Among the engineers in Scotland, the proportion observed is also double that which the men themselves desire, and it may be noted that in 1883 the men failed to enforce even that amount of restriction upon the employers in Sunderland (4). "We cannot and will not," Mr. Knight stated, "allow our trade to be ruined by an unlimited "influx of lads and men . . . . coming into the "trade, as it is most injurious to every one. It is contrary to the interest of our best shipowners and shipbuilders, as there is a desire on the part of some to "build cheap ships, which means inferior workmanship, "done by half mechanics and untaught lads . . . "To show you what some employers will do when "there is no restriction," he added, "in a yard at "Carrickfergus, near Belfast . . . the firm only "employs five journeymen to 33 so-called apprentices" (5). In the silver plate trade, Mr. Hobson stated, "less care is exercised in limiting the number "of boys," and it is in consequence "excessively "high"; in one firm 27 boys are employed to 30 men (6). But, in addition to the above grievance, the men complain that the old system of apprenticeship has "almost died out." Lads, though not indentured, are still "for all practical purposes," apprentices, but it is a "very loose system at present," (7) and there is no guarantee either that the lads shall serve for a proper period, or that, during that period, they shall be properly instructed (8). In a few smaller trades, such as the Spring Knife Cutlers and Table Knife Cutlers, and in the Government Dockyards, apprentices are legally bound, and in the Ship Constructive Association, a six years' apprenticeship is compulsory by Admiralty regulations (9). In the iron, steel, and general metal trades, however, where apprentices often serve from five to seven years, the agreement is generally only verbal, and the time fixed by custom (10). There is thus a temptation for employers to dismiss their apprentices when they become expensive, while, on the other hand, there is sometimes found to be a difficulty in getting lads to serve their whole time in one place; complaints of this kind are made by the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society, the Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland, and the Nut and Bolt Workers (11). Mr. Conley stated that the Clyde ship-builders, in spite of a tacit agreement to the contrary, are now frequently "dispensing with their apprentices" at the end of three years (12). Moreover, in trades where boy's labour is found to be relatively more expensive than men's, there is a tendency to do without apprentices altogether, or to confine their training to certain portions of the work. This is the case to a certain extent in the iron trade (13); while in the blacksmiths' trade in large centres there are hardly any apprentices, and the trade is recruited from the ranks of country jobbing blacksmiths (14). This absence of responsibility on the part of the employers as to the instructions of the lads in their employ, combined with the fact of the excessive numbers of apprentices (in some cases "the very foremen do not know how many apprentices there are"), results in a lowering of the standard of efficiency. This point is stated to be of particular importance in the case of engineering and kindred industries, where the greatest danger attends incompetency on the part of the workmen. Moreover, it is complained that the overcrowding of trades brings about a reduction in wages and an increase in the numbers of the unemployed (15). Reforms are desired in the direction of a restriction as to the numbers and age of admission of apprentices, and provision for their better instruction. As regards the latter point, the improvements urged are the enforcement of a sufficient period of apprenticeship, the organisation of a regular system of instruction, the examination of apprentices, and the revival of some form of indentures as a security for the carrying out of these regulations. Especial stress is laid upon the necessity for instruction and examination by the members of the engineering and kindred trades. The Amalgamated Society of Enginemen, Cranemen, Boilermen, and Firemen consider that "there should be instituted a regular system of instruction and service as proposed by the promoters of the Engines and Boilers Bill" (1). Several Societies of Engineers have passed resolutions in favour of "the examination and the "granting of certificates of competency to all persons "placed in charge of steam-engines and boilers" (2). In the Government dockyards the men have expressed a wish that lads should be subjected to a general academic examination before being admitted as apprentices, in order that the tone and educational standard in the yards may be raised (3). The Associated Shipwrights are about to offer inducements for their apprentices to secure certificates at naval architectural classes held in various ports (4). The safeguard of indentures is urgently demanded by the Associated Shipwrights and other bodies of workmen (5). The conflict between employers and employed on the subject of apprenticeship turns chiefly on the question of the advisability on general grounds of limiting the number of apprentices in a trade. The employers maintain that such a course benefits the particular trade, but at the expense of the community at large by increasing the number of the unskilled. "The "attempt to limit the number of apprentices in any "particular trade," said Mr. MacIlwaine, "must fail "eventually. . . . The attempt to limit the age at "which a man may learn a trade is arbitrary and "unjust in the extreme" (6). In certain cases, however, there is disagreement as to whether the trade in question is or is not overcrowded. Thus, in the case of the engineering industry, it is contended by the employed that the attractiveness of the trade always has the result of bringing into it too many apprentices (7), and by the employers that still more apprentices are needed to counterbalance the drain for steamships and the new electrical industries (8). A similar difference of opinion exists between employers and employed in the shipbuilding trade. Mr. Knight, representative of the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society, has brought forward a scheme for the regulation of apprenticeships in this trade, according to which the proportion of apprentices to journeymen should be fixed at two to nine, and the age for entering on a five years' apprenticeship should be fixed at 16. "Assuming," he stated, "that apprenticeship begins at the age of 16, "and continues for five years, journeyman's life beginning "at 21, and ending at 43; taking the number of youths "living between the ages of 16 and 21, and the number "of men living between the ages of 21 and 43, and "dividing the latter by the former, it gives a proportion "of one apprentice to 4·7 journeymen. . . . And this," he added, "we maintain is fully sufficient to meet the "requirements of the trade." The regulations might, moreover, be revised every five years, and expanding firms might take over the apprentices of declining firms, thus avoiding the disadvantage of having to recruit wholly from novices (9). To this the employers object that Mr. Knight has not allowed for the number of apprentices who do not become journeymen, nor for the expansion of trade. The requirements of the industry, they maintain, can only be met by the admission of one apprentice to every three journeymen (10). If the proportion of apprentices were fixed at one to five, at the end of 330 years they claim to be able to prove that there would not be a single workman left in the trade (11). An entirely different objection is raised by one firm, which opposes the limitation of numbers on the ground that "through scarcity of "workmen it is rendered difficult to give preference and "encouragement to good and steady workmen over the "unskilful and unsteady" (12). With regard to the provision of adequate instruction, employers raise no objections; and where their evidence takes notice of the point their efforts appear to coincide with those of the Unions. One firm reports that it keeps a technical [§ 143.]

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. Tabulated Rules, 100. Digest, Vol. III., p. 35. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. Digest, Vol. III., p. 53. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 37. Digest, Vol. III., p. 53. (5) Knight, 20683. (6) Hobson, 19012. Digest, Vol. II., p. 60. (7) Knight, 20732–5. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 28. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. Digest, Vol. III., p. 64. Digest, Vol. III., p. 59. (10) Answers to Questions p. xix. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. Digest, Vol. III., p. 41. Digest, Vol. II., p. 57. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 42. (15) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. x.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 68. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. x. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 28. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 28. (6) MacIlwaine, 26473. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 35, 37. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 53. (9) Knight, 20683. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 47, 49. (11) Diagram, App. 58. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 361.

[§ 143.] school expressly for its apprentices, attendance at two classes at least being compulsory, and that this plan works well (1). Against the system of indentures, however, a protest is made by members of the Iron Trade Employers' Association, who hold that the present system of apprenticeship is advantageous to both sides, because it makes a change of occupation possible where a lad is found on trial to be unfitted for the one at first chosen (2).

Character or Inquiry Notes.

144. The use of character-notes prevails very generally amongst large employers of labour. It is enjoined by the rules of some of the Employers' Associations, and is habitual in the case of the iron trade, all engineering trades, and of late even in Government dockyards and ordnance works (3). The printed forms of such notes submitted for inspection did not differ materially one from another; the enquiries referred to the length of employment, nature of occupation, date and cause of leaving, freedom from present engagement, and former rates of wages of the workmen in question. A space for general remarks followed, or in some cases, definite questions as to conduct and efficiency (4). These notes are complained of by the men for several reasons. They are said to act in the direction of keeping down wages. "If a man is compelled to leave a district where the "wages are comparatively high, and start work where "the rate is much lower, he is paid at the lesser rate, "and the character note as applied to wages is quietly "ignored; but if the conditions are reversed . . . . full "effect is given to the character note, and he is paid at "the lower rate" (5) It is alleged, moreover, that they are used as a means for "victimising" prominent union officials and keeping them out of employment. A man who has taken a leading part in a strike is marked, and may in consequence be obliged to change his name or to emigrate (6). And, finally the notes are disliked because they are confidential, and give a workman no chance of vindicating himself (7). The men would be glad to see them abolished, or, short of this, given to them directly. No mention, they consider, should be made of wages, since a new-comer ought to be paid at the minimum rate for the district. The questions should refer only to their character and ability as workmen (8). In answer to these objections, employers state that no invidious use is made of character notes. One witness admitted that the character note is "the only means that "the masters have of meeting the unions and fighting "them" (9), but it was explained that it was only during, and not after, a strike that employers would refuse to take on a workman who had left his former place on account of it. With regard to the mention of wages in the character note, it was asserted that the information obtained on this point is used merely as a check upon a firm's independent estimate of a man; his wages are fixed by the foreman, who in the ordinary course of events never sees the character notes at all. Sometimes the information as to a man's former wages may bring about an alteration in the foreman's rating, but this, it is asserted, is quite as likely as not to act in the workman's favour by ensuring his being put at once to the work for which he is fitted, instead of having to go through a stage of trial and gradual promotion (10). In addition, Captain Noble pointed out that "the character note is "the only way in which employers can defend themselves in the event of any further legislation taking "place in regard to the Employers' Liability Bill. If "we are utterly precluded," he added, "from inquiring "into the character or particulars of any men that come "to us, it seems very hard that we are to be made "responsible for any accident that they may cause to "their fellow-workmen" (11). The same witness was of opinion that it is only "common justice to the "good workman" that the employer should be advised of the relative merits of those who apply to him for work (12). He objected to the suggestion that the character note should be delivered straight to the workman, on the ground that there would be no guarantee that it would ever reach the hands of those for whose information it was written, but held that a compromise might possibly be effected by making it compulsory for the employer to show the character note, on demand, to the workman in question (13).

145. Labour-saving machinery is being increasingly used in almost all the trades under consideration, and the employers state that they are introducing it wherever it is possible. In many of the hardware trades the result is asserted to have been a reduction both in the numbers employed and the wages earned, while it is the skilled workers in particular who are driven out of employment. This is the case in several of the Sheffield industries and in the nut and bolt trade (1); also in the nailmaking trade, with the exception of the spike nailmaking branch, in which manual labour holds its ground on the whole, and where it is stated that machinery might with advantage be introduced for the carrying out of one particularly laborious process (2). The complaint in these cases is, however, directed less against machinery in itself than against the want of distinction drawn between hand-made and machine-made goods. "In no "case," said the treasurer of the Sheffield Federated "Trades Council, "do we object to machinery, because "experience teaches us that the introduction and development of machinery as applied to the production of "certain articles has been to the benefit of the nation. "But we are fully convinced that when machinery is "used to produce an article requiring elasticity and a "keen cutting edge it fails to produce these qualities" (3). The inferiority, however, of the machine-made article is, it appears, discoverable only in use, so that the practice of fraudulent marking, by which machine-goods (perhaps hand-dressed) are sold as hand-made, deceives the purchaser, and by reducing the quality of hand-made goods to the level of those made by machinery diminishes the wages of the hand-workers (4). The statements made upon this point were emphatic and unqualified. "Misrepresentation of the quality of cheaply produced "goods . . . . through this the workman suffers more "than anything else. . . . . The unprincipled makers of "low class goods are trading upon (the) reputation (of "Sheffield) to the injury of the town, and of the "purchasers of the goods, as well as of the skilled workmen" (5). "The false representations of those who "manufacture and deal in files is a cause of very great, "and will no doubt in the future be the cause of very "serious disputes" (6). "As a result of these scandalous systems of fraud, the respectable manufacturers "are under-sold, highly skilled workmen starved, and "the consumers systematically robbed" (7). It was alleged further that the Merchandise Marks Acts of 1887 and 1891 are defective and admit of easy evasion, and that there is much marking of goods which is misleading though not actually illegal, *e.g.*, a common method is to put false labels instead of false marks upon goods. Again, there is nothing to prohibit "little masters" from finishing off in Sheffield inferior goods made by cheap labour in Birmingham, and marking them as "Warranted, "Sheffield" (8). It is urged that the Act requires amendment in the direction of compelling manufacturers to mark goods according to their quality, and, (wherever machine-made have entered into competition with hand-made goods), their method of production. The file cutters in particular maintain that their industry will be ruined if some such step is not taken to protect hand-made goods; it is only this class of goods they say that can, under fair conditions, hold its own against foreign competition (9). It may be noticed that in the case of some of the trades from which complaints come, *e.g.*, the nut and bolt trade, railway companies have the right of sending inspectors to see that they are not defrauded in the case of the goods supplied as hand-made; but it is stated that "where you get one inspector at one works you get nineteen works where the inspector never visits" (10). Protests directed more expressly against the use of machinery are made by the Brass Moulders' Trade Society, the Spring Trap Makers' Society, and one branch of the Associated Shipwrights (11). The Tin Plate Workers state that the machinery introduced into the coating department of their industry is "of no use and very dangerous," adding that "owing to the nature of the work required no machinery can be of service" (12). The Marine Engineers consider that the development of machinery has more than doubled their work and responsibility (13). Employers, again, although they frequently express the opinion that the introduction of

[§ 145.] Machinery and false-marking.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 240. (2) Digest Vol. III., p. 45. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. Digest, Vol. III. p. 39. Seaton, 25527. (4) App. 48. App. 54. (5) Digest, Vol. III. p. 32. Mosses, 22387. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32. Mosses, 22398. Digest, Vol. III., p. 33. Whittaker, 23055–6. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 33. Whittaker, 23055. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 48. Coventry, 25663. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47. Seaton, 25530–1. Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. Noble, 25260. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. Noble, 25390–4. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. Noble, 25403.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. Digest, Vol. II., p. 57. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 17. Digest, Vol. II., p. 56. (3) Wardley, 19293. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65; Digest, Vol. II., p. 57; Juggins, 17878. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62; Wardley, 19293. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65; Uttley, 19902.. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 56. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65; Uttley, 19925; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 61, 65; Wardley, 19326–7. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 62, 65; Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 125, 135, 136. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 57; Juggins, 17997. (11) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 55, 75, 85. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions p. 88. (13) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 62.

[§ 145.] machinery has benefited the men at least as much as their masters, in some cases add that it has met with opposition on the part of the employed (1). On the other hand, the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society speaks of the introduction of machinery as a "great improvement;" (2) the Amalgamated Society of Enginemen, Cranemen, Boilermen and Firemen considers that it is "generally to the men's advantage" (3); and two other bodies of workmen mention it with approval (4).

Trucking. 146. Trucking appears to have practically died out throughout the trades in question. All the answers from employers and employers' associations agree in stating that no form of the truck system now exists. The evidence of the employed is generally to the same effect. "There is not much of the truck system now" said the representative of the Spike Nailmakers' Association (1). And another witness stated that "the Truck Act has pretty well killed trucking in the nail trade. . . . There is no one probably in the trade who gives his workpeople goods for his nails. It has gone out of fashion, and it is not creditable, and no one of any importance has anything to do with it" (2). The Steel Fork Manufacturers and Forgers of Sheffield, however, mention it as existing "in one or two cases" (3); and a more serious complaint comes from the chainmakers. They assert that trucking still prevails where the small employers or their relatives keep shops, or public houses. Orders are given in these houses, and those who patronise them get more work than others. Wages are, however, always paid in cash, and employers do not dare to pay them at these houses (4). The only other grievance on this point is that of the blast furnacemen, who complain of a "system of co-operative stores, little better than the old system of truck" (5). [§ 146.]

B. ORGANISATIONS.

1. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS, ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED, AND JOINT BOARDS.

1. Engineering, Iron and Steel, and General Metal Trades. Organisations of employers.

147. Oral and written evidence has been received from the British Iron Trade Association,* the Iron Trades Employers' Association, the Ironmasters' Associations in Cleveland, West Cumberland and South Staffordshire, the North of England Iron Manufacturers' Association, the Metallic Bedstead Manufacturers' Association, and the South Wales, Monmouthshire and Gloucestershire Tin Plate-Makers' Association (5).

(a.) Date of formation and extent.

(a.) The date of the formation of these societies is not given in the majority of cases. The British Iron Trade Association was stated in the rules to have been established in 1876 and the Tin Plate Makers' Association in 1889. In the oral evidence, the Iron Trades Employers' Association was said to have been in existence for a period of twenty years (6). This Association includes about 140 establishments, which together employ from 70,000 to 80,000 workmen. The Ironmasters' Associations in Cleveland, West Cumberland and South Staffordshire include 17, 12 and 44 establishments respectively. The annual production of pig-iron at the associated works at Cleveland is about 2,500,000 tons and at the non-associated works about 300,000 tons. The number of workpeople employed by these associations is about 3,500 in Cleveland, and 2,500 in West Cumberland (7). The South Staffordshire Ironmasters' Association was said to have been in continuous existence for at least a century (8).

(b.) Constitution and government.

(b.) The government of the associations is vested in a Board, Council, Committee or Committee of Management, the members of which are chosen annually. The officers are, generally speaking, a president or chairman, and a secretary. Certain of the societies further appoint a treasurer, auditor, trustees and cashier. An Executive Committee, Finance and other Sub-Committees may be appointed by a Committee of the Iron Trades Employers' Association. In some cases, Finance, Urgency and Managers' Committees are appointed, and in others, their functions are fulfilled by the Board, Council, Committee or Committee of Management. No rules are given with regard to the frequency of the ordinary committee meetings. Special meetings of the Committee or Committee of Management of the Iron Trades Employers' Association and the Tinplate Makers' Association are summoned by the secretary, the president or chairman, or on the request of two vice-presidents, three members of the committee or a certain specified number of members of the association. General meetings of the associations are held quarterly or annually. Special general meetings may be called by the chairman, secretary, board or Committee, or at the request of from five to twenty members of the association. The regulations with regard to voting vary considerably in the different associations. Thus, members of the British Iron Trade Association, and the Metallic Bedstead Manufacturers' Association have only one vote at any meeting. Votes of members of the Ironmasters' Associations in Cleveland and West Cumberland and of the North of England Iron Manufacturers' Association vary according to their total annual production of pig-iron and of "puddled, ball-furnace, bushelled, and finished iron, and of steel slabs and finished steel" respectively. Members of the Tin Plate Makers' Association have "one vote for from one to four mills and one vote for every additional four, or part thereof." Members of the South Staffordshire Ironmasters' Association have "one vote for each blast-furnace, and one vote for every eight puddling or ball furnaces," but no firm may have more than eight votes. The votes of the members of the Iron Trades Employers' Association vary according to the yearly amount paid in wages and no member can possess more than sixteen votes. At meetings of the association, generally speaking, the chairman has a second or casting vote. It is provided in the rules of the Ironmasters' Associations in Cleveland and West Cumberland and the North of England Iron Manufacturers' Association that disputes between the associations and their members as to the construction of the rules are to be referred to a referee, or to two arbitrators, one appointed by each party, and if they do not agree to an umpire appointed by them before entering on the case. The award of the referee, the arbitrators, or the umpire, is final. Members of the Tin Plate Makers' Association may appeal from the decision of the committee to an "extraordinary meeting" of the association. No alteration can be made in the above rules except at a general meeting, either ordinary or special. A certain length of notice, which varies from fourteen days to six months of such proposed alteration is generally speaking required. It may be noted that in the Hull branch of the Iron Trades Employers' Association, any proposal for altering the rules is submitted to the Committee, who may recommend it for adoption at a special meeting of the members. In the Tin Plate Makers' Association, alterations in the rules must be passed by a three-fourths majority of all members at an extraordinary meeting and confirmed by a similar majority at another extraordinary meeting held at least fourteen days afterwards.

(c.) Conditions of membership, entrance fees, and contributions.

(c.) Membership of the associations is open to individuals, firms and companies connected with the industry in question. Persons desiring to join the Iron Masters' Association in Cleveland or West Cumberland must inform the secretary of the name and number of blast furnaces owned by them, "the name of the chief manager of the works, and of the total number of tons of pig-iron produced during the previous year, or, in the case of new iron works, the quantity likely to be produced during the ensuing year." In certain of the societies, there is no entrance fee. Members of the Cleveland and West Cumberland Iron Masters' Associations and of the North of England Iron Manufacturers' Association are required to deposit promissory notes to the amount of 10 per cent. on the total sum assured. The entrance fee to the Iron

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 236, 248, 389. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 84. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 68. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 71, 75. (5) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 121–9. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (7) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 121–9; Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 364–8; Digest, Vol. II., p. 39. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 47.

* The British Iron Trade Association has 150 members, "mostly as firms, in all the chief iron making districts of the country." (Letter received from J. S. Jeans, 1st July 1893.)

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56., Price, 17678. (2) Green, 20314. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 15. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 31.

147 (c.)] Trades Employers' Association is based on the yearly amount of wages paid. The rules, generally speaking, provide that any member may withdraw from the association after giving a certain length of notice, which varies from one to six months, and after paying his proportion of the liabilities of the association up to the time of the expiration of such notice. Generally speaking [§ 147 (c.)] subscriptions are payable annually, and are based upon the rateable property of each member, the number of workpeople employed, or the amount paid in wages. The contributions of members in the different associations are given in the following table :—

TABLE showing Subscriptions in Employers' Associations—Engineering, Iron and Steel, and General Metal Trades.

(Tabulated Rules, Nos. 121, 123–5, 127, 129.)

British Iron Trades Association. (Tabulated Rules, No. 121.)	Iron Trades Employers' Association (Central Association). (Tabulated Rules, No. 124.)	Iron Trades Employers' Association (Hull Branch). (Tabulated Rules, No. 125.)
£2 annually, for personal membership.	One shilling annually for every £100 paid in wages during the previous year. *N.B.*—The Committee may require, in cases of exigency, a further contribution not exceeding 1*s.* 6*d.* per calendar month for every £100 in wages, for a period not exceeding three calendar months. Additional exigency subscriptions may be demanded by a two-third's majority at a general meeting.	7*d.* per half year for every workman and boy employed during the previous half year. *N.B.*—The Committee may require, in cases of exigency, a further contribution not exceeding 3*d.* for every workman and boy employed, and at intervals of not less than one month.
Cleveland Ironmasters' Association. (Tabulated Rules, No. 128.)	**West Cumberland Ironmasters' Association. (Tabulated Rules, No. 122.)**	**South Staffordshire Ironmasters' Association. (Tabulated Rules, No. 126.)**
Same as in West Cumberland - -	Contributions based on returns for six months immediately preceding the making of a call, or on the estimated output of new works, or of furnaces re-lighted within six months. Calls made as required on each member in due proportion.	Contributions based on number of furnaces belonging to each firm, the call for a blast furnace being equal to that on eight puddling or ball furnaces. Amount of call is fixed as required at a general meeting.
North of England Iron Manufacturers' Association. (Tabulated Rules, No. 129.)	**Metallic Bedstead Manufacturers' Association, Birmingham. (Tabulated Rules, No. 127.)**	**South Wales, Monmouthshire and Gloucestershire Tinplate Makers' Association. (Tabulated Rules, No. 123.)**
Calls to defray the liabilities of the Association may be made, on the Report of the Finance Committee, at such sums as may be required "for every ton on the make of puddled, ball furnace, bushelled, and finished iron, and of steel slabs and finished steel." Returns on which such calls may be based are furnished annually by the members.	£2 a year for the first fifty hands employed. £1 in addition for every additional fifty, or portion of fifty, hands employed.	£1 a mill, for each calendar month, if worked by steam power, and payable quarterly. 15*s.* a mill for each calendar month, if worked by water power, and payable quarterly. *N.B.*—If the funds are inadequate, additional subscriptions shall be levied in the proportions of the above contributions.

Breaches of the above rules are punished either by a fine or by exclusion from the association.

.) *Benefits.* (*d.*) With regard to the benefits afforded by these associations, members are generally speaking, entitled to compensation for the loss of profits and other expenses incidental to a cessation of work. In the Cleveland and West Cumberland Ironmasters' Association and in the North of England Iron Manufacturers' Association, the profits or "exported annual make" of each member is assured at 2*s.* 6*d.* a ton. In the former associations, the assurance payments in respect of profits "are based on the average daily quantity of pig-iron produced by the furnace or furnaces during the twenty-eight days preceding the date on which they were placed on strike or restriction. The claim of members is limited to the assurance on the profit on the deficiency of production during the stoppage of the ironworks, and for seven days after the resumption of work; and cost of extra coke consumed . . . . . in consequence of such strike or dispute." In the North of England Iron Manufacturers' Association, "in case of strike or restriction, the claim is limited to 2*s.* 6*d.* a ton on the deficiency of the make of iron and steel during the time the works are on strike or restriction. If an illegal strike occurs, the Urgency Committee may order prosecutions at the expense of the association, and employ legal assistance." No protection is, however, afforded by either of the associations to the owner of the works in question, unless he obeys the decision of the association throughout the course of the dispute. Members of the

[§ 147 (d.)] Tinplate Makers' Association, whose works are stopped by reason of a strike or lock-out, may be allowed compensation at the rate of 10*l.* a week for each mill worked by steam power, and 7*l.* 10*s.* for each mill worked by water power. A member of the Iron Trades Employers' Association, whose works are stopped, may be assisted with a weekly payment calculated at the rate of 3*s.* for every 100*l.* paid by him annually in wages. It may be noted that no claim is allowed to any member of the Tinplate Makers' Association except by a resolution of the association passed after the matter in dispute has been discussed by the Committee.

(e.) *Dispute regulations.* (*e.*) No regulations with regard to trade disputes are given by the British Iron Trade Association or the South Staffordshire Ironmasters' Association. Generally speaking, the rules provide that, when any dispute occurs at one of the associated firms, the member in question must at once inform the secretary, who then calls a general meeting to consider the question. If the strike is likely to occur before such meeting can be convened, the Urgency Committee is temporarily invested with the powers of the association. It is in some cases provided that no general lock-out can take place without the consent of two-thirds or three-fourths of the members. During a strike or lock-out, no action may be taken by the employers with a view to settlement, unless the consent of the association has already been previously obtained. Members of the West Cumberland Ironmasters' Association, in the event of a general lock-out, are required to pay all their own expenses. In order to effect a settlement of all disputes, if possible, by arbitration or conciliation, the rules of the Metallic Bedstead Manufacturers' Association provide for the formation of a Wages Board with power to appoint an arbitrator.

(f.) *Regulations with regard to conditions of employment.* (*f.*) Regulations with regard to the conditions of employment occur in the greater number of the associations under consideration. Some settle the rates of wages to be paid by members and stipulate that no change may be made in this respect without the sanction of the association or that of the Council or Committee. The North of England Iron Manufacturers' Association provides that "a wages book setting forth all tonnage and other wages, rates, and extras shall be prepared by the secretary as often as the association may desire. No member shall make any alteration in the standard tonnage, wages or extras, or in any other wages rates, authorised by the association without its sanction; but any general rise or fall of wages, or any special modification declared for by the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Manufactured Iron Trade of the North of England, is permitted." The regulation of the hours of labour is mentioned by the West Cumberland and Cleveland Ironmasters' Association. Others refer to the length of notice or time of payment of wages, and some forbid their members to employ workmen without making inquiries of the former employers as to the character of the persons seeking employment and the cause of their leaving.

(g.) *Objects.* (*g.*) The objects of these associations may, as before, be grouped under four main heads:—viz., legislation, trade insurance and protection, the regulation of wages and the conditions of employment, and other objects, such as the regulation of trade disputes, the protection of the general interests of members and the collection of information with respect to the state of trade at home and abroad. Thus, under the first head, the British Iron Trade Association desires "to attend to all matters connected with foreign tariffs, commercial treaties, and home parliamentary business bearing on" the position of the iron trades. The South Staffordshire Ironmasters' Association watches "Parliamentary Bills relating to railways, canals and foreign tariffs, affecting the interests of employers and employed." Under the second head, it may be noted that the sole object of the South Wales, Monmouthshire and Gloucestershire Tin Plate Makers' Association is "the mutual support and protection of members in their trade." The desire to regulate wages and other conditions of employment is included in the rules of the Ironmasters' Associations in Cleveland and West Cumberland, the Iron Trades Employers' Association and the Metallic Bedstead Manufacturers' Association. Other objects, such as the regulation of disputes with workpeople and the protection of members' interests "against combinations of workmen seeking to impose restrictions on the conduct of trade" frequently occur in the rules of the associations in question. But among the other objects put forward by these societies one of the principal is the protection and advancement of the particular trade. Thus, the British Iron Trade Association desires to "secure a means of communication between members of the iron and steel trades of Great Britain, on all matters bearing upon the commercial interests of these industries; to circulate detailed statistics concerning the iron and steel trades at home and abroad . . . and generally to take all proper measures for advancing the interests of the various branches of these trades." [§ 147 (g.)]

Organisations of employed 148. Oral and written evidence has been received from thirty-five associations connected with the engineering trades, from twelve associations connected with the iron and steel (miscellaneous) trades, and from thirty-nine connected with general metal trades, that is, in all, from eighty-six associations of employed. Among the general metal trades are included the brass trades, the cutlery and other Sheffield trades, the chain and nail trades, the lockmaking, tubemaking and wireworking and tinplate industries. The rules of seventy-six of the above societies have been laid before the Commission.

(a.) *History* (i.) *Engineering trades.* (*a.*) (*i.*) The Steam Engineers' Society was established in the year 1824. Membership is open to the same trades as that of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, except that men connected with the machinery used in textile factories are not admitted. The society has 6,000 members and ninety-seven branches, ninety-four of which are in the United Kingdom, one in New York, one at Montreal in Canada, and one at Brisbane in Australia (1). In March, 1831, the Society of the Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland was established. This association includes 6,300 members out of the 11,000 ironmoulders eligible for membership in Scotland. Membership is open only to ironmoulders proper, that is, marine or engineering moulders, moulders of what are called "light rain water" and ornamented goods, and pipe moulders. The society is confined to Scotland, but it has effected an arrangement with the corresponding English Society of Ironmoulders, whereby members of each are recognised in the other country (2). In 1851, the Amalgamated Society of Engineers was formed by an amalgamation of the local organisations in existence at the time. In 1886, it had 33,007 members; in 1876, 44,578; in 1890, 67,923 and on May 1st 1891, as many as 72,006, of whom 66,761 were resident in the United Kingdom, 57,912 in England and Wales, 6,461 in Scotland, and 2,388 in Ireland. The remainder were living abroad, viz., 2,148 in Canada and the United States, 3,052 in the British colonies outside America, 19 in France and 26 in Spain. It was stated that the foreign members were for the most part British emigrants or visitors. Natives are, however, admitted to the society, and have in some cases joined its ranks. The society has 369 branches in England and Wales, 51 in Scotland, 15 in Ireland, 40 in America, 38 in the British colonies outside America, one in France and one in Spain, making a total of 515 branches. There are 24 branches in the Manchester district only, and 23 in the town of Manchester itself (3). Smiths, ship-smiths, angle-iron smiths, fitters, turners, roll-turners, pattern-makers, millwrights, mechanical draughtsmen, planers, borers, slotters and other machinemen, brassfinishers and coppersmiths, electrical engineers, machine joiners, die-sinkers, press tool makers, and stampers or drop-hammer forgers in the engineering and kindred trades are eligible for membership (4). In most of the districts to which the Amalgamated Society of Engineers extends, joint committees have been formed of representatives of the kindred societies in order to secure united action in dealing with the employers. Since the society was first established, it has paid 569,269*l.* for superannuation, 759,028*l.* for sick, 56,081*l.* for accident, 233,609*l.* for funeral, and 1,585,239*l.* for donation benefits. Besides these sums paid out of the ordinary subscriptions, a contingent and a benevolent fund have been created by special levies. The former is to provide an extra 5*s.* donation benefit to members out of work through strikes, and the latter to make an additional allowance to members who have been out of work for a specially long time or are in any way in peculiarly distressed circumstances. Further sums have also been raised by special levy to support members involved in protracted disputes and in most cases so as to give some allowance to those persons engaged in them, who are not members of the society. The sum hitherto spent in benevolent grants is 75,285*l.*, and in contingent and other strike benefits 101,489*l.* The total expenditure of the society since its formation has amounted in all to 3,379,930*l.* (5). The Associated Blacksmiths' Society was established in 1857. Its membership of of 2,440 workmen includes nearly all

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37-8. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 41. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 32-3. (4) Tabulated Rules Appendix, I, No. 1. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 33.

[§ 148 (a.) (i.)]

the engine, shipping, jobbing and angle-iron smiths in the districts to which it extends. These include the principal industrial centres of Scotland; Whitehaven, Barrow-in-Furness and Newcastle-on-Tyne in England; and Belfast and Londonderry in Ireland (1). In 1872, the United Patternmakers' Association was formed. The membership of this society, which amounts to 2,400, is exclusively confined to patternmakers. It has 54 branches in the various engineering centres of the United Kingdom (2).

Iron and steel trades.

(*ii.*) Passing to the Iron and Steel (miscellaneous) trades, the British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association was stated to have been formed in January 1886. The society extends over five districts, the West of Scotland, the North-East Coast of England, the North-West Coast of England, the Midlands, and South Wales. Mr. Lougher, a member of the Executive Council of the association, stated that when the society was originally introduced into Wales in 1887, "it fell back for a short time and then was resuscitated again," (3) and has now grown so large that it includes amongst its members all the smelters and Siemen's plant men in the district. During the year 1891, Mr. Hodgson stated that the association had paid 4,154*l.* in "idle" benefit, 250*l.* in funeral benefit, and 1,450*l.* in strike pay. Mr. Lougher claimed that the Union in South Wales had brought the men into "closer fellowship" and made them more willing to help one another in their work; had protected the men against incompetent managers, and had, to a very great extent, stopped the "under-gaffers" and under-managers from "bullying" their subordinates and "from using abusive and foul language." (4). The National Association of Blastfurnacemen, established in 1887, embraces the following pig-iron making districts, viz., Cleveland, Durham, Cumberland, North Lancashire, Nottinghamshire, Shropshire, Lincolnshire and Scotland. In Scotland rather less than 1,000 out of the 1,500 blast-furnacemen employed, and in the Cumberland and North Lancashire district, 2,500 out of 3,000 are members of the association. The total membership in all the federated districts amounts to about 8,000 (5). The Associated Iron and Steel Workers of Great Britain represents that branch of the iron and steel industry which is concerned with the conversion of pig-iron into manufactured commodities, such as rails, plates, bars, &c. The organisation of the Iron and Steel Workers was stated by Mr. Trow to have been in existence since 1877, though it was not established in its present form till 1887. In fact, it may, he added, be regarded as the "continuation of" another society which has existed since 1862. The Associated Iron and Steel Workers' Society, in its present form, embraces the iron-making districts of South Yorkshire, East Lancashire, North and South Staffordshire, East Worcestershire, West Cumberland, and the North of England. It was stated that its membership, amounting to 9,500 or 10,000, probably does not include so much as one-fourth of the persons employed, owing to the number of sectional unions that exist in connection with the trade (6). There is, however, Mr. Trow asserted, no important district devoted to the manufacture of iron to which the society does not extend. In 1887, the Associated Society of the Millmen of Scotland was established. It represents the finishing department of the steel trade, that is, that branch of the industry which is concerned with the process from the ingot to the finished rail or angle bar. The Society extends over the West of Scotland and the South of Lancashire, including Wigan and Bolton. Mr. Cronin, general secretary of the society, stated that at one time it had as many as 3,500 members, but they have lately deserted it under the erroneous impression that its officials are "not sufficiently stiff in maintaining their interests" on the Board of Conciliation. Consequently the society only retains 2,000 members "in full compliance" with its rules, out of 5,000 or 6,000 persons employed in the district and eligible for membership (7). The South Wales Iron and Steel Workers' and Mechanics' Association has been established since the year 1890. It extends over the Blaenavon, the Ebbw Vale, the Tredegar, the Rhymney, the Dowlais, and the Cyfartha Works, and includes all the men employed in connection with iron and steel manufacturing in these districts. Thus, the society embraces blast-furnacemen, Bessemer workmen, millmen, forgemen, mechanics, smiths, engine drivers, pattern makers, and others (8).

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 42. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 31. (3) Lougher, 16587–8. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp., 51–53; Lougher, 16,601. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 37. (6) Digest Vol. II., pp. 42–3, 45; Trow, 15,301. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 46. Digest, Vol. II., p. 49; Cronin, 15916–7, 16007–8. "When they run a certain length in arrears," Mr. Cronin stated, "we cut them off; hence I have sent up the number of 2,000." (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48.

[§ 148 (a.) (iii.)]

(iii.) General metal trades.

(*iii.*) According to the evidence given concerning the associations of the employed in connection with the general metal trades, the earliest of which mention is made is the United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association. This was stated to have been in continuous existence ever since its establishment in 1866. It consists of thirteen associated societies, two of which are in Scotland, one in Ireland and the remainder in England. Mr. Caldwell stated that, at the time he was, giving evidence before the Commission, there were 2 293 subscribing members. The trades eligible for membership of the association in question are "the moulders" and the "finishers," the latter including brass turners and fitters. These trades, Mr. Caldwell added, are also admitted to membership of the Birmingham Brass Workers' Society, the London Amalgamated Brass Makers' Society, the London Scientific Instrument Makers' Society, the London Brass Moulders' Society, and the London United Brass Finishers' Society. Most members of the trade are unionists (1). In March 1889, the National Amalgamated Lock and Key Smiths' Society was established. It is said to have since been "gaining in strength ever day." Its members are not confined to any particular districts but are chiefly to be found in Wolverhampton and Willenhall. 1,800 out of 2,000 persons engaged in the industry live in the district of Wolverhampton and they all belong either to the society in question or to the Midland Counties Trades' Federation. In the district of Willenhall, more than 1,000 out of 1,400 or 1,500 workers are on the books of the society. It was stated by Messrs. Day and Martin that although "hundreds of disputed questions" had arisen during the last two years, the society had never yet consented to a reduction in wages (2). It was stated by Mr. Fretwell, secretary of the Spring-knife Cutlers' Society that, for a number of years, the spring-knife cutlery trade of Sheffield had been one of the worst paid in that town. The men therefore engaged in it formed a union in the year 1889, in order to make an effort to obtain better remuneration for their labour (3). The dates of formation of the Silver Plate Protection Society and of the Britannia Metal Smiths' Union are not given either in the oral or written evidence. Membership of the societies is confined to inhabitants of the town of Sheffield, where from 2,600 to 2,800 persons are employed in the silver plate, and from 700 to 800 in the Britannia Metal trades. The Britannia Metal Smiths' Union, Mr. Hobson stated, embraces more than 90 per cent. of the persons employed in the industry, and the combined membership of the two unions includes about 1,000 adult male workers. Both the unions in question are, generally speaking, recognised by the employers, but "hatred" to the principle of combination "is deep-rooted in the hearts of bad employers," who, Mr. Hobson asserted, at times make "a determined stroke at these combinations," and impoverish the union by dismissing perhaps 30 or 40 of their men and throwing them on its funds (4). The nail makers of Dudley, it was stated, were attempting to form a union in May 1892, and the employers were trying to help them to raise the necessary funds. At that time, however, its financial position was very weak, inasmuch as the workpeople cannot afford to pay a higher subscription than 2*d.* or 3*d.* a week, which is scarcely enough to cover the cost of collection (5). The nail makers of Bromsgrove in March 1892, had also just established a union of which 1,200 out of the 1,500 workers engaged in the industry had become members. Previously, a union had been formed in 1875, but it collapsed in consequence of the exhaustion of its funds, due to the expenditure of 14,000*l.* in a 20 weeks' strike against a reduction in wages. A union was again established to "work" the 1891-92 strike, but Mr. Powell stated that it did not survive the termination of hostilities (6). The Spike Nailmakers' Association was broken up in 1890, after existing for three years. The absence of organisation at the present time was asserted to be due, not to the hostility of employers so much as to the lack of common sense on the part of the workpeople themselves (7). The National Amalgamation of Chainmakers' and Chainstrikers' Associations extends over a large portion of South Staffordshire, East Worcestershire, Pontypridd, Newcastle, and Gateshead-on-Tyne (8). Very few of the persons employed in workshops are now members of the union. Some of them were members at one time, but, even then, they used to take work far below trade union wages till they were found out by the union officials (9).

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 42. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 58; Day 18249; Martin, 18357. (3) Digest, Vol. III. p. 64). (4) Digest, Vol. II.; Hobson, 19029, p. 60–61. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 7. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 60. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 55.

[§ 148 (b.)]

(b.) Form of government.

(b.) The supreme government of these societies is vested either in a conference, a meeting of delegates, or a general meeting of all members of the association. Ordinary business is conducted by a Committee, Council, Executive Council, Managing Committee or Committee of Management. The principal officers are a president or chairman, general secretary, treasurer or "money steward," trustees and auditors. Certain societies have also one or more vice-presidents, and an assistant secretary. The number of trustees varies from three to seven, and there are usually two auditors. In the Steam Engine Makers' Society there is also a referee to whom complaints against the secretary or other officers are addressed. The officers of some societies receive considerable payment for their services. The Executive, or the association as a whole, has power in some cases to appoint one or more sub-Committees or sub-Councils to transact certain business. Thus, according to the rules of the Loyal Free Industrious Society of Wheelwrights and Blacksmiths, a sub-committee of three members is selected by co-option from the Executive Council, to whom the secretary may apply in cases of emergency. The local Executive Council of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers may be divided into sub-committees, and the Executive Council of the Brass Finishers' Society in the West of Scotland may appoint five of its number to form an Organising Committee. Meetings of the Executive are held every week, fortnight, month or quarter, "when it thinks fit," or "at times specified by the president." Provision is generally made for calling special executive meetings when necessary, either on the request of the officers, a certain number of the members of the Executive or the ordinary members of the association. General meetings of all the members are held, generally speaking, annually, but in some societies they take place every half year, quarter, three weeks, month, fortnight, or even week. In some of the larger societies, conferences or delegate meetings are held at intervals in place of a general meeting ; and in a few, conferences are held in addition to the general or delegate meeting. Thus, the National Union of Stove Grate Workers has a monthly delegate meeting and an annual conference. The National Amalgamated Society of Brass Workers, Birmingham, holds delegate meetings monthly or oftener, in addition to an annual conference. The United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association holds a conference once in every five years, but has no other general or delegate meeting. In addition to the ordinary delegate or general meetings, it is laid down in the rules of most of these societies that special meetings of this nature may be summoned on the request of the Executive, or of a certain proportion of the members, or of the branches. Generally speaking, the questions under discussion are decided by a majority of votes, and a simple majority is frequently sufficient. In some societies, however, questions of importance can only be decided by a specified majority, *e.g.* two-thirds or three-fourths of the members present. In some societies, delegates have the right to an "accumulative" vote, that is a vote for each specified number of members or fractional part thereof. Thus, in the National Association of Blastfurnacemen each delegate has a vote for every hundred or part of a hundred members in the lodge he represents. In the National Federation of Enginemen's Protective Associations, the delegate of each district has the accumulative vote on questions which have been previously considered by the districts, and one vote on other questions. In the Durham County Colliery Enginemen's Mutual Aid Association each delegate has one vote for every ten members he represents. In the larger societies the branches or lodges frequently are, or may be, grouped into districts, and these districts have a special government. The number of branches which go to constitute a district varies in the different societies, but the grouping of the branches and the extent of the district are generally said to be decided by the Executive Council. The government of the districts or branches is very similar to the central government, and is usually vested in a Council or Committee with its own officers. The approval of the Central Executive must be obtained for the appointment of officers and the establishment of branch bye-laws. In many societies members may appeal from the decision of the branch executive to a branch general meeting, from this to the district executive or general meeting, and from the district to the central Executive. There is a further appeal in some cases to a general or delegate meeting, the decision of which is final. In some societies there are special committees or officers appointed to hear appeals, or to arbitrate in case of disputes between members of the association, or between members and officers. Thus, the Friendly Society of Ironfounders has an Appeal Committee of thirteen members, which hears appeals made from the decision of the Executive Committee. The rules of the Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland provide that any district dissatisfied with the decision of the Executive Council may appeal to an Arbitration Committee, consisting of two representatives from each side, who elect an independent umpire. Members of the Scottish Tinplate and Sheet Metal Workers' Friendly and Protective Society, Glasgow, "may appeal to the Committee, and thence to a general meeting, whose decision is final, unless reference be made to arbitration, when each party must choose an arbitrator, and the arbitrators an umpire, whose decision is final, if the arbitrators do not agree." Generally speaking, it is provided that new rules may be added, or existing rules altered or rescinded, only by a general meeting or conference of the society. In the majority of cases, a certain length of notice of the proposed alterations must have been given before they can be discussed. The most usual mode of procedure is for the members or branch proposing the alterations to send notice thereof to the general secretary, who must announce the proposal on the circular summoning the next general meeting. A special meeting is called in some societies to consider the alterations, in others they may be discussed at ordinary, general, or representative meetings. In the rules of the United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland it is laid down that "motions for rescinding, amending or adding to the rules must be voted on at two monthly meetings before they can come into force." A simple majority of votes usually decides questions of alterations in rules, but in some societies, as in the File Forgers' and Strikers' Mutual Aid Society, a three-fourths majority must vote for them. It may be noted that the rules of the St. Helen's Association of Colliery Enginemen are binding for a period of three years, "when the members shall decide if a revision shall take place, and, if so, by what method or system ; and the Revising Committee shall carry the wishes of the majority into effect." The general statement comprised in the above summary draws attention to the similarity in the constitution and government, the benefits and the objects, of the societies in question, and at the same time necessarily loses sight of the contrast between the elaborate nature of the rules in some of the larger and the simplicity in some of the smaller societies. This may be brought out by a comparison between the rules laid down concerning the constitution and government of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, on the one hand, and those of the File Forgers' and Strikers' Mutual Aid Society, Sheffield, on the other. The government of the former society is vested in an Executive Council, the members of which are elected by the electoral districts into which the society is divided. The officers consist of a chairman, a general secretary, and two assistant secretaries. There are also five trustees and two auditors. Delegate meetings are held at certain dates fixed by the association. In case of emergency, the rules provide that the Executive Council can take the votes of the members as to the advisability of holding a special delegate meeting. For the government of the colonial districts, there are American-Canadian and Australian Councils. Districts that contain more than one branch are governed by a committee, elected so as to represent each branch as far as possible. Where there is only one branch, the branch committee acts as the district committee. The committees may appoint sub-committees from their own body when necessary. The United Kingdom is divided into six districts, in each of which an organising delegate is located in such town as may be decided upon by the Executive Council. Branches of the society are governed by a committee. Branch officers include a president, vice-president, secretary, assistant secretary, treasurer and two auditors. Branches meet fortnightly and quarterly meetings are also held. The president, secretary or committee may call a special meeting of the branch when necessary. Members may appeal against any decision of the branch committee to a summoned meeting of the branch, thence to the Executive Council, and finally to the delegate meeting. With regard to any alterations in the rules of the association, it is laid down that each branch must appoint a committee at least nine months before the delegate meeting to consider a revision of the rules. Each branch secretary must send in proposed alterations to the general secretary six months before the delegate meeting, and the general secretary must send a notice to each branch at least eight weeks before the meeting. Any rule may then be

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[§ 148 (b.)] altered or rescinded, and new rules may be made by the delegate meeting, but benefits may not be abrogated without the consent of three-fourths of the members who record their vote (1). In contrast to the above, the government of the File Forgers' and Strikers' Mutual Aid Society, Sheffield, is vested in an Executive which consists of the secretary and three committee-men. The senior committee-man acts as chairman of all committees. No other regulations are given with regard to the government of this society other than that no new rule may be added or existing rule amended or rescinded, unless with the consent of three-fourths of the members present at a general meeting specially called for that purpose (2).

(c) *Entrance fees and contributions.*

(*c.*) The entrance fees in the different associations under consideration vary from 2*d.* to 4*d.* "to cover the cost of rules and card of membership" in the Chatham Smiths' Association, to from 10*s.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* according to age in the Amalgamated Society of Engineers. In many societies the amount of the entrance fee varies according to the age at entrance; and in some societies, as for example in the Associated Blacksmiths' Society of Scotland, members pay higher or lower entrance fees according to the benefits which they wish to receive. The rates of contributions vary in the different societies from 1*d.*, a quarter in the National Federation of Enginemen's Protective Associations, to not less than 1*s.* 3*d.* a week in the Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland. In addition to the regular subscriptions, most of the societies provide for calls or levies to be made upon the members at certain intervals or under certain conditions. Contributions are paid weekly, fortnightly, monthly, or even quarterly. Members in arrears for a certain specified period are suspended from all or certain benefits of the society until all arrears have been paid up and the member has been "clear upon the books" for a certain length of time. Members in arrears for longer than another specified period are, generally speaking, excluded from the society. [§ 148 (c)]

(*d.*) *Benefits.*

(*d.*) The various benefits granted by the association include accident, dispute, distress, emigration, funeral, out-of-work, sick, superannuation, and travelling benefits. 297 benefit funds are connected with the associations under consideration. These are divided among the different trades and the various classes of benefits according to the numbers shown in the following table. The benefits granted by the central association of larger societies, which are usually mentioned also in the rules of the branches, have been counted, as in the Introduction to the Rules of Associations of Employed, once only, and such local benefits alone have been counted as are given in addition to or instead of those allowed by the central rules.

TABLE of Benefits granted by Associations of Employed in Iron and Steel, Engineering and General Metal Trades.

	Iron and Steel Trades.	Engineering Trades.	General Metal Trades.	Totals.
Number of associations	11	33	32	76
Dispute benefit	10	27	20	57
Funeral benefit	6	24	23	53
Out-of-work benefit	5	21	24	50
Sick benefit	1	20	16	37
Superannuation benefit	3	11	13	27
Accident benefit	4	15	6	25
Travelling benefit	3	9	11	23
Emigration benefit	1	2	10	13
Distress benefit	2	8	2	12
TOTALS	35	137	125	297

It appears from the above table that dispute, funeral and out-of-work benefits occur most frequently, and it may be noted that, in the general metal trades, funeral and out-of-work benefits are granted more often than any other. These benefits are only given in accordance with certain conditions laid down in the rules. Dispute benefits usually take the form of a weekly allowance, either for a specified number of weeks or until the dispute is over or the member has found work elsewhere. The amount of the allowance is sometimes stated in the rules and sometimes left to the discretion of the Council or Executive. In certain societies the amount varies according as the member is married or single. "Victimised" or "sacrificed" members, that is, persons discharged on account of their connection with the society, occasionally receive the same payment as members on strike, and sometimes a higher rate of allowance. In the United Pattern Makers' Association "victimised" members receive the average wages of the trade, or locality, or the amount of their wages at the time of dismissal. According to the rules of the United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland, "victimised" members receive the wages they earned before being discharged. Some societies grant legal assistance to members who are obliged to prosecute employers for sufficient cause, or who have to defend themselves against an unjust prosecution. Thus, members of the Marine Engineers' Union (United Kingdom) may claim assistance "in all cases of loss, adversity or oppression, arising from the association or not" and "legal assistance is provided where the interests of engineers, as a class, are concerned." According to the rules of the Durham County Colliery Enginemen's Mutual Aid Association, legal expenses may be paid for members who are prosecuted on account of accidents for which they are not responsible. After dispute benefit, funeral benefit is of most frequent occurrence. In some societies a fixed amount is payable on the death of any member. In some, for example in the Manchester branch of the United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland, the amount of the benefit varies with the length of period of membership of the deceased. In others, the amount is raised by means of a special levy. The majority of the societies also make provision for a grant on the death of a member's wife and of children below a certain age. In the Dundee Branch of the United Journeymen Brass Founders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland, 3*l.* is paid on the death of a member's wife, 1*l.* on the death of a member's child under fourteen years of age, and 2*l.* on the death of a single member's parent. Out-of-work benefit is generally granted in the form of a weekly allowance for a fixed number of weeks, then at a lower rate for a second specified period and so on, either until the member has obtained work or has received the full amount of benefit to which he is entitled. In many societies, the amount thus given varies either with the length of membership, or with the scale of contributions paid by the member in receipt of such benefit. Sick benefit is generally paid on the same principle as accident and out-of-work benefits, that is, a weekly allowance is made for a certain period, or until the member is able to resume work. In some cases, the length of time during which the benefit is paid is left to the discretion of the Central Executive or branch committee. These benefits are only granted in accordance with certain conditions laid down in the rules. Superannuation benefit is usually granted only to members above a certain age, which varies from 50 to 60, and who have belonged to the society for a specified number of years. The scale of benefits sometimes depends upon the length of membership. Thus, in the Manchester Brass Founders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland, the following grants are made in the form of superannuation allowances to members aged 50 and incapable of work:—

After 20 years' membership, 5*s.* a week.
" 24 " " 6*s.* "
" 28 " " 7*s.* "
" 32 " " 8*s.* "
" 35 " " 9*s.* "

Members who receive superannuation benefit are often precluded from working at their own trade, but are at liberty to earn what they can at other occupations. A member of the Bury Branch of the United Journeymen Brass Founders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland is not "considered superannuated if he can earn 16*s.* a week at any light employment." Accident benefit

(1) Appendix I. to Tabulated Rules, No. 1. (2) Tabulated Rules, No. 22.

[§ 148 (d.)] usually takes the form of a definite weekly allowance payable for a certain number of weeks and then of a smaller sum either for another specified period or until recovery. With regard to the travelling benefit, unemployed members who wish to travel in search of work usually receive a "travelling card" from the secretary of their society, on which is stated the sum which they are entitled to receive at any branch where they may call. With the exception of distress benefit, which is granted by twelve of the societies under consideration, emigration benefit is granted by a smaller number of societies than any other. Generally speaking, it is given to members who are entitled to ordinary dispute or "victimised" benefit, and often is, in fact, dispute benefit paid in advance to members who wish to go abroad. In many cases the amount of the benefit varies according to the time during which the member has belonged to the society. A grant of money is sometimes made out of the distress benefit fund to relieve members under any special circumstances of need, or to widows of members. Several societies also grant compensation out of such a fund to members who have suffered the loss of their tools, and provision is sometimes made for the payment of the contributions of members who are ill, or out of work, in order that they may not be obliged to incur loss of membership. Thus, the contributions of members of the British United Hammermen and Forge Furnacemen's Society, Northumberland, "when sick, lame or out of employment," are paid out of this fund. Similarly, the rules of the National Amalgamated Iron and Tin Plate Workers, Braziers, Mounting Forgers, &c., Trade, and Friendly Society, assists "deserving members, not entitled to benefit, by paying their contributions."

(e.) *Dispute regulations.*

(e.) In case of a dispute with an employer, the rules, generally speaking, provide that the members concerned must lay their case at once either before the secretary or other officers of their branch or before the general secretary or Executive Committee. These officials must investigate the matter and endeavour to effect an amicable settlement, whenever it is possible. If they are unable to do so, a branch meeting must be summoned to consider the case, and if it is considered of sufficient importance, information must be sent to the general secretary, who must lay the matter before the Central Executive. It is sometimes further laid down in the rules of the societies that this body must appoint a deputation to inquire into the cause of the dispute, and to interview the employer in order to arrange the matter peaceably, if possible. It may be noted that the rules of the United Enginekeepers' Mutual Protective Association of Scotland stipulate that "the association shall in no case be connected with any strike or struggle, unless such could not reasonably and honourably be prevented." In the Associated Blacksmiths' Society, "in case of oppression, the members concerned must, in the first place, respectfully solicit their employer for relief." In the rules of several societies it is required that, at some stage of the dispute, the branch or Central Executive shall offer to submit the matter to arbitration or conciliation. In many cases, the settlement of disputes by these methods is strongly recommended, and the officers and members are urged to adopt them, whenever possible. Regulations are in some cases given with regard to Joint Committees or Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation permanently established in connection with the societies in question. It is provided in the rules of almost all the associations that strikes may not be undertaken, nor individual members leave their employment, without the sanction of the Executive. Some societies further provide that the consent of a specified majority of all the members voting by ballot, or of the members present at a general or delegate meeting, must be obtained before a general cessation of work may take place. Sometimes certain other conditions are imposed under which alone a strike may be sanctioned. Thus, the Liverpool and District Hammermen's Society directs that in a dispute care shall be taken not to withdraw more members than the funds of the society can support. As a rule, members or branches that persist in a strike without the sanction of the Central Executive, receive no encouragement or support of any kind from the society, and in some cases members who leave their employment, or who persuade others to do so, are punished in accordance with the rules. Thus, any branch of the National Steelworkers' Association which ceases work without the consent of the Executive Council, forfeits all claim on the association. When, however, the cessation of work has been entered upon with the sanction of the society, penalties are imposed on any member who takes the place of the men on strike, or in any way "accommodates" an employer concerned in the dispute. A strike Committee is frequently appointed from the men on strike to report on the progress of the dispute to the Executive, but the conduct and settlement are, as a rule, in the hands of the Central Executive.

[§ 148 (f.)] (f.) The greater number of the societies in question have rules with regard to the behaviour of members towards their employers. In some societies members are forbidden to boast of their independence towards their employers or foremen on account of their membership of the society; in others, any breach of contract or act of dishonesty towards an employer is expressly forbidden. The London branch of the United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association lays down that "no apprentice shall be encouraged to leave his employer, or act contrary to the terms of his indenture, by reason of joining the society." The regulations with regard to the behaviour of members towards non-unionists generally lay down that a member who obtains or endeavours to obtain work for a non-unionist, whilst any suitable unionist is unemployed, is subject to certain penalties; the London branch of the United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association imposes a fine upon any member who employs non-unionists when he is obliged to engage extra labour for work which he has undertaken. The members of some associations are forbidden to teach the trade to non-unionists, or to help them in their work. It may be noted, however, that the rules of the United Enginekeepers' Mutual Protective Association of Scotland provide that "if a member is working where the majority of enginekeepers are non-unionists, he may combine with them to protect their common rights." The majority of the associations in question have also some regulations respecting the conditions of labour, such as the rates of wages, hours of labour, piece-work and overtime. Thus, the rules of the London Scale, Beam, and Weighing Machine Makers' Trade Protection Society provide that "the minimum wage is 36*s.* a week, and the maximum weekly hours are 54." Certain other societies stipulate that their members are not to work for less than the established rate of wages. Piece-work, generally speaking, is regarded with disfavour, and members of some societies are forbidden to introduce the system into shops where it is not already the custom. It is stated in the rules of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers that "the society considers piece-work one of the greatest evils it has to contend with. Every member must dispense with it whenever an opportunity occurs, and prevent its introduction into any shop where it does not now exist. Members must be paid through the pay office, not through the piece-master. Branches must stipulate, when possible, that all those doing piece-work are paid their fair share of the surplus through the pay office, and that all members have a proper rated wage, apart from piece-work prices." The rules of the Journeymen Machine, Engine and Iron Grinders' Friendly Society, and of a few other societies, require that the payment for piece-work shall be shared with the foreman, in proportion to the wages of the members concerned. Sub-contracts are prohibited by some societies, and the majority lay down regulations with regard to apprentices and boy labour. Thus, the National Association of Nut and Bolt Makers allows one boy to work with every six oliver men. No member of the Operative Brass Cock Finishers' Society may employ more than one boy at a time, at work which is on the recognised trade list, nor employ any boy over 16 years of age, if he has not worked at the trade before. Regulations are sometimes made with regard to the hours of labour, the safety of employment, the provision of work for the unemployed, and other matters.

(f.) *Other regulations.*

(g.) *Objects.*

(g.) The rules of the associations in question are frequently preceded by a preface or introduction, in which the objects for which the society was instituted, and the means by which it is hoped to carry them out, are given. In many cases, no objects are mentioned beyond those contained in this introduction, and some societies do not state any objects at all. The regulation of the rates of wages and the hours of labour of members of the association is one of the most frequent objects. The regulation of apprenticeship is mentioned by three societies, namely, the Friendly Society of Ironfounders, the Scissors Forgers' Provident Society, and the National Union of Stove Grate Workers, all of which desire to regulate the number of apprentices. The third of these societies also aims at obtaining a proper training for them. The National Amalgamation of Chain Makers' and Chain Strikers' Asssociations, as well as the Friendly Society of Ironfounders, endeavour to check the introduction into the trade of adult labourers who have not been brought up to it. The objects of some societies include the regulation of certain other conditions of employment. Thus, protection against unlawful discharge is said to be an object of the Amalgamated Society of Enginemen, Cranemen, Boilermen, and Firemen; the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers and Mechanics of South Wales and Monmouthshire; the Associated Iron and Steel Workers of Great Britain; the British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association; and the

[§ 148 (g.)] Amalgamated Society of Iron and Steel Workers. The formation of benefit funds, and the regulation of the general relations between employers and employed are among the objects put forward by these societies. Certain more general objects are also included, such as the furtherance of the interests and welfare of the members, and the advancement and prosperity of the trade. The South Wales, Monmouthshire, and Gloucestershire Tin Plate Workers' Union desires to "provide a labour newspaper." Many societies refer to the promotion of trade unionism, the assistance of trade societies with similar objects to their own, or the federation of various unions together. Thus, it is an object of the Amalgamated Tube Trade Society to amalgamate with other societies to redress grievances in the general conditions of labour.

Joint Boards. (a.) *History. Board of Arbitration and Conciliation for the manufactured Iron and Steel Trade for the North of England, 1869.*

149. (*a.*) The history of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation in the trades here under review begins with the establishment, in the year 1869, of the Board of Arbitration and Conciliation for the Manufactured Iron and Steel trade of the North of England. The trade in this district had undergone a very rapid development from the year 1860 and onwards, with the consequence that labourers had been hastily collected from all parts of the country. The men were, for the most part, ignorant of the conditions of the trade, and unable to understand the great fluctuations to which it is liable. These causes combined to create a hostile feeling between the employers and operatives, and led to some very prolonged disputes, during which the opposing sides became organised into two strong associations. The labour difficulties further led to a disastrous strike and lock-out in the year 1866, when "the men were obliged to give way for a time, but did so with much discontent." Mr. Dale came forward at this stage to effect, if possible, a better relationship between employers and employed. He succeeded in gaining the support of Mr. Kane, the workmen's leader. It was "chiefly owing to the "exertions of these two gentlemen, and to the influence "that they possessed over their respective sides," that the Board was established in 1869 (1). Since that date the Board has continued in successful operation. It has effected 60 wages settlements; seven by mutual arrangement, 20 by arbitration, and 33 by sliding scales. Mr. Dale was the first president of the Board. He held that position till 1875, when Mr. Whitwell succeeded him. He has, however, filled the office of referee since 1883. The board, Mr. Trow stated, has no arrears of work. The average number of cases dealt with per annum during the last ten years is 18·7, and the total number since February 1883, is 161. Only four cases have come before Mr. Dale as referee since 1883, when the office was established. At present the number of cases brought before the board tends to decrease, but this is attributed to the circumstances of the trade, and the greater frequency of local settlement, and not to any loss of confidence. The membership of the board was at its highest point in January 1874, when it included 35 works, and at its lowest in January 1888, when it included 10 works. In 1892, only 12 works were in membership, and the number of operatives subscribing was 4,270. The number of operatives has varied from 14,867 in January 1873, to 3,127 in January 1886. This diminished membership is not due, however, to any dissatisfaction with the working of the board, but to the transition from iron to steel, the improvements in machinery, and to the fact that a large number of the employers prefer, by standing outside the board and following its decision, to reap all the benefits without sharing the expenses of membership. Owing to the change in the character of the industry, the number of puddling furnaces was diminished between 1874 and 1890 from 2,136 to 604, and the steel workers who replaced the puddlers were not at first eligible for membership. Moreover, less labour is required to produce steel than iron, and, as a matter of fact, fewer men were employed to produce 1,158,874 tons in 1890, than there were to produce 613,812 tons in 1873. The introduction of machinery has caused a similar diminution in the number of men employed and eligible for membership of the board. Finally, the men are ineligible for membership, unless their employers are subscribers. The confidence felt in the board, Mr. Trow stated, is now greater than ever, and its decisions are loyally carried out, both by the men and by the employers. In May 1876, upon the refusal of a small section of the men's organisation to obey a decision of the board, that body paid compensation to the employers to the extent of one-half the loss which they had sustained in consequence, and ballotted for substitutes to take over the work of the recusants. It may be noted that the decisions of the board have been retrospective ever since its formation. In questions concerning an advance in wages, the men are willing to continue working upon the original terms, pending the decision of the board, because they know that the extra payment will take effect from the moment that their claim is filed. When questions concerning a reduction in wages come before the board, the employers continue to pay the original rate, and trust to the men's honesty to refund the extra amount if the decision is given against them. This trust, Mr. Trow added, has only once been abused by the men. In view of the fact that, before the board was established, it was impossible for employers and employed to agree upon any question of a change in the rate of wages without a cessation of work, it is evident that a great improvement has been effected in the relations between employers and employed. Moreover, since the year 1873, the puddling trade has been "decaying," and the board has had great difficulty in keeping up wages, and preventing employers and employed from trying to take advantage of each other. Yet, only two or three short stoppages have occurred since its formation. These were all merely sectional and the operative members of the board did their best, Mr. Whitwell stated, to check them. The board is said to have been successful in removing a large number of evils, and to have created a friendly and courteous relationship between the rival parties (1). The first attempt to form a Wages Board in the Midlands was made in 1872, when an equal number of representatives of the associations of employers and employed respectively met for the purpose of discussing and settling wages. Their proceedings were, however, quite informal. No rules were drawn up, no special times of meeting were fixed, and no president was appointed. About two years later, an attempt was made to form a board for the district of South Staffordshire and the new iron-making district of Middlesborough, but this failed. In the beginning of the year 1876, the employers and employed of South Staffordshire agreed upon the formation of a board to be called the South Staffordshire Mill and Forge Wages Board, consisting of an equal number of employers and operatives, a chairman (who was, for the time being, to be the chairman of the Ironmasters' Association), two secretaries and a president. The last was to be a gentleman outside the trade, who should arbitrate when the board came to a deadlock, and whose award should be final. The board was constituted as closely as possible on the lines of the similar board in the North of England, and continued in this form successfully in operation from 1876 to 1886. It was then re-organised upon a wider basis, so as to include the whole iron-making district of which Birmingham is the centre, and its title was changed to that of the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board. The board has, however, very little connection with the steel trade. In March 1892, 42 firms were represented by the twelve employer-representatives on the board. It was stated by Mr. Hingley that employers who are represented on the board, without being actually members of it, are not so completely in touch with their men as those that have the opportunity of meeting the men's representatives. Mr. Aucott even stated that the board would cease to exist, unless the rules of the board were amended in such a way that each of the firms connected with the board had two representatives on it, one chosen by the employers and one by the employed*. The board has proved very useful in preventing disputes, no general strike or cessation of work having occurred since its establishment. Mr. Hingley acknowledged that the board had "been an education for both sides"; "as a "result, the employers took up a much less arbitrary "attitude than heretofore, and the workmen were much "more reasonable in their demands." Moreover, "the "workmen are much more amenable to their leaders, "and the industry can be carried on without that danger "from strikes and lockouts which formerly interfered "with it" (2). The Cleveland blast furnacemen and ironmasters agreed in 1872 to a sliding scale, and a Joint Committee in connexion therewith. A similar sliding scale was established in the Cumberland district in 1880.† In 1880, a Board of Arbitration and Conciliation for the Wrought Nail Trade was established at Birmingham, "to arbitrate on all questions of wages "that may be referred to it from time to time by the "joint consent of the employers and workmen, and by

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Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, 1876.

Cleveland and Cumberland Blast Furnacemen Joint Committees, 1879 and 1880.

Nail Trade Boards, 1880 1892.

(1) Memorandum on the Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxvi., xxxvii. Digest, Vol. II., p. 100.

* It may be noted that the Board has recently been reconstituted. At a meeting held on July 31st, 1893, the chairman stated that sixty-two firms had "now pledged themselves to support the Board," and "they were now in a much better position than ever before." (The "Labour Tribune," August 5th, 1893.)

† See *supra*, Section 108 (*b.*).

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 100–101. Memorandum on the Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxvii. Hingley, 14978. (2) Memorandum on Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxvii; Digest, Vol. II. pp. 101–102. Hingley, 15586–9.

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"conciliatory means to interpose its influence to put an "end to any dispute that may arise." The board consisted of twelve employers and twelve workmen. Three committees were appointed, each composed of four employers and four workmen, one committee to represent the "Cwt." work, one the "Bromsgrove" work, and the other the "M" nails made in the Dudley or "Up-Country" districts. Owing, however, to the refusal of some masters to join it, and the consequent underselling of some of the members, the board was a failure, and came to an end within one year (1). During and after the strike at Bromsgrove, 1891–2, conferences took place between employers and employed for the purpose of negotiation. At one of these meetings, it was decided to form a Wages Board, composed of six representatives of each party, with a view to avoiding strikes in the future (2).

West of Scotland Manufactured Steel Trade Board, 1890.

In August 1890, a Board of Conciliation and Arbitration was established in connexion with with the manufactured steel trade in the West of Scotland. Its constitution and rules are closely copied from those of the Board for the Manufactured Iron and Steel Trade of the North of England, with the exception of the standing Committee, which is absent in the West of Scotland Board. The formation of this board was the consequence of a strike of the Scotch millmen, which was settled by the arbitration of Sheriff Spens. Overtures for starting the board, Mr. Cronin stated, came from the employers. The suggestion was "readily accepted" by the men, but they appear now to have lost confidence in it, and "have even gone so far," he added, "as to instruct me to withdraw the delegates from the board" (3). Mr. Cronin admitted that the board had not worked well. In certain instances the employers acted in violation of its rules, as well as of its practice. The men, moreover, had given them no excuse for their conduct by similar acts of disloyalty on their part, except in one case, when a small section struck against an award contrary to the wishes of their leaders, who at once proceeded to find other men to supply their places. In order that a board of this nature may be successful, "it must have a strong organisation behind "it" (4).

South Wales Iron and Steel Trade Joint Committee, 1890.

In September 1890, an agreement was entered into between the representatives of the employers and workmen in the South Wales and Monmouthshire iron and steel trade, for a sliding scale and Joint Committee. The board has only had one general statement to deal with since its formation. Several minor matters, however, arising out of the terms of the sliding scale, have been brought before it for settlement (5).

Brass Trade Board, 1890.

In the same year, a Board of Conciliation for the Amalgamated Brass Trades was established at Birmingham, which is said to have already performed some useful work (6).

Nut and Bolt Trade Board, 1890.

For the last two years, Mr. Juggins stated in March, 1892, a Board of Conciliation or Joint Committee had existed in connexion with the nut and bolt trade. It had, he added, prevented the outbreak of many strikes which would otherwise have occurred in the year 1891, owing to depression in trade (7).

Proposed Board in connexion with British Steel Smelters' Association.

In March 1892, Mr. Hodge stated that conferences had been held with regard to the establishment of a Board of Conciliation in connection with the British Steel Smelters' Association. It had been agreed to constitute such a board, and a committee had been appointed to draft its rules. The employers' representatives, however, desired to frame a rule to the effect that half the expenses of the board should be deducted from the men's wages, and the men's representatives had proposed that their share of the expenses should be paid through the union. "The "objection of the employers," Mr. Hodge stated, to this suggestion on the part of the men, "was that in accepting "that rule it would practically compel them to make "every man a union man. We on our part did not see "that that was a very great hardship, as the men in the "various works were all union men anyhow. . . . Unless "the men who formed the board were our members we "would have no control over them. . . . That was "the difference of opinion," and negotiations were suspended in consequence (8) There is, Mr. Lougher stated, a tendency in the South Wales district towards a better understanding of employers and employed (9).

(b) Relations between employers and employed in other industries.

(*b.*) No boards of conciliation have been established in connection with the other industries included under this group, but, with the exception of the relations which exist between the Scotch ironmasters and blast-furnacemen, and between the members of the Enginemen, Firemen, and Boilermen's Association and the Cleveland ironmasters, the relations between employers and employed appear to be satisfactory. The Amalgamated Society of Engineers has no uniform policy with regard to its dealings with employers, but varies its attitude, Mr. Whittaker stated, according to the circumstances of the different districts. The society encourages its various district organisations to conduct negotiations with the district associations of employers, before resorting to strikes, and the employers are in most cases quite willing to confer. With regard to the Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland, Mr. Jack stated that the employers' associations (viz., the North-East of Scotland Iron Founders' Association and the West of Scotland Iron Founders' Association) meet the men's union in conference, by means of delegates, for the purpose of settling questions which relate to wages and the conditions of employment generally. On the other hand, disputed questions which arise between the brass-founders and their employers have generally been arranged amicably between the men's association and individual employers. They have no official dealings with the employers' association as such (1). It may be noted that the chain and nail makers, the joiners, the engineers, and representatives from certain other industries expressed themselves in favour of the establishment of boards of arbitration and conciliation (2).

[§ 149 (b.

(c.) Constitution and government.

(*c.*) The constitution of the boards in question is the same in so far as they all consist of equal numbers of representatives of employers and employed. The number of members on each side varies from six to twelve, but in the North of England Manufactured Iron and Steel Trade Board and the West of Scotland Manufactured Steel Trade Board, one representative of each side from each of the works in membership may sit upon the board. An equal representation of labour and capital has been the object kept in view in the constitution of these boards; nevertheless it has been found necessary, except in the South Wales Iron and Steel Trade Sliding Scale Committee, to provide for a decision in case of an equal division of the votes of the members. Thus, disputed questions which cannot be settled by the board are referred, in the North of England Iron and Steel Trade and West of Scotland Steel Trade Conciliation Boards, to the referee, and in the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board to the president, who "must "be a person of position not connected with the iron trade." According to the rules of the Cleveland and Cumberland Blast-furnacemen's Joint Committees, the two sides each appoint one arbitrator, and these two choose an umpire. The officers, generally speaking, are a president or chairman, vice-president or vice-chairman, one or two treasurers, and two secretaries. Two auditors are also appointed by the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Manufactured Iron and Steel Trade of the North of England, and the Manufactured Steel Trade of the West of Scotland. The Cleveland Blast-furnacemen's Joint Committee has no permanent chairman, but one is elected at each meeting by the members present. Some boards appoint sub-committees which deal with those questions which are not of sufficient importance to be laid before the full board, or to which all questions must in the first instance be referred, before they are submitted to the full board. Thus, the North of England Iron and Steel Trade Board of Conciliation annually appoints from its members a standing committee, consisting of ten representatives of the employers* (only five of whom, however, may speak or vote at any meeting), and five representatives of the workmen, in addition to the president and vice-president of the board. All questions must in the first instance be submitted to this standing committee, which investigates and has power to settle all matters referred to it, except a general rise or fall of wages, or the selection of an arbitrator. According to the rules of the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, a dispute arising at any works may be referred to a sub-committee consisting of the chairman, vice chairman, one member from each side of the board, and the two secretaries.

(d.) Dispute regulations.

(*d.*) Most of the rules impose certain restrictions upon the right of bringing any dispute under the consideration of the board. In the Cleveland Blastfurnacemen's Joint Committee, any workman member who has a grievance, must lay it before the committee of his lodge. If, after investigation, the committee decides that the case shall be sent to the Executive Council, it must first appoint a deputation to wait upon the manager of the works where the dispute arose, to endeavour to settle the dispute. In the South Wales Iron and Steel Trade Joint Committee, no appeal may be made before an attempt has been made to settle the matter locally

(1) Memorandum on Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxvii. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 18. (3) Cronin, 16230–2. Digest, Vol. II., p. 102. Memorandum on Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxviii. (4) Digest Vol. II., p. 102; Cronin, 16317. (5) Memorandum on Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxviii., Digest Vol. II., p. 102. (6) Memorandum on the Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxviii. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 104. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 102–3; Hodge, 16414–6. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 53.

* This double representation of the employers was introduced by mutual consent, because it appeared that the employers' nominees were not able to attend as regularly as those of the operatives. (Digest, Vol. II., p. 100.)

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 37, 41, 53; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 33, 39, 41, 43. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 104; Digest, Vol. III., p. 82–3.

[§ 149 (d.)] between the owner or manager and the workmen themselves, and the rules of the Cumberland Blastfurnacemen's Joint Committee contain a similar regulation. According to the rules of the North of England Iron and Steel Trade and the West of Scotland Steel Trade Boards of Conciliation, any member who has a grievance must lay it first before the manager or foreman of the works, and then, if necessary, before the operative representative of the works, whose duty it is to investigate the matter, and attempt to effect a settlement with the manager or foreman in question. Regulations are laid down as to the time and the manner in which such attempts at settlement are to be made, and it is only after their failure that a written statement of the case is to be drawn up and signed by the employer and operative representatives of the works, and forwarded to the secretaries of the Conciliation Board. When any difference arises at any of the works connected with the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, the Works' representatives must first endeavour to effect a settlement. If they fail, the matter may be referred to a sub-committee appointed to investigate it, which may summon a board meeting, if necessary. If all preliminary attempts at settlement fail, the matter is laid before the board or committee. It is then stipulated in the rules of some of the boards that a written statement of the case must have been prepared and laid before the board by the two parties to the dispute, and, in some cases, they are required to sign a submission to the decision of the board, before the latter commences its inquiry. Verbal evidence may, as a rule, be brought forward in addition to the written statements. The members of the board vote upon the question at issue, and the rules provide for the equalisation of the voting power of the two sides by the withdrawal of as many members upon the side on which there is a majority, as will make the two sides equal. In the North of England Iron and Steel Trade Board of Conciliation, if the employer or operative representative of any works is absent from a meeting, the other representative of the works is not allowed to vote. In the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, if any representatives of the employers or workmen are absent, the secretaries of their respective sides are empowered to vote in their place. Finally, if no agreement can be arrived at by means of conciliation, the rules generally contain some provision for reference to arbitration. In the North of England Iron and Steel Trade and West of Scotland Steel Trade Boards of Conciliation, when the question is a general rise or fall of wages, a board meeting must be held, at which the referee may be invited to preside, and in case no agreement is arrived at, the matter must be referred to the decision of an individual arbitrator.

(e.) Minor regulations. (*e.*) A certain length of notice of any proposed alteration in the rules is usually required. In the North of England Iron and Steel Trade Conciliation Board, alterations in the rules may only be made at the January meeting of the board in each year, and notice of the proposed alterations must be given one month beforehand. In certain boards, it is also a rule that, pending the decision, the board or committee must do all in its power to prevent the occurrence of any strike or lock-out. The North of England Iron and Steel Trade Board of Conciliation lays down that there must be no strike or suspension of work pending the decision of the board; should such take place, the board will refuse to inquire into the matter in dispute till work is resumed, and will take the fact into consideration in dealing with the case. The West of Scotland Steel Trade Board of Conciliation has similar regulations.

(f.) Objects. (*f.*) No objects are mentioned in the rules of the Cumberland Ironmasters' and Blastfurnacemen's Joint Committee, and the South Wales Iron and Steel Trade Sliding Scale Committee. In the other boards the objects are in all cases very similar, and include the peaceable settlement of wages and the adjustment of any dispute which may arise between employers and employed in the trade or locality in question. The Cleveland Ironmasters' and Blastfurnacemen's Joint Committee, it may be noted, expressly limits its power by excluding from its jurisdiction "county questions, "or such as may affect the whole trade." (1)

II. SHIPBUILDING TRADES.

Organisations of employers.

150. Written evidence has been received from the Shipbuilders' Associations on the Wear and on the Tees and at Hartlepool, from the East of Scotland Association of Engineers and Ironfounders, the National Federation of Shipbuilders and Engineers, and the Belfast Employers' Association, a combination of employers engaged in ship-building, engineering, machine-making, and iron-founding.(2)

a.) Extent and date of formation. (*a.*) It was stated in the oral evidence that the National Federation of Shipbuilders and Engineers had been in existence for about three years. It is not registered under any Act of Parliament, but is virtually a trade union for the purpose of protecting the employers' interests. (1) About 40 employers are connected with the Association, which together employ, as ship-builders and in the various works connected therewith, about 45,000 persons. The East of Scotland Association of Engineers and Ironfounders was established in 1865, and includes 31 employers, who together employ about 6,000 men. In the case of the other associations the date of establishment is not given. The Shipbuilders' Associations on the Wear and on the Tees and at Hartlepool embrace thirteen and six firms respectively. About 10,000 workpeople are employed at the establishments connected with the former association. The rules of the Belfast Employers' Association and the East of Scotland Association of Engineers and Ironfounders are the only ones which have been handed in to the Commission.(2)

[§ 150 (a).]

(b.) Constitution and government. (*b.*) The government of the latter association is vested in a Board of directors chosen annually. The officers of the societies are a president or chairman, treasurer, and secretary. The Association of Engineers and Ironfounders has also a vice-president, and the Belfast Employers' Association appoints an auditor. The board of directors in the former association meets quarterly, and special meetings are called at the request of the president or vice-president, who has a second or casting vote at these and all other meetings. General meetings of the associations are held annually. Special general meetings are held in the former association at such times as may be appointed by the directors, or at the request of six members, and in the latter association on the request of any member. Each member of the former association has only one vote, and in the latter one to three votes, according to the number of workmen employed. All questions as to the construction of the rules of the former association are referred to the directors, whose decision is final. Any director dissatisfied with the decision of the board may appeal to the next general meeting, or the directors may appoint a special general meeting, the decision of which is final. No alteration in the rules of these associations can be made except at a general meeting, previous to which notice of the proposed change has been given to the members.

(c.) Conditions of membership, entrance fees, and contributions. (*c.*) Membership of the former association is open to employers who carry on business in the district as engineers or ironfounders, and of the latter association to "employers and managing directors of limited com-"panies employing skilled labour, or their authorised "representatives." The entrance fee to the former association is 2*l.* The subscriptions are payable annually, and amount in the former association to 2*l.* (or such sum as the directors may fix from time to time), and vary in the latter association from 10*s.* to 20*s.*, according to the number of workmen employed. Any breach of rules in the former association is punishable by a fine not exceeding 5*l.*, or expulsion from the society.

(d.) Dispute regulations. (*d.*) No regulations with regard to disputes are given in the rules of the Belfast Employers' Association. Any member of the East of Scotland Association of Engineers and Ironfounders, "who considers himself aggrieved by "the conduct of the journeymen, apprentices, or work-"men in his employment, may inform the secretary, who "shall report the matter to the president. The latter, if "he sees cause, may order a special meeting of the board "of directors to be summoned."

(e.) Regulations with regard to conditions of employment. (*e.*) Regulations with regard to the conditions of employment occur in both of the societies in question. The East of Scotland Association lays down that "the "week's work is 57 hours, and is paid for as 60 hours. "Fortnightly payments shall continue, except where the "present practice is different. Workmen shall work "overtime when required, and be paid therefor as "formerly." In this society and in the Belfast Employers' Association, members may not employ workmen who have left other members, without applying to the former employer for information.

(f.) Objects. (*f.*) The objects of the former association are "to "regulate the terms of agreement with journeymen, "apprentices, or workmen in the employment of mem-"bers; and generally to protect and promote the "interests of members in all questions arising in connec-"tion therewith." The latter association desires "to "collect and furnish information on all subjects of in-"terest to the employers of skilled labour; to discuss "questions affecting the interests of such employers; to "take joint action, when advisable, in case of wages' dis-"putes, strikes, or other matters connected with the "employment of labour."

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 545–550. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 384–5.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 49. (2) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 141–2.

[§ 151 (a).]

151. Oral or written evidence has been received from seventeen associations of employed in the various branches of the shipbuilding industry. Eight of these are shipwrights' societies, viz., the Hull Shipwrights' Provident Association, the United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights, the Associated Shipwrights' Society, including the Chatham Ship Construction Association, the Chatham Royal Dockyard Ship Joiners' Association, and the Chatham Dockyard Iron Caulkers' Society; the Liverpool Shipwrights' Trade and Friendly Association, and the Newport Shipwrights' Society. Two of the societies are connected with the boat or barge building industry, viz., the Boat Builders' Trade Union of the River Thames, and the Barge Builders' Trade Union. The other societies are the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, the Liverpool Operative Ship Painters' Association, the Amalgamated Society of (Ship) Carpenters and Joiners, the Sailmakers' Society (London and Glasgow branches), the Rose of Tyne Society of Drillers and Cutters, and the United Drillers' and Cutters' Society. The rules of all these societies have been handed in to the Commission, but those of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners have been dealt with in the summary on organisations of employed in the building, printing, and miscellaneous trades.

(*a.*) The United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders was established in the year 1834, and extends over the whole of the United Kingdom. Its membership amounts to 37,000 out of a total of about 50,000 engaged in the industry, and includes the five classes of mechanics connected with iron and steel shipbuilding. Mr. Knight stated that nearly 190,000*l.* had been accumulated by the society to form a reserve fund, and about 95 per cent. of the society's income is devoted to accident, sick, out-of-work, and superannuation benefits and to other benevolent purposes. The proportion of its income devoted to dispute allowance had averaged during the last 11 years only about $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. per annum. This proportion, Mr. Knight added, is "surprisingly small," especially if regard be paid to the fact that the suspension of work due to the continual readjustments of the prices paid for piece-work, on which fully 90 per cent. of the members of the union are engaged, are classed as disputes, even when amicably conducted throughout. Even taking a period of 21 years, the average proportion of the annual income of the society spent in disputes is not more than 5 per cent (1). With regard to the development of organisation in Scotland, Mr. Conley stated that the Scotch workers have lately become well organised, and, at the present time, there are over 7,000 members in that country. Only 2 per cent. of the persons engaged in the industry are still outside the union, and they, he added, are strictly confined to the small boiler shops and the bridge and girder shops inland (2) There are 1,800 members of the union in the North of Ireland, and, in the town of Belfast, there are no non-unionists (3). The South Wales district, on the other hand, is not well organised, and Mr. Fox stated that in the ironworks there is a general desire on the part of employers to break up the union and employ non-union men (4). In 1844, the Liverpool Shipwrights' Trade and Friendly Society was formed, and its membership at the present time was stated to amount to 1,350 (5). The Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, which embraces both the house and ship branches of the trade, has held a continuous existence since the year 1860. It has now 36,000 members, of whom 7,000 are engaged in the shipbuilding branch of the trade. . . The Bargebuilders' Society was founded in 1872, and includes 420 out of the 500 bargebuilders employed on the Thames. This society was amalgamated with an older organisation in 1890 (6). In many of the ports of the United Kingdom, local shipwrights' societies began to be instituted in connection with the trade as early as the beginning of this century, and since 1850, Mr. Wilkie stated, these had been connected "by correspondence and annual delegates' meetings." The single central society was established in the year 1882. Owing to the pace at which this union has absorbed the local societies, its membership has been more than doubled during the last two or three years, and now amounts to 12,000. There still remain, however, between 4,000 and 5,000 shipwrights in local societies, and there are a few who do not belong to any organisation at all. The union extends over the whole of the United Kingdom (7). In 1883, the Chatham Ship Construction Association was established, and, in 1886, the Sailmakers' Society, Glasgow. The membership of the latter society numbers 180; there are no non-unionists in the district (1).

(*b.*) With regard to the constitution and government of the above societies, there is a striking difference between the elaborate regulation of associations like the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders and the Associated Shipwrights' Society, and the simple constitution of small societies like the Boat Builders' Trades Union of the River Thames. The government in all the associations is in the hands of an Executive Council, Committee, or Committee of Management. The officers are a president or chairman and secretary. There are also, generally speaking, auditors and trustees; the latter, according to the rules of the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, consist of the members of the Executive Council. In certain cases one or more vice-presidents, a treasurer, and assistant secretary, are appointed in addition to the other officers, and, in the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, a referee is chosen from the members of the Executive Council. The supreme government of these societies is vested either in a General Council, conference, or delegate meeting, as in the larger societies, or in a general meeting of members of the association. Thus, in the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, the General Council, one member of which is elected by the Executive Council, and the others by the districts from candidates nominated by the branches, "decides all matters reserved for its decision." In the United Kingdom Society of Shipwrights, a conference meeting of branch delegates is held every alternate year, or oftener, if necessary. A delegate meeting of the Associated Shipwrights' Society is summoned, when required, by the Executive Council. General meetings in the smaller societies are held annually, half-yearly, quarterly, fortnightly, or even weekly. Special conferences, delegate or general meetings may, as a rule, be summoned on the request of the Executive or of a certain number of members of the association. Regulations for branch and district government are laid down by the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders and the Associated Shipwrights' Society. The form of government is similar in both cases to that of the central administration. Members may appeal from the branch Committee to the district Committee or Executive Council or Committee, thence, in the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, "to the society through the monthly "report," and, in the Associated Shipwrights' Society, "to the delegate meeting, or finally to the votes of all "members." The Executive Committee of the Rose of Tyne Society of Drillers and Cutters, Northumberland, and of the United Drillers' and Cutters' Society, "determines all appeals." In the London and Glasgow branches of the Sailmakers' Society, and in the Liverpool Operative Ship Painters' Association, any member may appeal from the decision of the Executive to a general meeting of the society. Disputes between members and the officers or Committee of the Liverpool Shipwrights' Trade and Friendly Association must be referred "to "three of the five arbitrators, who are elected at a "general meeting." No provision for appeal on the part of dissatisfied members is made in the rules of the other societies. Generally speaking, new rules may be added, or old rules altered or rescinded, only by an ordinary or special general meeting, a general Council meeting or a conference of the society. A certain length of notice of the proposed alterations is frequently required before they can be discussed. The rules of the Associated Shipwrights' Society and the Rose of Tyne Society of Drillers and Cutters, provide that the rules may also be altered by submitting the proposed changes to all members by circulars or otherwise. Changes may be made in the rules of the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders by the vote of a majority of all the members, "after submitting the proposed alterations to the society in the monthly report."

(*c.*) The rates of contributions vary considerably in the different societies, and are payable weekly, fortnightly, monthly, or quarterly. Members in arrears for a specified length of time are suspended from all or certain benefits of the society, until all arrears have been paid up, and they have been "clear upon the "books" for a certain specified period. Members in arrears for a longer period are excluded from the society. The entrance fees, rates of contribution, and the benefit funds connected with the societies in question, are given in the following table.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 21. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 26. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 47; Tabulated Rules, No. 109. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 15. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 26-7; Wilkie, 21,394-6.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 106, 113; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 49.

TABLE of Entrance Fees, Contributions, and Benefits in Associations of Employés in Shipbuilding Trades (Tabulated Rules, Nos. 100 15).

Entrance Fee and Contribution.	United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders. No. 100.	Boat Builders' Trades Union of the River Thames. No. 101.	Barge Builders' Trade Union. No. 102.	United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights. Central Association. No. 103.	United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights. Hull Shipwrights' Provident Association. No. 104.
Entrance Fee - - - -	Full first-class members and second-class members (*i.e.* persons who have worked five years at the trade, but not before the age of 21), if aged 20 to 25, pay 12*s.* 6*d.*, which increases at the rate of 1*s.* a year until the age of 30. Full members, aged 30 to 31 years, pay 1*l.* 15*s.*, which increases at the rate of 1*l.* a year until the age of 35. Second-class members, aged 30 to 45, pay 25*s.*, and are entitled to all but sick benefit. Third-class members (*i.e.* persons over 45) pay 15*s.*, and are entitled to trade protection. Members 'wives are admitted to funeral benefit on payment of 2*s.* 6*d.* entrance fee.	1*s.* for those who join within one month after serving their apprenticeship, after which it is fixed by the Committee.	2*s.* 6*d.* Excluded, full, and over-age members pay 1*l.* and 10*s.* respectively.	6*d.* - - - - - - - - -	Young men joining on the expiration of their apprenticeship pay 1*s.*, afterwards like journeymen, they must pay an entrance fee of 3*l.* Membership of the sick, accident, and death fund is optional. Entrance fee 1*s.* In the Junior Shipwrights' Provident Association the entrance fees are as follows :— Apprentices joining within 3 months pay 1*s.* Apprentices joining within 3 to 12 months pay 1*s.* and contributions. Apprentices joining within from 1 to 2 years, pay 5*s.* and contributions. Apprentices joining within from 2 to 5 years, pay 10*s.* and contributions.
Contribution - - - -	Full second-class and third-class members pay 4*s.*, 3*s.* 4*d.*, and 2*s.* a month respectively. Second-class members entering between 30 and 45 years of age pay 9*d.* a week. Each member pays 1*d.* a quarter for law expenses incurred under the Employers' Liability Act. Levies can be raised when necessary. Full or second-class members, if 20*s.* or 15*s.* in arrears, pay 3*d.* or 2*d.* a week extra for six months; if 12*s.* or 10*s.* in arrears, they will be suspended from benefits until four weeks after paying up.	½*d.* a day for each day employed, and 6*d.* a quarter. Any boat builder on going to sea may remain a member by paying 2*s.* a year and 3*d.* a quarter. Members not working at the trade may remain as honorary members by paying 2*s.* a year, and can return to the trade without further entrance fee. On the death of a member a levy of 1*s.* is raised.	Each full or over-age member pays 8*d.* or 4*d.* a week for the first 12 months, and afterwards the same while in work, but if out of work, 1*d.* a week. A levy of 1*s.* is raised on the death of a free member. Members leaving the trade may pay 3*d.* a week for funeral benefit.	1*s.* a member quarterly - - - -	Each member pays 2*d.* a week, or such sum as the general body may determine, besides 2*d.* a week to the sick, accident, and death fund. Each member of the Junior Shipwrights' Provident Association pays 1*d.*, or not more than 2*d.*, a week. A levy of not more than 6*d.* a member may be raised if the funds are less than 15*l.*

Entrance Fee and Contribution.	Associated Shipwrights' Society. Central Association. No. 105.	Associated Shipwrights' Society. Chatham Ship Constructive Association. No. 106.	Associated Shipwrights' Society. Chatham Royal Dockyard Ship Joiners' Association. No. 107.	Associated Shipwrights' Society. Chatham Dockyard Iron Caulkers' Society. No. 108.	Liverpool Shipwrights' Trade and Friendly Association. No. 109.
Entrance Fee - - - -	Full members under 35 pay - - - - - - 20*s.* " " from 35 to 40 pay - - - - 25*s.* Non-full members pay 15*s.*, and are not entitled to dispute and out-of-work benefits. Trade members pay 10*s.*, and receive dispute, distress, and out-of-work benefits.	3*d.*, except for apprentices, who enter free, and honorary members, who pay one guinea.	3*d.* - - - - - - - - -	3*d.* charged after second month - -	Journeymen entering within 3 months after their apprenticeship pay 1*l.* 1*s.* Journeymen entering within 3 to 6 months after their apprenticeship pay 1*l.* 10*s.* Journeymen entering within 6 to 12 months after their apprenticeship pay 2*l.* 2*s.* Journeymen entering more than 12 months after their apprenticeship pay 3*l.* 3*s.* Members excluded for arrears pay 21*s.* on their re-entry.
Contribution - - - -	The contribution for full members is, high scale, 1*s.* a week; low scale. 9*d.* or more a week, paid fortnightly to collectors. Non-full members pay 2*s.* 6*d.* every four weeks. These members pay all extra levies. Trade members pay 3*d.* a week, and levies for trade purposes.	1*d.* a month, and a voluntary subscription of 1*d.* a month to the sick fund. Apprentices pay half contributions.	1*d.* a month. Honorary members pay 2*s.* 6*d.* a year.	1*d.* a month - - - - - -	Each member pays 1*d.* a day while working at the trade, ½*d.* a day if doing labouring work, 1*s.* 5*d.* a month if working at another trade, or if at sea, 1*s.* 11*d.* a calendar month. An annual contribution of 3*s.* 3*d.* a year is paid for medical expenses. An extra levy of 1*d.* may be raised when required.

Entrance Fee and Contribution.	Newport Shipwrights' Society (Monmouth). No. 110.	Liverpool Operative Ship Painters' Association. No. 111.	Sailmakers' Society. London Branch. No. 112.	Sailmakers' Society. Glasgow Branch. No. 113.	Rose of Tyne Society of Drillers and Cutters (Northumberland). No. 114.	United Drillers' and Cutters' Society, Kingston-upon-Hull. No. 115.
Entrance Fee	Persons who have served their time in Newport:— Aged 21 to 22 years, pay - - - - - 10s. „ 22 „ 23 „ „ - - - - - 1l. „ 23 „ 24 „ „ - - - - - 2l. Persons who have served their time elsewhere in the United Kingdom pay 5l.	The entrance fee and fee for rejoining are determined at a quarterly meeting. Any person who, not being an apprentice, has worked at less than the current rate of wages, must pay, besides the entrance fee, a fine of 2l. 10s.	2s. 6d. - - - - -	For persons joining within four weeks after the end of their apprenticeship 5s., after this 10s., or whatever the Committee may determine. Foreigners pay 2l.	Persons aged 18 to 25 years, pay - - 5s. „ „ 25 „ 35 „ „ - - 7s. 6d „ „ 35 „ 40 „ „ - - 10s. Persons over 40 may enter as honorary members on payment of 10s.	
Contribution	Each member pays 1d. a day while working at the trade, and ½d. a day if working out of the trade, or at sea. A levy of 6d. per member is raised on the death of a member's wife. Extra levies may be raised when the funds are insufficient.	3½d. a week, besides all levies raised from time to time.	For ordinary members, 6d. a month; for honorary members (subject to no levy), 6d. a quarter.	½d. a day while in employment, paid fortnightly. Members while at sea, pay 1½d. a week.	Ordinary members 4d. a week, which may be increased with the consent of the members. Honorary members pay 3d. a week, which entitles them to all benefits except funeral benefit. A levy of 1s. is raised to aid cases of permanent disablement.	4d. a week, which may be increased with the consent of the members. A levy of 1s. is raised to aid cases of permanent disablement.

Benefit Funds.	United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders. No. 100.	Boat Builders' Trades Union of the River Thames. No. 101.	Barge Builders' Trade Union. No. 102.	United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights. Central Association. No. 103.	United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights. Hull Shipwrights' Provident Association. No. 104.
Accident benefit	A bonus of 100l. or 50l., according to circumstances, is raised by a levy in case of accident. Law expenses incurred under Employers' Liability Act are defrayed by the Society.	- - - - - - - - - -	10s. a week for 12 weeks. - - -	Any branch with an accident fund must support its own members, even when they are working away from their branch.	For the Junior Shipwrights' Provident Association, 5s. a week for 8 weeks, then 3s. a week for a further period as decided by Committee.
Dispute benefit	12s. a week for eight weeks, then out-of-work benefit till end of dispute; 10s. a week for eight weeks if piece-work is the cause of dispute; victimised members receive 25s. a week.	Support is granted as the Committee may consider just.	2s. a day, or as the members may decide.	Members on strike in defence of general principles may receive 5s. a week from the central fund, besides what they may be paid by their branch.	—
Distress benefit	Relief may be granted in cases of distress: a member's widow may receive 5l., and 1l. for each child under 13 years of age.	- - - - - - - - - -	From 10s. to 5l. is paid in compensation for loss of tools by fire or shipwreck.	- - - - - - - - -	Members are compensated for loss of tools by fire or shipwreck, at the rate of 50 per cent. of their value, up to 5l.
Funeral benefit	Full member, 12l.; on the death of his first and second wives, 6l. and 4l.; second class member, 6l.; on the death of his wife, 4l., on the death of a widow who has paid 1s. a quarter, 5l.	6l. - - - - - - - - -	12l.; on death of a member's wife, 3l. -	- - - - - - - - -	5l.
Out-of-work benefit	After 2 to 5 years' membership, 4s. a week for 14 weeks, then half for 14 weeks. After 5 to 7 years' membership, 6s. a week for 14 weeks, then half for 14 weeks. After 7 to 9 years' membership, 7s. a week for 14 weeks, then half for 14 weeks. After 9 to 11 years' membership, 9s. a week for 14 weeks, then half for 14 weeks. After 11 to 13 years' membership, 10s. a week for 14 weeks, then half for 14 weeks. After 13 or more years' membership, 11s. a week for 14 weeks, then half for 14 weeks. Second-class members: After 2 to 5 years' membership, 3s. a week for 14 weeks. After 5 or more years' membership, 4s. a week for 14 weeks. The above sums are paid in the course of 3 years, for not more than 14 weeks in any one year.	- - - - - - - - - -	1s. 8d. a day for 96 days in 12 months; then as decided at a general meeting.	—	—

TABLE of Entrance Fees, Contributions, and Benefits in Associations of Employés in Shipbuilding Trades (Tabulated Rules, Nos. 100–15)—*continued*.

Benefit Funds.	United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders. No. 100.	Boat Builders' Trades Union of the River Thames. No. 101.	Barge Builders' Trade Union. No. 102.	United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights. Central Association. No. 103.	United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights. Hull Shipwrights' Provident Association. No. 104.
Sick benefit	Full members: 10*s.* a week for 26 weeks. 5*s.* a week for 26 weeks. 4*s.* a week until recovery. Second-class members: 8*s.* a week for 18 weeks. 5*s.* a week for 18 weeks. 3*s.* a week until recovery.	-	-	Any branch with a sick fund must support its own members, even when they are working away from their branch.	8*s.* a week for 8 weeks, after which 8 weeks must elapse before further benefit may be paid. The Junior Shipwrights' Provident Association allows 5*s.* a week for 8 weeks, then 3*s.* a week for a further period as decided by the Committee.
Superannuation benefit	Persons aged 55 years may become entitled to this benefit; after 25 years' membership, 4*s.* a week, which increases at the rate of 1*s.* a week for every 5 years until 40 years' membership.	-	-	-	A grant may be made for the support of any person who, after 10 years' membership, has become incapable of work through old age or other infirmities.
Travelling benefit	Members entitled to out-of-work benefit may have a travelling card, and receive benefit once in three months from any branch they may visit.	—	—	—	—

Benefit funds.	Associated Shipwright's Society. Central Association. No. 105.	Associated Shipwright's Society. Chatham Ship Constructive Association. No. 106.	Associated Shipwright's Society. Chatham Royal Dockyard Ship Joiners' Association. No. 107.	Associated Shipwright's Society. Chatham Dockyard Iron Caulkers' Society. No. 108.	Liverpool Shipwrights' Trade and Friendly Association. No. 109.
Accident benefit	Paid at the same rate as sick benefit.	—	—	—	—
Dispute benefit	10*s.* a week for eight weeks, and then 8*s.* a week.	—	—	—	—
Distres benefit	Members are compensated for loss of tools by fire or shipwreck at the rate of 50 per cent. of their value, up to 5*l.*	-	-	-	5*l.* is granted in compensation for loss of tools by shipwreck.
Funeral benefit	High-scale members, 10*l.*: and 5*l.* on death of one wife. For low-scale members half these sums are paid. Trade members, 3*l.*	-	-	-	6*l.*, 7*l.*, 8*l.*, according as the membership varies from 1,600 to 2,000; 6*l.* on the death of a member's wife, and 5*l.* on the death of a member's widow who has paid 2*s.* a year.
Out-of-work benefit	9*s.* a week for 10 weeks, and 5*s.* a week for 10 weeks in the course of 12 months.	—	—	—	—

Benefit Funds.	Associated Shipwrights' Society.				Liverpool Shipwrights' Trade and Friendly Association.
	Central Association. No. 105.	Chatham Ship Constructive Association. No. 106.	Chatham Royal Dockyard Ship Joiners' Association. No. 107.	Chatham Dockyard Iron Caulkers' Society. No. 108.	No. 109.
Sick benefit	High-scale members, 12*s.* a week for 13 weeks, 8*s.* a week for 13 weeks, 6*s.* a week for 6 months, 5*s.* a week for as long as the recipient of benefit has been a member. Low-scale members receive half the above sums.	3*l.* once in 12 months to members of the sick fund absent from work for 12 weeks through illness.	-	-	6*s.* a week for 16 weeks. 4*s.* „ „ 16 „ Medical attendance is provided.
Superannuation benefit	Persons 55 years of age :— After 20 years' membership, high-scale 4*s.*, low-scale 3*s.* After 25 years' membership, high-scale 4*s.* 6*d.*, low-scale 3*s.* 6*d.* After 30 years' membership, high-scale 5*s.*, low-scale 4*s.*	—	—	—	—

Benefit Funds.	Newport Shipwrights' Society (Monmouth). No. 110.	Liverpool Operative Ship Painters' Association. No. 111.	Sailmakers' Society.		Rose of Tyne Society of Drillers and Cutters (Northumberland). No. 114.	United Drillers and Cutters, Society, Kingston-upon-Hull. No. 115.
			London Branch. No. 112.	Glasgow Branch. No. 113.		
Accident benefit	-	12*s.* a week for 26 weeks. 8*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 6*s.* a week for 13 weeks. Medical attendance is also provided.	-	-	6*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 4*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 2*s.* 6*d.* a week for 26 weeks. A levy is raised to aid members who are permanently disabled.	A levy is raised to aid members who are permanently disabled.
Dispute benefit	-	-	Members leaving a shop by order of the Committee receive 3*s.* a day until they can get work.	Members leaving off work with the approval of the Committee receive support as determined at a general meeting, so long as the dispute continues and the funds allow.	8*s.* a week	Support is granted in cases of dispute.
Funeral benefit	Two-thirds of a member's contributions are returned at his death to his representative. Benefit is allowed to a member on the death of one wife.	After six months' membership, 5*l.*; after twelve months or more, 10*l.*; a member may register one wife, and receive at her death, after six months' membership, 3*l.*, twelve months, 5*l.*, or two years, 7*l.*	-	-	8*l.*; or 4*l.* on the death of a wife, and 4*l.* on the death of the member.	—
Travelling benefit	-	-	-	-	Members entitled to dispute benefit may demand travelling cards.	—

[§ 151. (c.)] It may be noted that these benefits are only granted in accordance with certain specified conditions laid down in the rules.

(d.) Dispute regulations. (*d.*) In the event of a dispute with an employer, the members concerned are generally required to lay the case before the secretary or other officers of the branch or lodge, or before the general secretary of the association or Executive Committee. These officials must investigate the matter, and endeavour if possible to arrange the question in dispute. In the United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights, a Committee of Investigation is appointed, composed of a member of the Executive Committee, two from the branch of the society connected with the dispute, and one from each of the two nearest branches. This Committee tries "all "peaceful means of effecting an amicable settlement," and, if it fails in its attempt, has power to sanction a strike. If the local authorities in the other societies fail to bring about a settlement, information is then forwarded to the general secretary, who must lay the matter before the Central Executive. This body must then try to arrange the matter peaceably, if possible, otherwise a special meeting of the association is, in some instances, called to decide the same. The rules frequently provide that strikes may not be undertaken, nor individual members leave their employment, without the sanction of the Executive. In some cases the consent of either a simple or specified majority of the members is necessary before the cessation of work may take place. Thus, the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders provides that a general vote by ballot is necessary, if the funds of the society are likely to be affected by the dispute. A strike among the members of the United Kingdom Amalgamated Society of Shipwrights is supported "if a majority of the branches are in its "favour." No strike or lockout is recognised by the Associated Shipwrights' Society "unless sanctioned by "the Executive Committee, or by a majority of the votes of all members, or by two-thirds of the mem- "bers of the branch concerned." The general conduct and final settlement of the dispute, according to the rules of the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders and the Associated Shipwrights' Society, is in the hands of the Central Executive, but a strike Committee is appointed with the object, in the latter society, of conducting "the dispute under the advice of the branch and Executive Committees," and of bringing it "to a speedy and successful termination."

(e.) Minor regulations. (*e.*) Regulations for the attitude of members towards non-unionists occur in the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, the Liverpool Operative Ship Painters' Association and the Sailmakers' Society. Members of the first of the above societies are punished either by a fine or exclusion from the association, if they obtain work for a non-unionist or instruct non-members (except legal apprentices) in the trade. According to the rules of the Ship Painters' Association and the Glasgow Branch of the Sailmakers' Society, members are not allowed to work with non-unionists. Nine of the societies in question have some regulations with regard to the conditions of employment, *e.g.*, the rate of wages, hours of labour, piece-work, apprenticeship, overtime, and sub-contracting. The majority of societies have also certain regulations with a view to providing work for the unemployed.

(f.) Objects. (*f.*) In the rules of the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, the Hull Shipbuilders' Provident Association, the Associated Shipwrights' Society, and the Glasgow Branch of the Sailmakers' Society, the actual objects are preceded by a preface, introduction, or preamble. In this, attention is directed to the advantages which organisation may secure to members of the society, details are given of the objects for which it was instituted and of the means by which it is hoped to carry them out. No objects are stated in the rules of the Boat Builders' Trade Union of the River Thames. The majority of these societies place the formation of benefit funds for the assistance of their members amongst their objects. Others also wish to regulate the relations between workmen and their employers; to "encourage the amicable settlement of dis- "putes between employers and employed," and to "regulate the relations of workmen towards one "another. The Hull Shipwrights' Provident Association aims at regulating "all questions relating to trade, "viz., wages, arbitrators, rules, credentials, and the pro- "tection of members." The furtherance of the interests and welfare of the members, socially, morally, and intellectually and the advancement and prosperity of the trade are also mentioned among the objects of a few societies.

[§ 152 (a.)] 152. (*a*) The first board was formed in connection with the shipbuilding industry on the Wear in the year 1850, when, Mr. Laing stated, iron shipbuilding was in its infancy, and the shipwrights formed the main bulk of the workmen. Some of its initial decisions proved adverse to the men, and it only continued in existence for about two years. The formation of a new board was suggested in 1883, on the occasion of a very severe strike between the platers and their helpers. With the exception of the members of the Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society, this suggestion was adopted by all classes of workers, and the present board was then constituted. The rules of the board were signed in November 1885 by the shipbuilding employers, and by the shipwrights, joiners, smiths, and drillers, in the district. The decisions of the board are now followed throughout the north-east coast, including the districts of the Wear, the Tyne, and the Tees. Strikes were formerly so frequent in the district that Sunderland, Mr. Laing stated, was known as "the "cockpit of the north." Nevertheless, the four wage settlements which have taken place since the formation of the board have all been effected without dispute. Mr. Chandler stated that the board "worked ad- "mirably" (1).

Joint Boards. *(a) History of Wear Shipbuilding Board of Conciliation.*

(b.) Relations between employers and employed in other districts. (*b*). No other boards of conciliation have been formed in connection with the shipbuilding industries. The Boilermakers' and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society has only once met the Engineers' and Shipbuilders' Association in conference, and in most of the negotiations between the two parties, the employers are represented by their various district associations. Good relations exist between employers and employed, and wage settlements are generally arranged by mutual discussion between the two parties (2). The Shipwrights' Association also approaches employers through its various district organisations. Generally speaking, the relations between employers and employed are very cordial. Advances and reductions in wages, Mr. Heslop stated, have always been amicably settled in conference, and no wage dispute has occurred in the Tyne district since 1879 (3).

(c.) Constitution and government. (*c*). The peculiar features of the Wear Shipbuilding Conciliation Board are the so-called departmental boards, representing different branches of the trade, which endeavour to effect the settlement of disputes in their particular branch without reference to the general board; and the board of referees to whom disputes must in the last instance be referred, and who must be chosen from a list of the prominent men in the district. This list is contained in the rules. The departmental boards consist of six representatives from the employers, and a like number from each branch of the workmen. The general board, which exists in addition to these boards and the board of referees, consists of three representatives from each section of the workmen, and a number of shipbuilders equal to the total number of the workmen's representatives, together with the two secretaries. No chairman of the departmental boards is entitled to a casting vote.

(d.) Dispute regulations. (*d*). Any question in dispute is referred, in the first instance, to the departmental boards, and if they fail to effect a settlement, the matter is then referred to the general board, or, if desired, direct to the board of referees. Any question referred to the general board is, if possible, settled by a majority of at least three-fourths of those present. When both the general and departmental boards fail to effect a settlement, the rules provide that the referees shall be nominated, and the matters in dispute placed before them at a meeting called for the purpose. The decision of the majority of the referees is final and binding upon the parties concerned. It may be noted that "in one point, the prac- "tice of treating questions referred to the board has de- "parted from what might appear to be a strict compliance "with the rules; it is this, when the departmental board "has failed to settle a question, it has been the practice "to carry it direct to the board of referees, and not to "make it pass through the general board. The reason "is," Mr. Haswell added, "that the questions being in "their essence technical and specific, in the sense of "applying to one branch of the workmen only, it is "considered undesirable that they should be examined "by a Board composed of the class immediately affected, "along with other workmen not interested. Except the "annual meetings and one meeting early this year (1892),

(1) Chandler, 22022; Digest Vol. III., pp. 30, 53, 54. (2) Digest Vol. III., pp. 22, 24. (3) Digest Vol. III., pp. 27, 28.

[§ 152 (d.)] "on the eight hours' question, a composite board has "never sat." Moreover, generally speaking, Mr. Doxford stated, "the parties have shown a disposition "to arrange questions wherever possible without the "intervention of referees, to have mutually waived "points to obviate a recourse to the ultimate court" (1).

(e.) Objects. (e.) The objects of the Board of Conciliation are given in the rules as follows: It must "at all times adjust "by conciliatory means all questions that may from "time to time arise, and be referred to it by either "employers or workmen, and, pending settlement of any "question by the Board, there must be no stoppage of "work, and the wages, piece-rates, hours or other work-"ing conditions must, until settlement, be those current "at the time of notice given."

Federation of associations of employed. 153. Oral and written evidence has also been received from the Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades of the United Kingdom, and from the Midland Counties Trades Federation. The latter was formed in the year 1886. The former was established in the year 1890, and includes all the shipbuilding and engineering unions, with the exception of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers (2). Mr. Glennie, the secretary of the Tyneside district of this society, stated that it was not considered advisable to join the federation in the form in which it is at present constituted. Federation, he added, is a powerful weapon in case of disputes, but it tends to increase rather than to diminish industrial warfare, inasmuch as every union has to fight the battles of its neighbour in addition to its own. Nevertheless, Mr. Knight stated that they "were in hopes of "getting the Amalgamated Society to join it, but it "appears that the chief difficulty in the matter of their "not joining has been that their rules, as they are at "present (*i.e.*, May 1892), would not permit it" (3).

(a.) Constitution and government. (*a.*) The government of these federations is vested in an Executive Council or Committee of Management, consisting of representatives or delegates from the various societies belonging to the federation. The officers are a president or chairman, treasurer, and secretary. The Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades also appoints a vice-chairman, and the Midland Counties Trades Federation two auditors and three trustees. The Executive Council in the latter society meets quarterly, or oftener if necessary, and a financial or sub-committee is appointed to consider disputes and financial and other matters, and to meet when required. No provision is made for a general meeting of this federation, but a general meeting or conference, containing not more than two representatives from each society belonging to the Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades, is summoned at the desire of the Executive Council, or any four of the Executives of the different federated societies. The rules of the federation in question may be altered either, as in the Midland Counties Trades Federation, at a meeting of the Executive Council, or, as in the Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades, at an annual meeting, provided that due notice of the proposed alterations has been given.

(b.) Contributions and benefits. (*b.*) The contributions in the former society are 1*d.* a week for men and ½*d.* a week for women, and in the latter, 3*l.* a week from each federated society. Dispute benefit, to the amount of 5*s.* a week for men and 2*s.* 6*d.* for women, is granted by the former, but no benefits are granted by the latter, society.

(c.) Dispute regulations. (*c.*) The attitude taken up with regard to the disputes which occur in connection with any of the federated societies, varies in the federations here under review. It is laid down in the rules of the Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades of the United Kingdom, that, in the event of any dispute arising between a federated society and the employers, "the "other societies are not to interfere, unless non-society "men are brought in to take the places of the men in "dispute, or other unfair means used to crush the society "affected." Under these circumstances, however, the Executive of the society in question must submit the matter to the Executive Council of the federation, and if the latter fails to effect a settlement, the matter in dispute is submitted to a conference, which has "power "to determine the course to be taken." On the other hand, if a dispute occurs in any trade connected with the Midland Counties Trades' Federation, the committee of such trade must consider the case, and send particulars to the general secretary, who, if necessary, must personally investigate the dispute and consider the best means of settlement. If no arrangement is possible, he must summon the Executive to determine what further action shall be taken. [§ 153 (

(d.) Objects. (*d.*) The objects of this latter federation are stated to be as follows:—To provide benefit funds; to enable members to get compensation for accidents when employers or managers are liable, and to resist any unjust encroachment in connection with their employment; to secure the prices and wages legally bargained for, to prevent all illegal stoppages at the pay offices, and to protect members when unjustly dealt with by their employers and managers; to shorten the hours of labour when desirable; to prevent as far as possible the introduction of adults not brought up to a trade; to obtain laws for the more efficient management of factories and mines, that the lives and health of working men may be preserved; and to assist any movement that concerns the working classes generally. On the other hand, the objects of the Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades of the United Kingdom are "to "maintain the right of combination of labour by trades "unionism, by supporting any of the societies within the "federation, if individually attacked by employers or "bodies of employers; to use every legitimate means "to abolish the character note system"; and to promote "the elevation of labour in general," and arbitration or conciliation in trade disputes. It was stated, with regard to the objects of this latter federation, that it does not exist primarily in view of the relations between employers and employed; its main function is to take cognisance of the disputes between one federated union and another (1). With regard to the objection to federation urged by Mr. Glennie, it may be noted that a statement was made by Mr. Knight to the effect that, in ordinary cases, the federation would not interfere in support of a strike undertaken by one of its members. It is, moreover, a general rule that disputes both between employers and employed and between the various unions as to the demarcation of work must be referred, unless amicably settled, to a court of arbitration (2).

2. CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION.

Conciliation. 154. It has been already seen that some system of conciliation, either by means of informal conferences or negotiations between associated employers and employed, or between individual employers and associated employed, or by boards of arbitration and conciliation, joint committees and wages boards, has been established in by far the greater number of industries under consideration. The evidence given shows that this tends to the avoidance of disputes and to the promotion of a better understanding between employers and employed.

Arbitration. 155. There is, however, at times, the need for the existence of some final authority, to which reference may be made in the case of a deadlock, and almost all the representatives of the industries here under review were, under these circumstances, in favour of arbitration.

(a.) Arguments for arbitration: (i.) That it lessens the danger of and reduces the number of strikes, because it ensures great care on both sides with regard to the position taken up, and the common recognition of some final authority. (*a.*) The chief advantage claimed for this method of settlement is that it promotes a "better understanding" between employers and employed, and reduces the number of strikes, by the common recognition of some final authority. "There is nothing in my opinion up to "the present time," Mr. Trow, a member of the Commission, and an iron and steel worker, stated, "which is equal to arbitration . . . I do not "think that conciliation alone would have succeeded "with us. . . . There would always have been a "stop" (3). An employer in the same industry, Mr. Hingley, considered that the institution of an independent arbitrator had been "of very great service to "the district." "It has the effect of making both sides "very careful in regard to the position they take up" (4). The degree to which a recognised system of arbitration lessens the danger of actual conflicts between employer and employed, can be estimated to some extent by the fact that, in the rules of many of the highly organised associations, it is stipulated that the point in dispute must be referred to arbitration before a strike takes place. This is more or less explicitly stated in the rules of the Associated Iron and Steel Workers of Great Britain (5), the Engineers', Firemen's, and Boilermen's Society (6), the Federation of the Shipbuilding Trades (7), and the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board (8). The Tyneside and National Labour Union (9) and the United Plumbers' Association (10) reserve to their Executive Councils the power to refer a dispute to

(1) Tabulated Rules, No. 551; Doxford, 26,587. (2) Digest Vol. III. p. 22. (3) Digest Vol. III., p. 37.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 27. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 37. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 15,183–4; Mr. Trow. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 15,558–9. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 99. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 83. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48. (9) Tabulated Rules, No. 149. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 83.

[§ 155 (a).]

arbitration. The National Association of Blastfurnacemen (1) "recommends" that course where possible, and an ironmaster from Cleveland stated that where the joint committee in that district failed to agree, the matter was referred to arbitration (2). The result of the rule of the Associated Iron and Steel Workers never to support a strike without a previous offer to submit the dispute to arbitration, had been, it was stated, that no general strike and only a few local disputes had occurred during a period of 22 years (3). It is further claimed by the advocates of arbitration that the award of the arbitrator is accepted, and that the dispute is settled even if it has reached the stage of a strike. In reference to this subject Mr. Hills said, "I have seen that the "moral result of giving an absolute verdict on one side "or the other, is to break up the strike" (4) Various instances of successful arbitration, chiefly in connection with wages, are given in the evidence. The only four occasions it has been resorted to by the Iron and Steel Association were in reference to that point. In two cases wages were reduced, in one case they were advanced, the fourth was still *sub judice* at the time the witness was giving evidence. He said, however, that "all (the men) stood faithful to the award when their "wages were reduced, and never grumbled even" (5). It was stated by a member of the Iron and Steel Wages Board that during the four years that Mr. Chamberlain held the office of arbitrator he was appealed to several times, and his awards were always respected by both sides (6). A representative of the Scotch millmen instanced a strike which occurred in August 1890, and was referred to arbitration at the suggestion of the employers. The award was loyally accepted by the men, though it was given against them (7). An ironmaster of the Cleveland district stated that, in 1890, fifteen points were referred to the arbitration of a referee, appointed by a representative from either side. Of these, twelve resulted in some slight advance in wages, two in a reduction in the men's wages, while in the remaining case no change was made. Only twice have matters affecting the whole district been referred to arbitration, viz., in 1880 and 1889, when disputes arose as to the interpretation of certain clauses in the sliding scale agreement. "The men's association always does its best to carry out "the bargain" (8). A representative of the nut and bolt trade stated, that, before the Board of Conciliation connected with his industry had been formed, he had acted as permanent arbitrator for five years. During that time he successfully disposed of 200 questions relating chiefly to wages. The establishment of a standard rate of wages has reduced the necessity for arbitration, and the clause referring to it has now been struck out of the rules of the board (9). Disputes in the engineering industries concerning the demarcation of work led to the formation of two courts of arbitration. One was formed at Hull in 1889, to decide the dispute between the joiners and shipwrights; the other at Jarrow in 1891, to settle the differences between the plumbers and fitters. A steel smelter stated that "as a rule we are in "favour of arbitration in South Wales." An employer, Mr. MacIlwaine, advocated arbitration in cases of dispute as to demarcation of work, and Captain Noble was of opinion that "voluntary arbitration should be en- "couraged" (10). Besides the industries already referred to, the evidence of the whitesmiths and cutlers, spike-nail makers, bargebuilders, boilermakers and iron shipbuilders, pattern makers and ironmoulders, and some of the engineers and steelsmelters, is in favour of arbitration (11).

(ii.) That the award of the arbitrator is accepted and disputes and strikes are brought to an end.

(b.) Arguments against arbitration.

(b.) On the other hand, in certain industries a few objections are raised against this method. This is especially the case with the engineers, where the general opinion concerning it appeared to be unfavourable. For instance, Mr. Glennie "did not think that "the results of arbitration would be satisfactory, ". . . . owing to the difficulty of getting suitable men "as arbitrators, men who thoroughly understand the "technical points that are in dispute." It may be noted that the fitters appeared to object on this ground to Mr. Burt's award, in the dispute on the Tyne as to the demarcation of work. Another objection raised by Mr. Glennie, was "the fact that the majority "of men occupying a high position have interests "involved in most cases; they are not thoroughly im- "partial" (12). This was supported by a steelsmelter, who stated that "the strongest objection that we have "to these solitary cases of arbitration is that, as a

(i.) That the arbitrators would not understand technical points.

[§ 155 (b.)]

"general rule, the arbitrator is a person who has not "very much sympathy with the workmen" (1). An engineer said that "in Dublin they do not believe in "arbitration. They do not believe in go-betweens: "they are something like myself. I believe our disputes "are best arranged between our employers and our- "selves" (2). Several employers also expressed a preference for conciliation (3). Are presentative of the British Steel Smelters Association said that arbitration had only been found "fairly satisfactory." "We do not "always find the firm willing to accept arbitration" (4).

(ii.) That arbitration is not always accepted by the employers.

(c.) Method of arbitration.

(e.) Individual Arbitrator and Board of Arbitration.

(c.) Most of the cases of successful arbitration before referred to were when the matter in dispute was settled by an individual arbitrator. This was the case with the Iron and Steelworkers' Association, the Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, the Association of Scotch Millmen, and in the instances mentioned in the nut and bolt trade, and in the iron trade at Cleveland. The other method of arbitration, to which reference is made in the evidence, is that of a board. The one that was formed at Hull in 1889 to settle the difficulties between the joiners and shipwrights "has continued in existence "ever since that . . . . date . . . . so that any dispute "that may arise now is referred to this standing board "of arbitration" (5). A joiner, Mr. Paterson, favoured this plan. He was "not an advocate of one man arbi- "tration. . . . . I have no objection to a board being "formed of that description. I would have it inde- "pendent of the two conflicting parties. They should "come and make their statements, and leave the inde- "pendent parties to give their decision" (6). The board, he stated, should consist of three, five, or seven arbitrators, and the award should be made by the majority. A somewhat similar, but more complete, scheme was sketched out by Mr. Hobson and Mr. Wardley of the Sheffield Federated Trades Council. Mr. Hobson stated that at a Trades Union Congress in 1877 he proposed a resolution, which had been unanimously passed, in favour of the establishment of joint boards of employers and employed, as courts of arbitration for the settlement of trade disputes. The constituency which would elect these boards should not, he suggests, be the industry, but the commercial centre. In Sheffield the members might be nominated by the Federated Trades Council on the one side, and by the Cutlers' Company and the Chamber of Commerce on the other. "Indeed there was no "good reason," in his opinion, why standing committees should not be appointed by all county and borough councils, with authority to deal with trade disputes. Mr. Wardley endorsed this proposal, but agreed with Mr. Paterson that those who sat upon the boards should not be directly interested in the disputes they were called upon to settle (7). On the question as to whether resort to arbitration should be made compulsory, and further, whether awards should be legally enforced, there was much difference of opinion. Some were in favour of the first proposal, though they were not prepared to go as far as the second, where practical difficulties arise. This was the position taken up by various members of the Sheffield Federated Trades Council. Mr. Wardley stated that "there ought to be an Act "passed making it imperative that each large centre "should appoint a permanent board." Mr. Uttley thought that Parliament should enact that all trades entering into a dispute either on the part of the masters, or on the part of the employés, shall before work is stopped or a lock-out takes place, lay their case clearly before this court of appeal. They both considered that moral force would be sufficient sanction to ensure the carrying out of the awards (8). A blastfurnaceman was of opinion that "if arbitration was offered by one party "upon a point, and refused by the other, there should "be some means of compelling them . . . . to accept "the decision of an arbitrator, so that such serious stop- "pages of work as (we) have had in Scotland might be "avoided." With regard to the enforcement of awards, he considered that, practically, compulsion would not be necessary, "the force of public opinion would be so "strong" (9). Mr. Hobson also admitted that the practical difficulties in the way of enforcing awards, otherwise than by public opinion, would make it almost impossible. Mr. Trow, representing the Iron and Steel Workers, thought that resort to arbitration might be made compulsory, but that Government should not interfere either with the composition of the boards, the appointment of the arbitrators, or the enforcement of awards (10).

(ii.) Compulsory versus voluntary arbitration.

(1) Tabulated Rules, No 60. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 97. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 99. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 24,962. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 14,870. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 99. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 97; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 14,578. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 104. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 84. (11) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 100 and 104; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 82–4. (12) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 23,147.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 16,412. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 23,320. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 84–5. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 16,412. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 83; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 21,980. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 22,166–171. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 104 and 105. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 104–5. (9) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 13,985–90. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 99.

155 (c).)] Another witness from the same industry did not think it "likely" that an award would be repudiated by the men, but were this to occur, it should be enforced by law (1). Another stated, that though personally preferring the voluntary system of arbitration, he "would not be "against the decision being made binding on both "parties" . . . "anything but the old system of strike "and lockout" (2) One employer also advocated the same course. "There should be . . . the power to claim an "arbitrator to be appointed by some authority . . . "Where there are two parties at variance, compulsory "arbitration might be beneficially resorted to." The only definite proposal made as to how this could be brought about, was Mr. Price's suggestion, that the award should be enforced by damages payable by the employers' or the men's association. This, he acknowledged, "implies a very perfect organisation amongst the "men" (3). Various objections, however, are urged against compulsory or State arbitration by the majority of the employers. An ironmaster said: "I do not think "it would be beneficial. I think discontent would arise "in the minds of the men. They would think they "were being compelled, and would resent it" (4). "It is "rather difficult," Captain Noble stated, "for a State "arbitrator to be acquainted with the technicalities "either as regards the employers or men, of the various "questions that are likely to arise. . . Any awards "made by the State arbitrator would be binding upon "the employers. If the men are dissatisfied, the various "societies can order a certain number of their men to "leave work, and take other means of evading the award. "The employers, of course, are bound by it" (5). Another employer argued on the same lines that the arbitrator's decision could not be made legally binding without depriving either masters or men of the right which both possess, of terminating the contract of hiring, if dissatisfied (1). Finally, Mr. Laing stated that he was not sanguine, at all events, "that any interference on "the part of the State would be productive of much good" (2). [§ 155 (c).)]

Mediation. 156. With regard to mediation, or the intervention of a third party on his own initiative, Mr. Seaton was of opinion that a mediator should be appointed, "whose "interest it would be to see peace effected and justice "done." "Some one," Mr. Seaton added, "(I do not say "how appointed), agreed upon by both parties, could "attend the meetings of the masters, and put before "them the views of the men, and moderate the views of "the masters who were disposed to be fightable. This "same individual could attend the meetings of the men, "and put the views of the masters before them fairly "and justly; then, I think, most of the disputes would "be amicably ended between employers and employed." When it is necessary for a ballot to be taken, the mode of conducting that ballot and the supervision of it would be in the hands of the mediator, who, Mr. Seaton thought, should not have the power to act as an arbitrator (3). As to the appointment of this mediator, the witness was "not prepared to formulate a scheme," but at the same time saw "difficulties in doing it in any other way but "by legislation" (4). It may be noted that the only mention made in the evidence of the settlement of strikes by mediation occurs in the Tees district. Mr. Rothwell stated that disputes in that district are frequently settled by this means. "I look upon a dispute "in my district," he added, "as being in some sort a "reflection on my character, and an indication that I am "not doing my duty. . . . I have the entry of all the "yards; in fact, the employers send for me quite as "often as the workmen themselves" (5).

C. TRADE DISPUTES.

1. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

Causes of strikes. 157. By far the greater number of strikes that have occurred in this group of industries have been caused by disputes either for an advance or against a reduction in wages, or the prices of piece-work. This is especially the case with the less highly-organised trades. The secretary of the Bromsgrove Co-operative Society for Manufacturing Wrought Nails, stated that "all the strikes "from my experience, which has extended over some "years now, are caused by the sweater entirely . . "and we have always been compelled to strike . . "I never remember but once that we had an advance of "wages without striking for it." A representative of the Lock and Key trade complained similarly that, owing to the weak position of the men, the masters would try and beat them down by taking orders "which it was im-"possible for them to manufacture at the price." "I "call that being sweated" (6). The question of demarcation of work has been a constant cause of friction between the Boilermakers' and Iron Shipbuilders' Society, the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, and the Amalgamated Society of Engineers. These disputes are of comparatively recent growth. A member of the Executive Committee of the Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trade Unions stated that disputes relating to demarcation of work are due to the transition from wooden to iron and steel ships. As the transition is still proceeding, the settlements have no permanent value (7). "When "men are not organised in a trade union, these little "things are not taken much notice of; but the moment "two trades become well organised, each trade is looking "after its own particular members' interests. . . . "That would account for their differences getting more "acute during the last few years" (8). A great many disputes have arisen on different points connected with unionism, particularly in the more highly-organised trades. The men complained that sometimes the masters refuse to meet or to recognise them in their official position, and that thus avoidable strikes occurs (9). The employers complained that the men refuse to work with non-unionists. This is a prominent cause of disagreement in the shipbuilding trades. One employer stated that "the ironworkers have simply made union-"ism a perfect system of terrorism, and no man who will "not join their society and conform to the rules is "allowed, in this trade, to earn his livelihood" (7). The employers stated generally that they never dismiss the men's representatives nor the prominent trades unionists as such, and that "they are treated the same as any "other workmen" (8). On the other hand, the complaint of the men that delegates or prominent trade unionists are dismissed, is by no means infrequent, though in several cases it is said to be a rare event (9). "In my experience, men are not dismissed at once for "being on deputations; that would be too straightforward "a course to adopt, but they are usually marked and "discharged for some frivolous thing that may trans-"pire on the first opportunity" (10). Only three strikes are mentioned as occurring in consequence of the employment of non-unionists, and one in consequence "of "a firm discharging six of their workmen for being "members of our society" (11). The question of the hours of labour has also been the cause of a large number of disputes. (12)

2. SPECIAL STRIKES.

Strikes in more highly organised trades. Plumbers and fitters (Tyne). 158. The question of demarcation of work is a fruitful source of dispute in trades that overlap, which is liable to occur whenever two of them work in the same materials. This is especially the case with the plumbers and fitters, and the shipwrights and joiners. Disputes have been very protracted, and difficult of settlement. Stoppages of work have been frequent. Thus, it was stated that the interests of the employer had suffered largely, through no fault of his own, and, more indi-

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 14915–21. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 15,651–54. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 26,338–40; Mr. Price. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 15,572; Mr. Hingley. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 84. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 75. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29. (8) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 22014.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 97. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 84 (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47; Seaton, 22,453–7. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 84. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 82. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 76. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 275. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. xx. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. xii. (10) Answers to Schedules of Questions p. 67. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 71. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 70.

[§ 158.] rectly, those of the community at large (1). An employer asserted that it is difficult to estimate the injury that has been caused by the disputes on this point in these two trades (2). Another stated that "it disorganises his whole business, and sacrifices his interests." In his opinion, the difficulty of settling these differences has been greatly due to the way in which each trade union has sought to push the interests of its own members, to the entire exclusion of those of the employer, and regardless of any common good (1). In consequence of a series of disputes between the plumbers and the fitters, a conference was held in January 1891, at Newcastle-on-Tyne. It was attended by representatives of the Executives of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers and the United Operative Plumbers' Association. After careful investigation, a plan of demarcation of work was drawn up and issued. In the Clyde district it was accepted, but in the Tyne district difficulties at once arose, because each party disputed the other's reading of its provisions. An employer attributed its failure to the facts that the settlement was not clear in its definitions, and that there was no third party to interpret them (3). The engineers stated that in a certain yard the plumbers were doing the work that had been awarded to them (4). As the plumbers refused to give it up, the fitters employed in that yard struck, and the employers in the whole district retorted by locking out 25 per cent. of the members of the Engineers' Society in their service. This occurred in April 1891. In June, a conference was held between the employers, plumbers, and fitters, at which it was agreed that work was to go on temporarily under certain modifications, until a committee, which had now been formed, should be able to draw up a final settlement. This joint committee gave a certain decision on a technical point against the fitters. They rose in a body and left the committee, which, on October 28th, issued its general award without them. The fitters refused to be bound by it, although when a similar case had arisen the year before, the Amalgamated Society of Engineers had passed a resolution censuring the conduct of the joiners for refusing to abide by Mr. Burt's award (5). The fitters now struck for the second time. The employers again locked out 25 per cent. of the engineers, whereupon the Amalgamated Society called out the remaining 75 per cent. (6). After a strike of 12 weeks the engineers gave in, and came back to work upon the basis of the award issued in October by the employers and plumbers (7). In the opinion of one of the employers, it was impossible to draw hard and fast lines of demarcation of work. In certain cases it would necessitate the shifting of the same piece of work from one trade to another no less than three or four times before it was completed, which would involve a "complete sacrifice of "both economy and efficiency." It is the function of the employer to decide through the foreman, when disputes arise, what particular trade shall do any particular job (8). It was further stated that a few years ago the fitters had refused to do the very work which they are now fighting to obtain (9). The plumbers' and fitters' disputes at Barrow and on the Clyde and Tyne cost the plumbers 675*l.* 12*s.* 1*d.*; their estimated loss in wages was 1,395*l.* 10*s.* (10). The Amalgamated Society of Engineers spent about 15,000*l.* in disputes in 1891, but information is not given as to the exact amount expended in the fitters' disputes on the Tyne (11).

Shipwrights and joiners.

159. Several differences as to demarcation had taken place between the shipwrights and joiners since the year 1865 (12). The difficulty in question, however, was a standing one, and the dispute became so serious that in 1890, on the failure of various methods of negotiation, including "a joint committee," "the employers urged "the delegates of the two societies to refer their differences to an independent and capable arbitrator, "promising that they would, as employers, accept any "award that he made" (13). This was ultimately consented to. Mr. Wilkie was nominated as arbitrator by the shipwrights, and Mr. Paterson by the joiners, and Mr. Burt, M.P., was chosen by both parties as umpire (14). It was agreed that no stoppage of work should take place in the meantime, and that the decision of the umpire should be final. "A very long, patient, and exhaustive enquiry was made into the practices of the "Tyne and other places; past and present evidence was "taken from old hands, delegates, and from all who could "throw light on the history of the division of work. [§ 159.] "The cost was large, and became a serious charge upon "the two societies. After an investigation extending "over five and a half months, Mr. Burt issued his award, "allotting, out of the 168 items in question, 96 to the "joiners and 72 to the shipwrights. Yet the award was "no sooner published than the joiners assailed it as "grossly unfair, and absolutely refused to work under "its provisions" (1). The joiners accounted for their refusal to accept the award on the ground that it was not in accordance with the evidence, and that it contained a clause transferring to the shipwrights the work of 70 joiners in the engineering department, from which no evidence had been taken (2). The latter appeared to be the chief cause of complaint. Mr. Paterson stated before the board of conciliation which was subsequently constituted, that they had letters from "five of the largest engineering "establishments in the north of England," who stated that "they had never employed any shipwrights." The witness further remarked that they did not want any work belonging to the shipwrights. They only wanted their own. With reference to this point, it may be noted that Mr. Burt, in his award, referred to the extreme difficulty of getting at the facts, owing to the absence of "uniformity" in many classes of work. "In one yard shipwrights do the work that "joiners do in another. In a second, both are doing precisely the same; while in a third, the work done at "one time by shipwrights is now being done by joiners, "and *vice versâ*." The joiners struck for a period of three months. They soon offered to submit the matter in dispute to a board of conciliation composed of the representatives of different trades. This proposal was refused at first, but two months later it was accepted (3), and in spite of their annoyance at the refusal of the joiners to abide by Mr. Burt's award, the shipwrights agreed to re-open the question before a board of conciliation. This court was presided over by Mr. Bell, the Mayor of Newcastle. The joiners and shipwrights each sent three representatives, including Mr. Paterson and Mr. Wilkie, to state their case before it. The first step taken was to pass the following resolution:—"That this board, "having heard representatives of the joiners and shipwrights, and carefully considered the same, feel that "they must uphold the principle of arbitration, and "hold both parties bound to comply with their written "agreement to adhere to Mr. Burt's award. They, "therefore, direct the joiners to at once resume work, not "later than Monday next, upon Mr. Burt's award, with "the exception of that referring to the engineering "work." The joiners accordingly went back to work at once, pending the decision on the disputed points (4). These were for the most part of a highly technical character, but many of them were decided by the board of conciliation. The remainder, which consisted chiefly of points of detail, were left over to be settled by a temporary "Referee Court," which was established to deal with the questions omitted by Mr. Burt and the board of conciliation. "This Court "decided the whole question, and drew up a list of work "which has been wrought to by both parties" (5). The representative of the joiners claimed that the general result, as far as they were concerned, had been that they "had about 70 per cent. of the objections that they had "made to the shipwrights; and, on the other hand, the "only point that the shipwrights got on the whole of the "16 objections that they made to the joiners, was in reference to the fixing of blocks for torpedo heads. One "of the jobs alone, after the alteration which the board "of conciliation made upon Mr. Burt's award, has been "the means, during the last 12 months, of something like "2,000*l.* in wages being paid to the joiners, in a certain "class of work, that would have been paid to the shipwrights" (6).

The barge-builders' strike.

160. In March 1890, the Barge-builders' Union, at a meeting of non-unionist as well as unionist workers, submitted the following proposals for approval:—(i.) That the rate of wages should be raised to 9*d.* an hour. (ii.) That the hours should be reduced to 54 a week. (iii.) That overtime should be paid for at 1*s.* an hour. (iv.) That two hours' notice should be requiredon either side for leaving a job, and that an equivalent sum of money should be paid sufficient to enable the men to have

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 26,284. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 49. (4) Abstract Report of Society of Amalgamated Engineers. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 50. (8) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 25,230. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 75. (11) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. p. 157. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 27, (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 50. (14) Appendix XLIII.

(1) Digest, Vol. III. p. 50. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 22,143. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 22,154–7. (4) Report of Board of Conciliation, p. 35. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 27; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 22,159. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 22,158.

1890.] their tools ground, because they were obliged to bring them properly sharpened on entering upon a new job. These proposals were sanctioned by the meeting, but refused by the employers, whereupon the men struck. The employers seemed to object chiefly to the demand for 1*s.* an hour overtime. "We did "not ask it," said the bargebuilder's representative, "because we wanted the extra money, but because we "wished to put a stop to the pernicious system of "systematic overtime which has been in vogue in our "trade for some years past. In some yards men have "been working from six in the morning till eight at "night, and some men in the winter would be working "three-quarter or short time, and about 25 per cent. of "the men would be unemployed altogether in our trade." The masters offered 8½*d.* an hour overtime, but the men refused to accept it. Rather than continue the strike, the men offered 10½*d.* as a compromise. The employers met again, refused the men's offer, and adjourned for a month. "That practically meant that they were going "to do all they possibly could to starve us out." The men had only 750*l.* in hand when the strike took place, but they procured outside assistance, and the Dockers' Union lent them money. Then the employers began to give way, and at last "after 18 weeks' trouble, we gained "what we asked for" (1). "The cost of the strike was "2,361*l.* 16*s.* 11*d.*, and the loss of wages to the men was "3,697*l.*, so that the total cost of the strike was "6,058*l.* 16*s.* 11*d.*" (2). "The employers acted very "fairly to us after the strike was over, because, with the "exception of one or two instances, they took all their "old hands back that came out on strike" (3). During the whole 18 weeks not a single member of the union was taken up for violence or intimidation. For six weeks afterwards, however, the men employed by the Union Lighterage Company used to "hallo at" a fellow workman whom they refused to recognise as a member of the trade, and they were in consequence bound over to keep the peace. The reduction in hours that the men got through the strike has been the means of furnishing employment to 30 additional men. Whereas the Union at one time spent about 15 per cent. of its income in "out-of-work" benefit, last year (1889), it spent only 5 per cent, and this year only 3 per cent. for that purpose (4).

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161. The object of the strike among the blast-furnacemen in Ayrshire and Lanarkshire, was stated by the agent of the Association from Scotland to be "to bring "forward the Scotch blast-furnacemen to something "like a similar level to our English brethren in relation "to Sunday labour, and our claim was put in for time "and a half to be paid for Sunday and Sunday night "labour, that is, from six o'clock on the Sunday morning "until six o'clock on the Monday morning, with the "alternative of Sunday labour to be abolished," "the "hours were that long, and the work was that hard, "and the pay was so miserably small" (5). The strike lasted from 4 October 1890 to 21 March 1891. About 1,100 unionists and 200 non-unionists were engaged in the dispute, and a large number of colliers, miners, and steel workers were thrown out of employment in consequence. The employers refused to concede the demands of the men, or to submit to arbitration, or even to discuss the question in any form. The union supported the men (6), "After a 23 weeks' struggle, "in which the whole of the furnaces in Scotland stood, "except six, at a cost to our association of 12,500*l.*, "practically speaking, we were compelled for want of "funds to give up, and the same miserable state of "things remains in Scotland to-day" (7). The result of the dispute was a reduction of 20 per cent. in the tonnage rate, which was equal to a reduction in wages "averaging 12½ per cent. all round." The cost to the union in strike pay was 12,413*l.* 15*s.* (8).

...hain ...akers ...radley ...eath).

162. The chainmakers struck for an advance in wages, which, in consequence of the conditions under which the trade was carried on, were extremely low. The representative of the Cradley Heath Branch of the National Amalgamation of Chain-makers' and Chain-strikers' Associations stated that strikes were unfortunately constantly occurring, and that the one which took place in 1886–7 was "a good typical" instance (9). The men at that time were only getting from 7*s.* to 10*s.* per week, and the women from 3*s* 6*d.* to 5*s.* The witness went to the employers and asked them if they could not raise these "starvation prices" They replied that this would only be possible if the workers struck, and by restricting the output sent the prices up artificially. This was accordingly done. Between 2,000 and 3,000 workpeople turned out and demanded an advance in wages, and the discontinuance of what was really a form of "trucking," *i.e.*, the practice of selling the "breeze" (1) to the workers at more than half as much again as the market price. "As a society, we had no money in hand, "because we had only just then re-organised the union. "The people played then something like 13 or 15 weeks." After the masters had reduced their stock, both the disputed points were conceded to the men. They then got the advance in their rate of wages, and likewise abolished the system of trucking with the breeze (2). [§ 162.]

Nailmakers (Bromsgrove).

163. The object of the strike among the nailmakers at Bromsgrove was somewhat similar. "We approached "the masters for the 10 per cent. advance in wages, and "they refused to accede to our request. The men "decided that they could not live at the present prices, "and thought it best to come out on strike." It was a general strike, and about 1,500 men and women were affected by it. No union existed at the time, but a union was got up for the purposes of that particular dispute. "The men got extraordinary help from the "country, more than 3,000*l.*" The strike began on 9th November 1891, and ended on 1st March 1892, and was "one of the most successful that ever the nailmakers "have been engaged in." The result was that an advance in wages was procured which "would average "about 3 per cent. all round. In some cases it was as "much as 50 per cent.; in some cases 20 per cent." "We got another advantage by the strike which is "almost superior to the advance, at any rate it is equal "to it, that is, that the employers have decided to form "a board of conciliation for the nail trade" (3).

3. PICKETING AND INTIMIDATION.

Difficulties attending the working of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act in relation to strikes. Picketing disputes in Glasgow shipyard.

164. Under Section 7 of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, while "intimidation" was forbidden, picketing, Mr. Wilkie stated, was clearly allowed (4). The section runs thus: "Attending at or near the house "or place where a person resides or works, or carries "on business, or happens to be, or the approach of such "house or place, in order merely to obtain or communi-"cate information, shall not be deemed a watching or "besetting within the meaning of this section." The Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress defined picketing as "the trade term for 'attending at "'or near a house, etc., in order merely to obtain or "'communicate information'" (5). "A dispute occurred "in Glasgow three or four years ago, and we stationed "a member as a picket at a particular point, and the "constable said to him, 'you are not allowed to in-"'timidate workmen here either by your presence or "'otherwise. You are hereby warned, &c.' that is, their "mere presence was objected to." The picket at once reported the matter at the office, and the officials demanded an explanation from the superintendent of police. This, however, he refused to give, although he upheld the action of the constable. The shipwrights placed the matter in the hands of their law agents, who wrote to the Chief Constable at Glasgow, and carefully explained the exact circumstances. "The threatened "action" they stated, "on the part of the police "is considered by our clients such a new departure "and an invasion of what every trades union in the "country considers to be its legal right under Section 7 "of the Conspiracy (Master and Servant) Act of 1875, "that we have deemed it proper to communicate direct "with you, and to inquire if you adhere to the position "taken up by your superintendent. If so, perhaps "you will kindly inform us under what existing Statute "you claim such a right. The society will arrange to "have two men in attendance on a particular day and "hour to be intimated to you, in order that you may "charge, or if necessary, apprehend them, with a view to "the question being tested in the competent court. We "have asked the society to do nothing further in the "matter until we hear from you." In reply, Captain Boyd, the Chief Constable, wrote, "I am informed that "Messrs. Inglis complained of their gates being beset "by pickets of shipwrights, and of their loitering about "the entrance, supposed with the intention of intimida-"ting men calling for employment, and otherwise giving "annoyance. I have instructed the superintendent of the

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 20,293. (2) 20,294. (3) 20,296. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 75 and 76. (6) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 109. (7) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 13,958. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 109. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54.

(1) "Breeze: small cakes for firing purposes, used instead of coal in the manufacture of chains."—Glossary. Digest, Vol. II., p. 143. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 77. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 77. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94. (5) 26th Quarterly Report of Associated Shipwrights' Society, p. 23.

[§ 164.] "district only to interfere if any intimidating language "or action is used towards any of the employés, or if "any obstruction or annoyance is caused to any one in "contravention of the 149th Section of the Police Act, "Sub-section 47" (1). This declaration entirely satisfied the shipwrights in this particular instance. Since, however, other cases of the same kind had subsequently arisen, in which the law had been differently interpreted, "what we desired was that some means should be taken "to make the clause so distinct and clear that no diversity of opinion could arise" (2). On the other hand, the employers are of opinion that the law needs amendment in a contrary direction. The Managing Director of the Thames Ironworks Shipbuilding Company said, "I think there should be strong powers given to the "police, or whatever may be the local authorities, to see "that neither side takes advantage of the other. . . . "If this Commission could give emphasis to the idea "that there should be police to see fair play, it would be "very desirable. . . . If you once got the police "into the hands, for instance, of the local council, it "would follow that we should not be able to rely on "anything being done at all. . . . If a blackleg is "offered employment, he has a right to take it, and he "should not be interfered with, so long as he has "accepted a job which is offered to him" (3). It was stated by an employer in the National Federation of Shipbuilders and Engineers that the law against picketing, though quite explicit in itself, has been made "totally inoperative," by the clause which permits attendance in the neighbourhood of dwellings or places of business, "for the purpose of giving information." "This "permission once given, leaves the way open for all the "evil that picketing can do, and the clause ought to be "at once deleted. . . . It is not necessary to have a "man or a number of men stationed 'to give information'; there are other ways of doing it. . . . I "absolutely object to men loitering near a place with any "object whatever. . . . I do not wish to prevent the "man who is on strike from honourably conferring with "his colleague upon the strike. But I would prevent him "persistently following him about, or waiting for him "continually. . . . Persistent following is intimidation within the meaning of the Act, I think; but it is "very difficult to prove" (4).

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 95. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 95.

[§ 165.] The Mother well Riots.

165. A strike took place amongst the steel smelters about six months after they had formed themselves into the British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association. The cause was a 10 per cent. reduction of wages, of which only 24 hours' notice was given. "The men were work- "ing on day's notice at the time, therefore it was quite "legitimate. Since that time the firm have worked on "14 days' notice. The men left work at the end of the "day. The strike lasted nine weeks." While it was going on, riots occurred between the Union men and the men who were imported into the place to supply the places of the men on strike (1). The firm made an attempt to take a carriage load of imported men into the works, and a crowd, variously estimated at from 3,000 to 5,000, prevented the carriage being taken in. Two or three hours after that had occurred, the police made an unprovoked assault upon the crowd, when there were no imported men upon the scene, nor anything else. As a result of the action of the police, the crowd of course turned upon them, and these men were apprehended.

"But as far as I can remember, the men were not "apprehended until six or eight weeks after the occur- "rence, and when they were apprehended there was a very "long delay before they were tried." "It was a very "serious cause of complaint, when the case did come on, "that the Procurator Fiscal made no effort to take the "precognition of the witnesses for the defence, notwith- "standing the fact that special defences in a number of "cases had been lodged, and if he had examined the wit- "nesses beforehand we felt assured that the case would "never have come before the court, as the first case was "not found guilty, and in the other case only one man "was fined for a common assault" (2). "They were "tried under the Protection of Property Act. . . . "There is one thing that we complain of, that several of "the clauses of that Act are not very clearly defined. "The Crown Prosecutors in different districts take "different views. In one case they have only one count "under one section, and in another they will have that "section split into five or six counts in the indictment. "We think it ought to be clearly defined, so that we "should know exactly what we were doing" (3).

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 78. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 16,518. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 16,525–6.

APPENDIX.

TABLE showing the VARIOUS RATES OF PAY (exclusive of Special Rates) for CERTAIN CLASSES of ESTABLISHED and HIRED WORKMEN in HER MAJESTY'S NAVAL ESTABLISHMENTS AT HOME on APRIL 1st, 1893.[c]

CLASS OF LABOUR.	Daily Rates of Pay.	
	"Established" Men.	"Hired" Men.
	s. d. *s. d.*	*s. d.* *s. d.*
Boilermakers	5 1 to 6 4	5 0 to 6 8
Caulkers	5 0 to 5 4	5 0 to 5 6
Founders	5 4 to 6 4	5 0 to 6 8
Joiners	4 8 to 5 0	4 6 to 5 2
Patternmakers	5 4 to 6 4	4 10 to 6 8
Plumbers (and Braziers)	4 10 to 5 2	4 8 to 5 4
Shipwrights	4 9 to 5 6	4 6 to 5 8
Labourers, skilled	3 4 to 4 2	3 2 to 4 2
Labourers, ordinary	2 10 to 2 11	2 10 to 3 0
Smiths	5 0 to 5 9	4 8 to 6 0

[c] For detailed information, showing particulars of the numbers on the various rates of pay (exclusive of special rates) in each trade. *See* Blue Book C. 7135.

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Note.

In accordance with a Resolution of the Commission, the Secretary was directed to prepare Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written) received by the Committees. This Evidence includes:—

1. The Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices.
2. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
3. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards.

N.B.—The following books have also been consulted:—

(i.) Law Reports, Wilson *v.* Merry, 1 H.L. Sc. 326.
(ii.) Noy's Legal Maxims.

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PART I.—TRANSPORT BY WATER.

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.*

1. WAGES.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF WAGES.

[§ 166.] DOCKS, WHARVES, AND WAREHOUSES. Nature of information.

166. A large amount of evidence, both oral and written, was given on the subject of the rates of wages in docks, wharves, and warehouses, but owing to the nature of this information it has been found impossible to reduce it to a tabulated form, or to found on it any general and unqualified statement. The misleading tendency of any such statement is plain from several considerations. The classes of labour included in this industry are numerous, and many of the distinctions drawn between them are of a highly technical kind. These distinctions, however, are frequently passed over in the evidence, and the less specific terms applied to different classes of labour are not always used with the same meaning. Thus in the port of London, only men employed in discharging are called dockers, while the comparatively skilled work of loading is confined to stevedores. Dockers, again, are classed as ship and quay labourers, and these are further classed according to the nature of their work. Statements of wages are made sometimes with and sometimes without reference to these classifications, and moreover in ports other than London, the distinction between men employed in discharging and in loading does not exist. The rates of wages are variously stated by the hour, the day, the week, or the piece, and to the difficulty of comparing time-work and piece-work rates is added the difficulty of comparing one time-work rate with another, in dealing with an industry in which there is considerable irregularity of employment, the effect of which is felt in varying degrees by different classes and individuals. Statements such as frequently appear in the evidence, of average earnings, generally per week, while affording to a certain extent an impression of the facts, are too untrustworthy to be taken as the basis of a calculation. They are in some cases apparently the result of guesswork, and are expressed in general terms without reference to the time over which the average is taken, while in other cases they are in the form of a calculation by the employer of the wages actually paid for a certain class of labour during a given time. These statistics, though no doubt trustworthy, are frequently of limited application. Moreover, even where exactly commensurable statements can be obtained, the discrepancy between evidence from different sources has still to be reckoned with. A certain amount of information as to standard rates of wages can, however, be gathered from the evidence, and is valuable so far as its limitations are borne in mind.

Rates of wages in the London district.

167. A common feature in rates of wages for ordinary dock labour, so far as London is concerned, is the minimum of 6*d.* an hour with 8*d.* for overtime, fixed by the Mansion House agreement in 1889.(1) This is the regular wage for hour-work, and at piece-work rates the same minimum is paid, with the addition of a plus if earned.† The wages of permanent men at the docks range from 24*s.* a week under the Joint Committee(2) to 30*s.* at the Surrey Commercial Docks(3), and at the wharves from 25*s.* to 30*s.* a week(4), with overtime at the usual rate of 8*d.* an hour. Steamship work, which is considered harder and more dangerous than ordinary dock labour, is paid at the rate of 7*d.* an hour and 9*d.* overtime.(1) Stevedores, whose employment requires a [§ 167.] certain amount of skill, and who are considered a superior class of workmen, have a rate of 8*d.* an hour with 1*s.* overtime.(2) There are special departments of dock labour in which higher wages are earned, but these are for the most part paid at piece-work rates, which show the utmost variety. The wages of foremen and clerks under the Joint Committee average, it is stated, 31*s.* a week.(3) At the wharves the pay is said to be higher, but the hours longer.(4)

Calculations of average daily and weekly earnings in the London district.

168. In the case of casual labour, however, the connection between rates of wages and money earned is obviously slight, and the question of average earnings is an intricate one. The most promising method of obtaining definite and fairly comprehensive information on such a subject would appear to be to procure statistics such as those referred to above, based strictly on the actual figures shown in the books of employers, but of as wide a range as possible. This was the method adopted by one witness in attempting to determine "the ordinary value of a day's work at the docks" (in London). For this purpose the Chairman of the Joint Committee supplied calculations extending half-year by half-year from January 1st, 1891 to June 30th, 1892. It appeared from these that the value of piece-work (or work at 6*d.* an hour with a plus) during this period, was on an average 4*s.* 11*d.* a day, while the value of time-work, of which there is much less, was on an average 4*s.* 6*d.* a day for permanent men, and 4*s.* 1*d.* a day for day labourers, the total average over the Joint Committee's docks, excluding Tilbury, being 4*s.* 7*d.* It was estimated that since many of the men on piece-work were drawn from the permanent list, the total average wages would be divided as follows between the permanent and casual men, that is, 1,700 permanent men would average 5*s.* a day, and 3,300 daily labourers would average 4*s.* to 5*s.* a day. The value of piece-work, it was stated, varied very much in the different docks, the London and St. Katharine's Docks representing the average, whilst at the East and West India Docks the value was lower, and at the Victoria and Albert Docks and the town warehouses, it was higher. The lower limit of value was found to be 4*s.* and the upper limit 5*s.*, the latter being generally accompanied by longer hours or more strenuous work. Thus at Tilbury, which is excluded from the above calculations, more overtime is worked than at the other docks, and the value of piece-work and daily labour is estimated at 5*s.* 9*d.* and 4*s.* 4*d.* a day respectively. Particulars furnished by a steamship owner in the Royal Albert Dock showed, it was stated, that work on the co-operative or piece-work system was more efficient than time-work in exact proportion as it was better paid. At one large wharf the average value of a day's work for the casual men, taken over a period of a year, proved to be fully 5*s.*, the hours being longer than at the docks. The permanent hands at the same wharf received 28*s.* a week, "thus accepting less "pay per hour in exchange for the regularity and per-"manence of their employment." Statements obtained by the same witness from a number of the men gave 4*s.* a day as a full average wage all round. It was pointed out that the slight discrepancy between this statement and the figures taken from the books of the employers might be accounted for by the exclusion from or inclusion in the average, of large occasional earnings. The wages earned, for example, during the wool sales, are said to amount in many cases to 50*s.* a week. These extra earnings, it was stated, are in effect a privilege enjoyed by a few. Thus "while the true average value "of a day's work at the (Joint Committee's) docks is fully "4*s.* 6*d.*" this figure does not exactly represent the position of the "ordinary docker." In wharf and warehouse

* The few suggestions with regard to the publication of statistics, given in the oral and written evidence, have been dealt with in the Summary of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, under the head of "Labour Department."

† A plus may be defined as that part of the sum earned at piece-work rates which remains over at the end of the week or the job, during which a sum calculated at 6*d.* an hour has been drawn daily as "subsistence money." F. Brien, 24.

(1) Appendix 5. (2) Appendix 3. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 23. (4) M. Costello, 2508.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 12. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 343, p. 13; No. 380, p. 83. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 14, 17, 23. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 28.

[§ 168.] labour there are also some men in an exceptionally favourable position, either as to regularity of work or through having special work which from its nature commands an extra price. The grain work at the Millwall and Surrey Commercial Docks is an instance of a highly paid class of labour, and of those employed in it the witness thought it probable that a considerable proportion earned an average on the year of 30*s.* a week, while others certainly took far less. (1) With this statement may be compared the independent statements of the employers and employed at different docks and wharves, also apparently referring to the "ordinary docker," and excluding such special classes of labour as steamship workers, stevedores, &c. A calculation made by the Chairman of the Joint Committee of the earnings of 263 casual labourers (classes B and C) showed a weekly average per man of 19*s.*, or 3*s.* 2*d.* a day, while the inclusion in the total of the wages of the permanent men (24*s.* a week), and of class A., which averaged 22*s.* 6*d.* a week (winter and summer), brought the total average up to 3*s.* 7*d.* a day, which is of course lower than the average shown by the previous calculation. (2) With reference to the Albert and Victoria Docks, the statement of an employer that the usual earnings of ship and quay labourers taken together were 6*s.* 9*d.* a day, and that of an employé that the average wages were from 7*d.* to 7½*d.* an hour, confirm in a general way the statement that wages run higher at these docks than at the others under the Joint Committee. (3) The manager of the Millwall Docks estimated the average value of piece-work (here chiefly grain and timber) at 1*s.* an hour, and since the average number of days worked in the week is between four and five, of eight hours each, the weekly earnings are about 36*s.* In the grain department 37*s.* a week are frequently earned, working four days a week. (4) The manager of the Surrey Commercial Docks supplied data which showed the average value of grain work in those docks to be about 29*s.* a week, one season with another, and this calculation was corroborated by a representative of the employed. (5) The earnings of ordinary deal porters, omitting those working on the contract system, whose position is specially favourable, would appear to be about the same, since they earn from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* a day (working nine hours at 10*d.* to 1*s.* an hour) and are employed from three to four days a week. (6) A statement by one of the proprietors of Hay's Wharf illustrated the difference in the earnings of different men working at the same rate. According to this estimate the average earnings of first preference men were about 26*s.* and of third preference or casual men 12*s.* a week. (7) Another witness, with some experience of wharf labour, stated, however, that some of the preference men at wharves could earn 40*s.* or 50*s.* a week, the difference being probably made up by overtime. (8) With regard to the earnings of stevedores, the evidence varied considerably, several witnesses employed as stevedores placing the average at 16*s.* or 18*s.* a week, (9) while a statement of the actual amounts paid by a certain employer showed weekly averages over different periods, of 27*s.* to 37*s.* (10)

ites of ges in rious rts mpared th those London.

169. The rates of wages in other ports can only be approximately compared with those of London, on account of the nature of the evidence. It appears, however, on the whole, that in Liverpool and Birkenhead the wages of casual dock labour are higher, as they are stated to be 5*s.* a day, or 8*d.* an hour, with 7*d.* to 9*d.* overtime.(11) At Glasgow they are also, perhaps, higher than in London, but the hourly rate appears to vary extremely, the amounts stated ranging between 4½*d.* and 9*d.* an hour for ordinary work, and between 5*d.* and 10*d.* for overtime. (12) Statements as to earnings were of an indefinite character. At Hull, again, it appeared from the scale fixed by the Dockers' Union that the hourly rates varied from 6*d.* to 8*d.*, with overtime at 9*d.* to 1*s.* and upwards, but the greater part of this scale consisted of piece-work rates of great variety and complication, and the same may be said of the statement furnished by the Birkenhead branch of the National Union of Dock Labourers. Wages on the Tyne appear to be about the same as in London or slightly higher; both 6*d.* and 7*d.* an hour were mentioned as ordinary rates for casual discharging work.(13) On turning to the ports on the south coast, the comparative lowness of wages is at once evident. At Southampton the wages of permanent men are stated to be 21*s.* a week, and the rate for casual labour 5*d.* an hour and 6*d.* for overtime. These rates are the result of an advance made by the Dock Company in 1890.(1) Southampton was described by one witness as one of the worst paid ports in the kingdom.(2) At Plymouth the wages of permanent men were stated to be 20*s.* a week, and the earnings of casual labour were said to average from 20*s.* to 25*s.*, but the latter is paid at piece-work rates, and it was stated that 7*s.* 6*d.* a day could be earned by a coal porter on a sailing ship, or from 10*s.* to 12*s.* on a steamer. The weekly average is brought down by the irregularity of the work.(3)

[§ 169.]

Fluctuations of wages.

170. With regard to fluctuations of wages in dock labour, very little evidence was given. It was stated that before 1872 the usual rate of pay in London was 4*d.* an hour with no advance for overtime. In 1872 it rose to 5*d.* an hour, through the action of a Union which then existed, and in 1889 there was an advance to 6*d.* an hour and 8*d.* for overtime, as the result of the great strike.(4) Before 1872 the wages of stevedores in London were 4*s.* for 10½ hours' work, but on the formation of the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society in that year the rate was advanced to 8*d.* an hour for nine hours' work, bringing the wages up to 6*s.* a day.(5) In March 1889 the Surrey Commercial Dock Company reduced the wages of the corn porters about 8 per cent. The men submitted at the time, but renewed their demand in August, three or four weeks before the great strike, and the former rate was partially restored.(6) One witness gave an account of the fluctuations in the wages of dock labour employed by steamship lines in Glasgow between 1872 and 1889. In 1872 the rate was 6*d.* an hour and 7½*d.* overtime, and in the same year it rose to 7*d.* and 9*d.* In 1874, after a strike for an advance to 8*d.* and 10*d.*, which the state of trade did not justify, wages went back to 6*d.* and 7½*d.*, and then to 5*d.* and 6½*d.* These remained the wages of the port until 1889, when two successive advances of ½*d.* an hour were conceded, and the rate of 1872 was thus restored.(7) In 1890 the Southampton Dock Company and other employers in that port made a considerable advance in wages in response to the demands of the men. The Dock Company raised the wages of permanent men from 19*s.* and 20*s.* to 21*s.* a week, and the rate for casual labour from 4*d.* an hour and 5*d.* overtime to 5*d.* an hour and 6*d.* overtime. Corresponding advances were made in piece-work rates. In the case of three shipping companies the rate for cargo work was raised from 5*d.* an hour and 6*d.* overtime to 6*d.* an hour and 7*d.* overtime, and for ship work from 22*s.* to 24*s.* a week. It was stated that the total weekly gain in wages was 293*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*, and the average weekly gain per man, 4*s.* 11½*d.*(8)

Method of calculating wages.

171. The system of calculating wages which prevailed in the Joint Committee's docks before 1889 was mentioned as one of the causes of the great strike. Under this system men working piece-work drew a certain daily wage as subsistence money, and any surplus earned was paid by the contractor at the end of the job. The men complained that they were not informed of the rates they were working on, or of the number of tons in the ship, and that their representatives were not allowed to check the payments made.(9) By the Mansion House agreement after the strike, this contract system was changed into piece-work, but with payment for mealtimes as before, and also with a fixed minimum hourly wage.(10) By a special agreement between the Dock Company and the Dockers' Union, on November 4th 1889, the men's representatives were allowed to attend at the taking on of men, and to check the payments, each representative having a price list for every class of goods to be worked. This arrangement remained in force for a year, and the Dock Company then decided to discontinue it, chiefly because the work was hindered by the conduct of the representatives in blocking non-unionists, and also because it was not genuine piece-work, since the men had no interest in the despatch of business so long as there was a guaranteed minimum rate per hour.(11) Accordingly, as the result of negotiations between the Chairman of the Joint Committee and the president of the Dockers' Union, a new system was proposed, under the name of co-operation, by which the representatives of the men were to contract with the Dock Company's officials for a certain amount of work at a

(1) Appendix 155. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. W. E. Hubbard, 4596-7. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 24, 25. H. Styles, 1282. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 23. Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 23. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 12. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 14, 26. (10) Appendix 41. (11) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Nos. 333, 334, 335, pp. 9, 10; No. 331, p. 83. (12) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 35. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 341, p. 12; Nos. 395, 396, p. 89. (13) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 11, 12, 13.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 15. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 16. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 18, 19, 20. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 26. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 17. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 16. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 47. W. Salter, 2803-5. J. Atkins, 887. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (11) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 10, 14, 16, 19. W. E. Hubbard, 4607-9, 4772, 4778.

[§ 171.] certain price, and to stand or fall by that price. The Dock Company agreed to allow the men to make up the gangs themselves, thus giving them the opportunity of excluding non-unionists. The men were not very ready to accept this scheme, but in October 1890 a section of them agreed to do so. Before it came into operation the Dock Company withdrew the clause as to the constitution of the gangs, and stated that the Joint Committee reserved absolute control of the work. This change of plan was made on account of the difficulties which it was thought likely to cause in the existing state of feeling between unionists and non-unionists.(1) The co-operative scheme in its modified form was accepted to some extent in the Victoria and Albert Docks, and was found to work well, but in the London and the India Docks it was almost unanimously refused. Since the system of "spurious piece-work" was acknowledged on both sides to be unsatisfactory, the Dock Company had "no alternative" but to introduce day-work pure and simple, without payment for meal-times, and without representatives, for whom there was no longer any occasion. A bonus was given, however, as an inducement to despatch.(2) It was stated by one witness that those who had acted as representatives were dismissed when this change was made, but it was stated on the part of the Joint Committee that definite instructions to the contrary were given at the time, and that as a matter of fact nearly all of these men were still regularly employed.(3) After a few months, it was stated, the co-operative system was accepted in some parts of the India Docks.(4) One witness complained that it was practically the same as the plus system which was in vogue before the strike, except that meal-time payment and inspection of the books by representatives were still disallowed as in the case of day-work.(5) It was stated on the other hand that such inspection was always allowed on request.(6) Evidence was given, however, to the effect that such a request was frequently refused, and that those who made it were sometimes left out of employment.(7) In the Millwall and Surrey Commercial Docks, the piece-work rates had, it was stated, been publicly exhibited in each department since the strike of 1889.(8) With regard to some of the wharves and warehouses complaints have been made that the men cannot satisfy themselves as to the amount of plus due to them.(9) It is considered by some witnesses that piece-work is in itself undesirable, because the wish to earn a good day's wage leads to over-work and injury to health.(10) The proportion of piece-work in the Joint Committee's docks was stated to be 59 per cent., 41 per cent. being day-work.(11) In other ports than London every variety of method of calculation prevails, and the evidence does not state the extent to which one preponderates over another, except that in Liverpool and Glasgow day-work is said to be almost universal.(12) It was stated that the work of loading and discharging large steamers does not lend itself very well to a piece-work system, and that attempts to introduce such a system in Glasgow had been unfavourably received and therefore abandoned.(13) Complaints were made as to the piece-work system in connection with dock labour in Sunderland, on the ground that it increased competition among contractors, and obliged the men to work harder than they otherwise would. Men on time-work, it was pointed out, lose by having to keep up with men on piece-work.(14) A strike was caused at Barrow Docks in March 1889, by a change from piece-work to hour-work, which had the effect of reducing wages.(15)

Method of payment.

172. Objections were expressed in the evidence to the payment of wages through a sub-contractor, or in any indirect manner.(16) Such a system prevailed in some of the docks in London before 1889, but since the strike all wages in the Joint Committee's docks have been paid directly by the officials.(17) Where piece-work is taken over on behalf of the men by their representatives, though no sub-contractor is supposed to exist, there is some complaint in the case of wharves and warehouses that the representatives are allowed to handle the money, and cannot be trusted to pay the right amount, and it is desired that each man should be paid direct by the cashier of the firm.(1) In the Surrey Commercial Docks the piece-workers in the grain department are under a contractor, who, it is stated, is not paid by the Dock Company, but deducts 5 per cent. for himself from the earnings of the men. The contractor does no work, nor does he, as a rule, superintend the work. This system is said to cause great irritation, but the men have not the courage to denounce it.(2) A sub-contract system is said to exist both in Glasgow and Liverpool. In Glasgow some of the liners employ master stevedores at a tonnage rate for loading and discharging. The stevedores are understood to work the men harder than the shipowners do, but pay higher wages as a rule.(3) In Liverpool and Barrow the existence of the middleman or contractor in dock labour is considered a great evil. Representatives of the National Union of Dock Labourers state that these contractors are sometimes ignorant of all practical work, that they contribute neither skill, labour, nor material, and yet receive a large profit. It was suggested that the contract system should be abolished, and the men brought in direct relation with the employers. It was stated that "in more than one firm at Liverpool" the workmen were systematically cheated of their time under this system, and that the conditions of employment were much better under the shipowners.(4) A witness representing the corn porters belonging to the South Side Labour Protection League complained of the contravention of the Act prohibiting the payment of wages in public-houses. He stated that employers frequently paid the wages of a gang in gold to one of the men, who is obliged to go to the public-house in order to get change. The witness urged that the workman should in such a case be exempted from liability, and the publican also, unless it could be proved that he knew that wages were being paid under his roof. The employer, on the other hand, should be liable to imprisonment instead of a fine.(5)

[§ 172.]

Deduction.

173. With regard to deductions from wages, several complaints were made as to stoppage of pay for meal-times. There was a strike on this question at St. Bride's Wharf in 1889, when the "co-operative piece-work" system was introduced. The strike was successful, but one on the same question at Hay's Wharf in 1890 was a failure.(6) It was stated that systematic deductions from the wages of fish porters are practised by the Billingsgate salesmen, who make it a condition of employment that the porters shall work for them without payment, and who further exact a charge of 1*d.* from the porters for each package of fish they carry for a customer.(7) It was represented as a great cause of complaint that the men employed by shipping companies at Southampton to discharge cargo have no payment for removing deck-loads of fruit, amounting sometimes to 40 tons.(8) There have been complaints on the part of foremen and clerks at the Joint Committee's docks, with regard to a superannuation fund towards which a deduction of 2½ per cent. is made from their wages. The benefits of the fund consist of a pension of 3*l.* a year for each year of service up to 10 years, and after that according to a further scale. On resignation, or on dismissal except for a gross fault, a member receives half his contributions.(9)

Shipping. Monthly and weekly wages. (*a*) *Sailors, firemen, &c.*

174. (*a.*) The wages of seamen show considerable uniformity, for the most part ranging between 3*l.* 10*s.* and 5*l.* a month. In those of firemen there does not appear to be sufficient variation to make tabulation necessary. In 1891, the wages of firemen in four ports were stated to be 4*l.* 15*s.* a month, in three ports, 4*l.* 10*s.*, and in one, 4*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*, while the rate in North Atlantic mail steamers out of Liverpool was said to be 5*l.*(10) The evidence with regard to the wages of sailors in different ports, and of other classes of labour connected with shipping, has been tabulated as follows:—

(1) W. E. Hubbard, 4786. (2) W. E. Hubbard, 4786-92. Digest, Vol. I., pp. 10, 14. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. W. E. Hubbard, 4611. (4) W. E. Hubbard, 4797. (5) W. Salter, 2892-9. (6) W. E. Hubbard, 4603. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 23, 27. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8. (10) R. Cridge, 4379. (11) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 388, p. 86, No. 395, p. 89. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 14. (15) Digest, Vol. II., p. 22. (16) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 16. (17) W. E. Hubbard, 4602.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 14. J. Falvy, 2793. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 47. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 16. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 18, 28. (10) Appendix 72.

[§ 174 (a.)] MEAN of RETURNS given of WAGES per MONTH* of SAILORS in VARIOUS PORTS, 1891. (Arranged in descending order.) [§ 174 (a.)]

Reference.	Port.	Class of Vessel.	Wage per Month.	Rate of Payment for Overtime.	Remarks.
			£ s. d.		
Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31, 36. Vol. II., p. 35.	Glasgow -	Monthly sailers; steamers going West; steamers to North and South Atlantic.	4 6 3	- - - -	The wages earned in the monthly sailers and in steamers going west were stated to be 3*l.* 10*s.* and 4*l.* 10*s.* to 5*l.* respectively. The wages of "seamen and firemen" in vessels going to the North and South Atlantic were said to be 4*l.* 15*s.* and 4*l.* 5*s.* In this statement, it is impossible to tell whether seamen and firemen receive the same rates of wages, or whether the average given is that of the two classes of labour taken together. In Appendix 72, the wages of firemen are frequently somewhat higher than those of seamen. The wages of seamen alone may, therefore, be somewhat lower. The arithmetic mean of the different rates has been taken as the average.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 27. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix 72.	Dundee -	Monthly steamers; monthly sailers, going south and west.	4 3 4	- - - -	The wages earned in monthly steamers were stated to be 4*l.* 5*s.*, and in monthly sailers, going south and west, 3*l.* 10*s.* and 4*l.* 15*s.* respectively. The arithmetic mean of these rates has been taken as the average.†
Digest, Vol. II., p. 27. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix 72. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 20.	Tyne -	„ „	4 1 8	9*d.* an hour between 5 p.m. and 6 a.m. 1*s.* an hour on Sunday, and after 1 p.m. on Saturday.	The wages earned in the different vessels were stated to be 4*l.* 15*s.*, 3*l.* 10*s.*, and 4*l.* respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 27. Minutes, Vol. II. Appendix 72.	Forth -	„ „	4 0 10	6*d.* an hour from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m.	The wages earned in the different vessels were stated to be 4*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* 15*s.*, 3*l.* 10*s.*, and 4*l.* respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
„ „	Thames -	Monthly steamers, going south and west; monthly sailers going south and west.	4 0 0	9*d.* an hour from 5 p.m. to 7 a.m. 1*s.* an hour on Sundays, Good Friday, and Christmas Day.	The wages earned in the different vessels were stated to be 4*l.*, 4*l.* 10*s.*, 3*l.* 10*s.*, and 4*l.* respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
„ „	Clyde -	Monthly steamers; sailers going south.	4 0 0	6*d.* to 9*d.* an hour from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m.	The monthly rates paid in sailers going west are frequently higher (and in no case lower) than in sailers going south. The average given is, therefore, probably too low. Wages were stated to be 4*l.* 10*s.* and 3*l.* 10*s.* respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken. The difference between the average rates on the Clyde and in Glasgow may possibly be accounted for by other minor ports having been considered in this estimate.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 27. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix 72.	Humber -	Steamers; sailers going south and west.	3 16 8	6*d.* an hour from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m. 9*d.* an hour on Sundays.	The wages earned in the different vessels were stated to be 4*l.* 10*s.*, 3*l.* 10*s.*, and 3*l.* 10*s.* respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
„	Cardiff -	„ „	3 16 8	- - -	Do. do. do.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 27. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II. Appendix 72. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 37, 43.	Mersey -	„ „	3 13 4	- - - -	It may be noted that North Atlantic mail steamers are paid at rates 10*s.* higher.

* The wages per month which could be earned in weekly steamers would be considerably higher than the monthly rates in monthly steamers Thus, the rate per week in weekly steamers on the Tyne and Clyde is 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*, &c.

† The true average wage must in each case be higher than the arithmetic mean between the wages in steamers and sailing ships, owing to the preponderance of steam tonnage.

MEAN of RETURNS given of WAGES of various CLASSES of LABOUR employed in SHIPPING, 1891.

Reference.	Class of Labour.	District and Class of Vessel.	Rate per Week.	Remarks.
			£ s. d.	
Digest, Vol. I., p. 30 - -	Engine drivers -	V.S.A. boats and large tugs on the Thames.	2 6 9	Engine drivers on V.S.A. boats on Thames were stated to earn 50*s.* a week, and in large tugs 42*s.* to 45*s.* a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 46. Stanbury, 14,402-3.	Riggers - -	Thames, Mersey, Clyde -	1 14 6	The average rates per day on the Thames, the Mersey, and the Clyde are 6*s.*, 6*s.*, and 5*s.* 3*d.* a day respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken. The number of days worked per week was stated to be six. It was asserted that, "the further you go North, the less pay the men get."
Digest, Vol. II., p. 27. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix 72.	Firemen - -	Weekly steamers on the Tyne, at Cardiff, Dundee, on the Clyde, Humber, Forth, Mersey, Thames. V.S.A. boats and large tugs on the Thames.	1 11 9¾	The wages of firemen in weekly steamers were stated to be as follows:—Tyne, 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; Cardiff, 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; Clyde, 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; Dundee, 1*l.* 10*s.*; Humber, 1*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.*; Forth, 1*l.* 10*s.* to 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; Mersey, 1*l.* 10*s.*; Thames, 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.* The wages in V.S.A. boats on the Thames and in large tugs were given as 33*s.* and 27*s.* to 35*s.* respectively. The average has been taken as the arithmetic mean.
„ „	Sailors - -	Weekly steamers in above districts.	1 11 6¾	The wages of sailors in weekly steamers were stated to be as follows:—Tyne, 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*, Cardiff, 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; Clyde, 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; Dundee 1*l.* 10*s.*; Humber, 1*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.*; Forth, 1*l.* 10*s.* to 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; Mersey, 1*l.* 10*s.*; Thames, 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.* The arithmetic mean has been taken to be the average.
Digest, Vol. I., p. 43. Manton, 11,155.	Fishermen -	United Kingdom - - -	1 0 0 to 1 10 0	It was stated that, when fully employed, 15,000 fishermen earn 30*s.* a week, and the remainder 20*s.* a week.

[§ 174 (b.)] (b.) Masters and officers.

(b.) The opinion was expressed that the wages of sailors and firemen at the present time were sufficiently good considering the state of trade, but that masters and officers, on the other hand, were decidedly underpaid, and had good reason to demand a rise. Where a seaman's wages are 3*l.*, an officer's are 8*l.* a month, and where the highest wages are paid, an officer has 15*l.* or 16*l.* It was pointed out that educated men in positions of responsibility should have a sufficient salary to keep them from destitution on retiring from the service, and that otherwise a proper standard of efficiency could not be maintained.(1)

Fluctuations of wages.

175. Evidence was given with regard to the fluctuations in the wages of seamen from the year 1851 onwards. In most cases the class of labour was not specified, though it appeared that sailors alone were referred to. It was stated that in 1851 wages in foreign-going vessels were from 1*l.* 15*s.* to 2*l.* 5*s.* a month, and that by about 1855 they had risen as high as 5*l.* on ships bound for the Baltic and 4*l.* on ships bound for the Mediterranean. This fact was attributed in the evidence to the formation of the Seamen's United Friendly Society, whose decline was represented as the cause of the fall of wages in 1860 to 3*l.* 10*s.* in the Baltic and 2*l.* 15*s.* in the Mediterranean. The main features of the period from 1860 to 1890 appear to have been a rise in wages on steamships between 1870 and 1875, owing to the general briskness of trade, followed by a depression in 1880 which brought them back to the level of 1870, namely an average of 3*l.* 10*s.* a month. A rise to 4*l.* a month in 1882 was followed by a very decided depression lasting till 1888. According to one witness as low a point as 2*l.* 5*s.* a month was reached during this period, namely in 1887. After this a gradual rise took place, attributed by the same witness to the formation of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, and by others to the improvement in shipping, the result in any case being that wages went up to 4*l.* 10*s.* or 4*l.* 15*s.* a month, and there for the most part remained. (2) One witness gave an account of recent fluctuations in wages in Leith, stating that in 1865 the weekly wages of sailors were 26*s.*, and of fireman 27*s.* 6*d.* In 1872 they rose to 27*s.* 6*d.* and 28*s.* a week respectively, and remained so till 1885, when they fell to 26*s.* and 26*s.* 6*d.* The shipping trade was in a state of great depression from 1883 to about 1887, and the owners had difficulty in keeping their ships going at all. The Leith owners, it was stated, were very unwilling to reduce wages, but in the middle of 1884 they gave notice that if trade did not improve it would be necessary to do so, and in July 1885 that notice took effect. In 1888, owing to the improvement in freights, wages were restored to their former level. In May 1889 the shipowners consented, on the demand of the men, who, it was thought, were probably instigated by the Union, to increase the wages to 30*s.* a week, both for sailors and firemen, though they had contracts running, and the state of trade did not warrant an advance. The demand of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union for a further advance of 32*s.* 8*d.* caused an unsuccessful strike. It was stated that wages in monthly boats at this time were 4*l.* 10*s.* and 4*l.* 15*s.*, and that at no time since 1865 had they been as low as 2*l.* 15*s.* in Leith. (3)

Deductions.

176. Complaints were made of deductions from the wages of seamen in the form of fines for petty offences, and also of excessive prices charged for articles bought on board ship. (4). It was stated by one witness that ship's officers occasionally detained the overtime pay which was due to the men for night work in port. (5)

RIVERSAND CANALS.

Daily and weekly rates of wages.

177. The wages of watermen and lightermen on the Thames, under Lord Brassey's award, are 6*s.* a day, and 6*s.* a night.(6) This rate appears to be higher than those in other districts, though an exact comparison is difficult owing to the variation in methods of calculating wages. It was stated, however, by an inspector under the Canal Boats Act, that the earnings of boatmen in some cases amounted to 45*s.* a week.(7) On the Humber the wages of weekly men were stated to be 26*s.*, and the rate for casual labour 5*s.* a day. It was stated that the casual men were in the majority, and that their average earnings were about 17*s.* a week.(8) With regard to wages on the Mersey, the information given referred to various classes of boats. On flats on the Upper Mersey it was stated that wages were paid partly by the week and partly on tonnage, and that the men approved of this system. The weekly wages are 16*s.* for the captain, and 11*s.* for the mate, and the ton money, which is divided equally, brings the average earnings up to 1*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.* and 1*l.* 5*s.* 9*d* respectively.(1) On the Lower Mersey, flatmen work principally on the share system, one-half or two-thirds of the freight being divided between the men. It was stated that the Mersey Flatmen's Association objected to the weekly system of payment, and that it was therefore discouraged in this district.(2) On steam barges on the Mersey the rate of wages is 3½*d.* an hour for the captain, and 3*d.* for the mate, thus amounting to 3*s.* or a little more for a day of 12 hours, but it was stated that the men were generally on duty 120 hours a week, though not working all the time. The weekly earnings would thus be 1*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* and 1*l.* 10*s.* respectively.(3) Another witness stated, however, that on these barges the captain's weekly wage was 23*s.*, the mate's 20*s.*, and the engine-driver's 24*s.*, but that the average earnings were brought to nearly double these amounts by the bonuses given for each trip, and also on the tonnage carried.(4) On three-handed boats worked by horses, it was stated that wages were 3½*d.* an hour for 108 hours, or 31*s.* 6*d.* a week. On slow boats the captain and mate are paid weekly wages of 24*s.* and 21*s.* respectively, with a bonus of 5*d.* a day when the trips are made in exact time, but it was stated that this bonus was seldom earned. The average wages of mates on the fly-boats on the Peak Forest Canal were estimated at 22*s.* a week, the highest paid in any instance being 25*s.* On the slow boats the pay was described as "exceedingly low."(5) On the fly-boats on the Aire and Calder Canal, the wages of captains and mates were said to be respectively 1*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* and 17*s.* 10*d.* a week, sometimes increased by trip money to 1*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* and 1*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.* Overtime is paid at the rate of 1½ per cent., but is only reckoned while the vessel is loading or discharging cargo.(6) On the Aire and Calder, and the Leeds and Liverpool Canals, the average earnings of Union men were said to be 25*s.* a week, and those of non-unionists, 22*s.*(7) Bargemen and watermen on the Medway are paid principally on the share system, the owner taking half the freight, and the men dividing the other half. It was stated that those employed by the better firms could earn 2*l.* a week, and that a very large number made an average of 30*s.* Men engaged in chance work, however, do not earn 1*l.* a week.(8) It does not appear that there is extra payment for Sunday labour, except on the Thames and the Humber, the rate on the Thames being 8*s.* for a full day's work, and on the Humber, time and a half.(9)

[§ 177.]

Fluctuations of wages.

178. With regard to fluctuations of wages, no very definite statement was made. It was stated that wages on the Humber were very fair from 1872 to 1885, but then began to go down, owing to the collapse of a society which had been formed. In 1890, as the result of a strike, there was an advance of 1*s.* for weekly men. In the same year, after the lock-out of lightermen employed by the Trent Navigation Company, their wages were advanced from 16*s.* to 25*s.* for mates, and from 24*s.* to 30*s.* for captains.(10) It was stated that since the formation of the United Bargemen and Watermen's Protection Society in 1889, advances in wages had taken place of 15 or 20 per cent. in the cement manufacturing districts on the Medway, and 10 per cent. in the brick-carrying districts.(11) In 1878, it was stated, a decrease of 12½ per cent. took place in the wages of fly-boatmen on the Aire and Calder Canal. In 1891 they applied for an increase of 7½ per cent. in consideration of the fact that the company's business had been improved, and the men's work added to, by the use of modern appliances. Ultimately, after a strike, the reduction was restored to the extent of 10½ per cent. This result, it was stated, could not have been obtained without the help of the Dockers' Union, of which a branch had been formed in the district.(12)

Method of payment.

179. A witness representing the Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Humber, proposed that the provisions of the Payment of Wages in Public-houses Prohibition Act should be extended to the payment of freightage. He stated that it is a common practice for a publican to carry on also the business of a broker for river craft, or to be in combination with another person who does so, with the result

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 37, 39. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31, 36. J. H. Wilson 9998-10,020. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 32. (4) Digest, Vol. I. p. 39. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43. (6) Appendix 47. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 15. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 60. Appendix 83. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 367, p. 21.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 61. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 15. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 14. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 59. (9) Appendix 47. Digest, Vol. II., p. 60. (10) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 57, 60. (11) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 58, 59. (12) Digest, Vol. III. pp. 15, 16.

[§ 179.] that the waterman who is the best customer at the public-house, is also the most successful in obtaining a remunerative cargo. He pointed out that freight is a keelman's wages, and that the law should grant the same protection to this class of workmen as to any other.(1)

(ii.) CO-OPERATION AND PROFIT SHARING.*

dvan-ges of o-opera-on.

180. A witness representing riverside labour on the Tyne advocated co-operation between employers and employed, as "the best system that could possibly be adopted." He believed that it would make a strike almost impossible, because it would furnish a board of arbitration for the settlement of disputes. It would completely unite the interests of employers and employed; the work would be more cheaply done at the same wages, and a dividend would be earned on the profits of the employment. In 1889 the witness had framed a scheme of this kind, called the Tyne Co-operative Stevedore Company. A certain number of shares were taken, and the company started work in 1891, but owing, it is stated, to the persistent and violent opposition of the master stevedores and the National Labour Union, as well as to want of funds, the undertaking entirely failed. The Union regarded it as a competing organisation which would bring about a reduction of wages, and the originator of the company was expelled from the Union, and prevented from obtaining employment.(2) It was stated, however, by a representative of the Tyneside and National Labour Union, that the Union approved of the principle of co-operation or profit sharing, and believed that its adoption would be the means of "bringing capital and labour more together." The Union had opposed the Co-operative Stevedore Company solely on the ground that it was acting in opposition to unionism and bringing down the price of labour.(3) It was proposed by one witness that the Trade Union Acts should be amended with a view to allowing trade union funds to be directed to the purposes of productive and distributive co-operation.(4) There is no system of profit-sharing in the docks of London, and the employers consider such a scheme quite impracticable. The system which is in use in some parts of the docks, under the name of co-operation, is simply a contract between the Dock Company as represented by the warehouse-keeper, and the men as represented by two or three of themselves. The men agree upon a price for doing a fixed amount of work, and take that price and "stand or fall by it," dividing it equally among themselves. This system was introduced by the Dock Company at the suggestion of the president of the Dockers' Union, as a remedy for the unsatisfactory result of the payment of a fixed minimum wage according to the Mansion House agreement. The new system was not, it is stated, generally acceptable to the men, especially since the Dock Company withdrew from the original understanding that the men themselves were to have the making up of their gangs. The scheme was adopted at the Victoria and Albert Docks, and worked well, but never spread rapidly.(5) Several witnesses urged the more extensive adoption of this system of so-called co-operative piece-work.(6) The secretary of the Dockers' Union believed that it would cause more men to be employed at higher wages, and pointed out that it would do away with middlemen, and throw the responsibility of the work on the men engaged in it.(7) The Amalgamated Stevedores' Society has had under discussion a "co-operative" scheme by which the Union as a body would contract with the shipowners for the whole work of ship-loading, but this plan has not yet assumed any practical shape. One witness thought the men needed educating up to it, and another objected to the system altogether, as being likely to lead to hurried work and consequent risk.(8)

xperience f Co-opera-ion and rofit-haring.

181. In the fishing industry on the east coast, it is stated that there are some 2,000 men who work on the profit-sharing system, which is regarded by the trade as the only remunerative method. The clear earnings, after deducting all expenses for plant, and commission on sale, are in most smacks divided into eight shares, of which two and a half go to the master and mate, and five and a half to the employer. The ordinary hands are not paid by shares, but receive a weekly wage. The men would prefer to have the whole crew put on the profit-sharing system.(1) The Amalgamated Society of Thames Watermen and Lightermen has lately formed a Lighterage Co-operative Association, with the object of securing the permanent employment of lightermen, and the payment of a maximum wage out of a minimum rate of carriage. The capital of the company is 30,000*l.*, of which 2,500*l.* was subscribed by the working men, and the rest by the wharfingers and shipowners in equal shares. There are outside shareholders, and therefore the society is registered under the Companies Acts of 1882 and 1886, instead of under the Provident Societies Act. It owns two tugs and several barges, but the expense of hiring barges was a great difficulty at first. It is stated that the main object is not to earn a dividend, but that any profits are divided as in other co-operative societies, allowing 5 per cent. interest on share capital, and a 3 per cent. bonus to workmen and customers. It is part of the plan of the society to dispense with Sunday work, and reduce night work to a minimum.(2) The majority of the bargemen and watermen employed in the brick and cement manufacturing districts on the Medway work on a profit-sharing system. The owner takes half the freight of the barge, and the captain and mate the other half. Freight is calculated by the thousand of bricks, by the ton of cement, by the chaldron of coke, and by the pocket of hops. The owner and men contribute equally to the working expenses. It is stated that in the opinion of many persons it would be better if the men were paid a regular wage. The disadvantage of the share system is said to be that it bears unfairly on the men in chance work barges, who have not sufficient employment. It is further stated that the men who are paid by the week, work harder than those on the share system(3).

[§ 181.]

2. HOURS.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF HOURS.

DOCKS, WHARVES, AND WAREHOUSES. Nature of information.

182. Oral and written evidence has been received both from employers and employed with regard to the hours of labour in docks, wharves, or warehouses, in most of the principal ports of the United Kingdom. Of this the evidence relating to the port of London forms the largest part, comprising detailed statements of the hours worked in different branches of dock and riverside labour, while little or none of the information with regard to hours in other ports appears in this classified form. The daily hours are stated in the majority of cases, rather than the total for the week. The latter method does not afford a convenient basis of comparison in dealing with a fluctuating industry, unless the number of days worked in the week can also be ascertained. For this reason no use has been made in this instance of the particulars contained in the Parliamentary return on Trades (Hours of Work) 375, 1890, ordered by the House of Commons on the motion of Mr. Broadhurst.

Standard hours of labour.

183. In the following table the gross hours of labour are stated, including meal-times where these are allowed. The amount of meal-time allowed was not in every case stated in the evidence.

Table showing the Standard Hours for Dock and Riverside Labour at the Principal Ports, in 1891-2.

District.	Inclusive Hours (per Day when not otherwise stated).	Meal times.
London:		
Stevedores(4)	10	1
Dock labourers(5)	7 to 8	½
Wharf labourers(6)	10 to 12	1½ to 2
Warehouse porters(7)	7 to 8	
Foremen and clerks(8)	7 to 8	½
Steamship workers(9)	12	1½ to 2

* It appears convenient to treat the subjects of co-operation and profit sharing at this stage, inasmuch as they are methods of industrial remuneration.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 126-7. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 11, 12. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 19, 27. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 15, 16. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 6, 17. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 15, 17.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 43, 44. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 59. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 14, 17, 23. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 344, p. 13. (5) T. McCarthy, 742. Digest, Vol. I. pp. 18, 19. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 22. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8. (8) G. Barham, 7,360. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 12.

[§ 183.]

District.	Inclusive Hours (per Day when not otherwise stated).	Meal times.
London—*continued*:		
Deal porters(1)	8 to 11	
Corn porters (docks)(2)	8 to 10	
Corn porters (wharves)(3)	10 to 12	1½ to 2
Wharf engine-drivers(4)	10	
Ballast heavers(5)	10	
Cardiff:		
Coal trimmers(6)	12	
Wharf and ship labourers(7)	10	
Dock labourers(8)	54 a week	
Birkenhead(9)	9	
Liverpool(10)	9, 10 and 12	
Garston(11)	10	
Hull(12)	12	2
Hull (East and S.W. districts)(13)	56½ a week	
Kingston-upon-Hull:		
Cart and Rullymen(14)	12 to 14	
Drogheda(15)	10	
Belfast(16)	8 to 10	
Dublin(17)	8 to 12	
Burntisland(18)	10	
Glasgow(19)	12	2
Bristol:		
Wharf and ship labourers(20)	10	
Dock labourers(21)	48 to 53½ a week	
Newport(22)	10	
Whitehaven(23)	54 a week	
Southampton(24)	9 to 10	
Stockton-on-Tees and Middlesbrough(25)	54 a week	
Peterhead(26)	10	
Ardrossan(27)	9	
Leith(28)	48 to 53½ a week	
Sunderland(29)	9½	
Plymouth:		
Dock labourers(30)	11	
Coal porters(31)	12 on steamers 10 on sailing ships	

It will be seen from this statement that there is on the whole a good deal of uniformity in the hours of dock labour in different districts. The most usual working day appears to be ten hours in summer and eight in winter, with time allowed for meals. Where it extends to 12 hours the meal-time is generally longer. In each case where there is a variation in the hours, it represents the difference between the time worked in winter and in summer, except in the case of Liverpool and Southampton, where the hours given were stated separately in the evidence, without anything to show whether they applied to different seasons or to different departments of industry, and in the case of Kingston-upon-Hull, where the shorter hours are those of the "Railway and Dock Company's men."

(1) and (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 23. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 26. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 379, p. 83. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 345, p. 13. (6) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 330, p. 8. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 381, p. 83. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 385, p. 85. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 333, p. 9. (10) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 334, p. 10, No. 381, p. 83; Digest, Vol. II. p. 23. (11) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 336, p. 10. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 388, p. 11. (13) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 351, p. 15. (14) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 348, p. 14. (15) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 339, p. 11. (16) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 342, p. 12. (17) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 352, p. 15. (18) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 340, p. 11. (19) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 341, p. 12; Nos. 395, 396, p. 89. Digest, Vol. II., p. 20. (20) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 381, p. 83. (21) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 386, p. 85. (22) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 381, p. 83. (23) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 384, p. 84. (24) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 387, p. 85; Digest, Vol. II., p. 15. (25) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 389, p. 86. (26) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 391, p. 87. (27) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 392, p. 87. (28) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 393, p. 88. (29) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. (30) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 18, 19. (31) Digest, Vol. II., p. 20.

[§ 184.] Overtime and Sunday work.

184. The amount of overtime worked at the docks in London is to some extent a grievance, but it is stated that this applies only to the permanent men, except in occasional cases of extra pressure.(1) A certain amount of overtime is, it is stated, inevitable, owing to the conditions of the work, as for instance the necessity for despatching mail boats to their time, but it has been reduced since the strike of 1889.(2) It is stated that not more than 3 per cent. overtime is now worked in the London Docks. It happens occasionally that men work over 12 hours, but less often than formerly. A witness representing the Dock Companies stated that they wished to reduce overtime still further, but that the shipowners objected to a change of shifts in the middle of a job, because the men already working the ship know the stowage and the marks of the goods. It is also stated that the men would object to having another gang put on to finish their work, though they dislike overtime, and the pressure to work it comes from the customers and not from the workmen.(3) Long hours chiefly occur at the Victoria and Albert Docks, where the discharging is in the hands of the shipowners.(4) There have, it is stated, been cases of men working as much as 40 hours at a stretch, but this is rare.(5) In heavy work, such as that of corn and deal porters, it is stated that overtime seldom occurs, and that Sunday work is very rare.(6) At the Millwall docks the average length of the working day is eight hours, and overtime has been quite exceptional since the strike of 1889. The average overtime worked is said to be less than one hour a week, and that is only for the purpose of dispatching a steamer. In such cases the men prefer finishing the work to being relieved by a second shift.(7) At the Surrey Commercial Docks, where the normal hours are rather longer, from 8 a.m. to dusk in winter and from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. in summer, there has been a great reduction in overtime since the strike of 1889, owing to the unwillingness of the piece-workers to perform it.(8) It appears to be chiefly in wharf labour that overtime is a serious grievance. It is stated that at the coasting and shipping wharves it is very common for the ship hands and wharf labourers to work 35 or 40 hours at a stretch in order to finish a ship. At some wharves this is said to occur twice a week, and more often when there is an extra boat. The hours thus frequently amount to 90 or 95 in the week. The reason for working overtime with one set of men instead of changing shifts, is that the employers suppose the latter method to involve loss of time, and the keenness of competition necessitates great despatch. At one wharf, however, a system of 12-hour shifts has been introduced.(9) It is stated that these excessive hours are very injurious to health, and that after three months' work on a wharf a man is unable to work for a month.(10) The objection is also made that men in want of employment are deprived of it by the practice of giving the extra work to those already employed, and it is stated that if the hours were properly divided there would be regular work for 3,000 out of the 4,000 men competing for it.(11) The hours are made longer by the fact that whenever a ship is expected the men are ordered out and obliged to wait at the wharf till she comes in.(12) At the colonial wharves, the hours, it is stated, are not nearly so long as at the coasting wharves.(13) It is represented on the part of the employed that the undue hurry in which the work is carried on might be partly remedied by the collection and distribution of goods at stated hours only.(14) It is pointed out on the other hand by the employers that it is impossible to prevent goods being sent late, and that though a considerable amount of overtime is worked, it is not constant from day to day, and therefore a system of relays of men could not be arranged.(15) It is stated in the case of the Free Trade Wharf, Ratcliff, that the cargoes are not sufficiently large to require relays of men, and that the men do not generally work more than 12 or 16 hours at a stretch, and further that they are in favour of overtime, and have been known to leave for other employment in order to have more of it. If they have to work 24 hours in a single shift, the firm arrange if possible for them to rest from 10 p.m. to 4 a.m. Night shifts are not worked, and Sunday labour is very rare indeed.(16) It is stated that a great

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 10. J. Atkins, 882–6. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 14, 16, 19, 27, 28. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (4) W. E. Hubbard, 4770. (5) W. E. Hubbard, 4908. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 23, 26. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 24, 25. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 12. M. Costello, 1945–9. (10) M. Costello, 1960. (11) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 12, 16. (12) Digest, Vol. I. p. 12. (13) M. Costello, 1960. (14) T. McCarthy, 512–5. (15) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 22, 28, 57. (16) Digest, Vol. I., p. 22. J. Greig, 5647–8, 5682.

[§ 184.] deal of overtime is worked by foremen and clerks at the docks and wharves. Though the regular hours are the Customs hours, 8 to 4 in summer and 9 to 4 in winter, the hours usually worked are 10 or 12 a day for six days a week, and there is sometimes Sunday work in the docks, though not at warehouses. At wharves the average time worked is said to be as follows:—

For 20 per cent. 8 hours a day.
„ 60 „ 10 „
„ 20 „ 12 „

These are the regular hours exclusive of overtime, which is sometimes worked all night.(1) It is stated on the other hand, as far as the docks are concerned, that the hours of foremen and clerks average 50 and 45 hours a week respectively.(2) The steamship workers in the Thames, who are distinguished from dock labourers by the fact that they work on ships which are loaded and discharged by means of lighters, are said to be employed for excessive hours. Their regular hours are 12 a day, but it is stated that they sometimes work 24, and even from 40 to 56 hours at a stretch. The cause of long hours is considered to be delay through bad weather, and consequent hurry in discharging and loading a ship by a given date. It is stated that the workmen are altogether opposed to the system, and have no wish to work on in order to finish the job in hand. They are willing to give way in order to suit the employer, but their wish is to work not longer than 24 hours at a stretch, and then to be replaced by another shift. Some improvement in this direction has, it is stated, already taken place. The organisation to which the men belong is desirous of abolishing overtime as far as possible.(3) It is stated that the permanent dock labourers on the Tyne, who are in a small proportion to the whole number of labourers, frequently work 24 hours at a stretch, and in some cases 48 hours and upwards.(4) At the Southampton docks the overtime worked in the busy season occasionally brings up the consecutive hours to 24.(5) At Liverpool irregular hours are said to prevail, sometimes amounting to 40 at a stretch, but by the usual system the work is carried on continuously by means of two gangs, the first working from 6 a.m. to 12 noon and from 5 to 11 p.m., and the second for the remainder of the 24 hours.(6) At Glasgow a considerable amount of overtime is worked by the quay labourers employed by the Allan Line, and it is stated that the men never object to it, but that, being unprofitable as labour, it is restricted as much as possible.(7)

IPPING. andard urs of bour, ertime, d Sunday rk.

185. The standard hours in sea service are 12 a day, in four-hour watches, and one witness stated that as a rule only six hours are occupied with the actual work of the ship, and the remainder of the time the men are merely on duty. The official holidays are given, with payment, and on Sundays there is no work except the manœuvring of the vessel.(8) Another witness denied that the daily work on board ship occupied only six hours, and stated that the amount of Sunday work was very considerable. The hours are four on and four off, but as the time from 4 to 8 p.m. is divided into two watches, the hours vary from 10 to 14 a day.(9) They are, however, necessarily unfixed, being subject to the exigencies of the service. One witness calculated the average at 72 or 80 hours a week, while another estimated it at 106 or 107.(10) Firemen have shorter hours, generally eight hours a day, four on and eight off, but in some of the smaller vessels the rule is four hours on and four off.(11) On a few vessels belonging to one firm the firemen have a six hours' day, and it is stated that quicker passages are made in consequence of the reduced hours.(12) Firemen work a certain amount of overtime, through having miscellaneous duties to perform, and thus the average hours of those on an eight hours' shift are said to be 10 a day.(13) Serious complaints were made with regard to the hours of engine-drivers and firemen on board the Victoria Steamboat Association's steamers in the Thames. The engine-drivers, it is stated, work on an average 96 hours a week and the firemen 105 hours, including Sundays. A few of the men have three or four days' holiday on pay at the end of the summer season. There is difficulty in procuring men on account of the long hours. It is stated that they wish to have one day off in 15, but have not obtained it yet. The men in the large tugs are better off. About 60 per cent. of them work 12-hour shifts, while 40 per cent. work longer hours, ranging from 18 to 20.(1) On board the deep sea tugs in the Thames and the Channel, the hours of actual work are said to be from 70 to 100 a week. The large boats are under the Board of Trade, but have no regular hours of work. Leave of absence can only be counted upon once in six months, when the tug is cleaned out. In Liverpool, however, there is a system of keeping spare men, so that a few days' leave of absence can sometimes be obtained.(2) In the fishing industry there are no fixed hours of labour, and the hours worked, especially in steam fishing boats, are said to be excessive. In these boats the men work on an average 15 hours a day for seven days a week, and the work is very hard and monotonous as well as dangerous. The hours of labour at sea cannot, it is thought, be shortened, but more rest on shore is desired.(3) The hours of riggers on the Thames are 10 a day, from 7 a.m. to 5 p.m., but in shipbuilders' yards they are regulated by the rules of the yard. The average working hours in full employment are 51 a week, or 8½ hours a day, 1½ hours being the time allowed for meals. On the Clyde and Mersey the hours of riggers are 54 a week, or 9 a day. These hours are considered satisfactory.(4)

[§ 185.]

RIVERS AND CANALS.

Standard hours of labour, overtime, and Sunday work.

186. The hours of the Thames watermen and lightermen, under Lord Brassey's award, are 12 a day, including time for meals, but it is stated that these hours are subject to variation on account of the tides, and that night work and Sunday work, which are sometimes unavoidable, are "far too common." It was also stated that a lighterman often has to be on board for a week at a time.(5) On these points the evidence varied, one witness denying that Sunday work was at all common, or that there was more night work than was absolutely necessary. Another witness stated that it was very seldom indeed that a lighterman remained on his barge for many consecutive hours, and that he certainly did not do so from Monday to Saturday. When a barge is aground it is taken charge of by a watchman.(6) In most districts the nominal hours of watermen and lightermen appear to be 12 a day, but in many cases a large amount of overtime is said to be worked. At Hull the principal grievance is the distance to and from the work, and frequent detention at the end of the day, causing the men to be practically on duty 15 hours. It was stated that no overtures for reduction of hours had been made to the employers, and that there was some division of opinion among the men as to the concessions which should be applied for.(7) It is in the Upper Mersey district that the strongest complaints have been made as to hours of labour. The weekly hours worked by watermen on the Upper Mersey are said to average 100 hours, sometimes going up to 120 and 137. One witness stated that he had himself been on duty for 70 hours at a stretch. The employers have been asked to grant six hours' rest after 36 hours' work, and in some cases they have done so. They have also been asked for a 16 hours' day, but have answered that the men were engaged for seven days and seven nights to the week.(8) The hours of fly-boatmen in the same district are said to average 104 a week, and frequently rise to 109. The men begin work at 5.30 p.m., and are on duty till noon the next day. Work is seldom finished before midnight on Saturday, and begins again at midnight on Sunday. There are no holidays, and no rest is possible while on duty. Six or seven hours in the 24 are all that the men have for sleep and meals. They have applied to the fly-boat owners for six hours' rest after 18 hours' work, but this concession has been refused. The Burscough branch of the union to which they belong (the Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association) has also applied without success for a reduction of hours.(9) In steam barges on the Mersey and the Weaver, it is stated that the men work from 40 to 60 or 70 hours at a stretch, and are sometimes on duty from midnight on Sunday till midnight on Saturday. In such cases they sleep at their work. It is stated that these excessive hours are due to fluctuations of trade, and that a week of overpressure is often followed by one of slack work. The men strongly object to this system, and believe that it could be remedied by better management and by the employment of a larger number of men. On the lower Mersey the hours of flatmen are said to be equally excessive, 60 or 70 consecutive hours

(1) Digest, Vol. I. pp. 11, 28. (2) W. E. Hubbard, 4625. (3) Digest, Vol. II. p. 54. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 15. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. (8) G. A. Laws, 4674-6. (9) Digest, Vol. I. p. 34. (10) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 38, 39. (11) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 27, 28. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 40. (13) H. Friend, 10,4[illegible].

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 11. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 44. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 46. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 13. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 57, 60. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 56, 61. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62.

[§ 186.] being frequently worked, and sometimes 100 or 150 without any rest or sleep. It is considered that 36 hours' work should be followed by a night's rest.(1) From the statement of an inspector under the Canal Boats Acts, it would appear that the hours of boatmen are not uniformly excessive. They are sometimes as few as eight a day, sometimes as many as 16, but most of the men, it is stated, have six to eight hours' sleep in the 24, and reckon in this time in calculating the amount of work in a journey.(2) Another witness referred to Sunday labour on canal boats and barges as a serious evil, and attributed it largely to the drinking habits of the men and consequent waste of time in the week. Many boat-owners forbid it, and arrange the traffic so as to make it unnecessary. The closure of canals on Sunday would not, in the witness's opinion, injuriously affect the traffic.(3)

(ii.) IRREGULARITY OF EMPLOYMENT.

DOCKS, WHARVES AND WAREHOUSES.

Irregularity of employment in the London district.

(a) *Extent.*

187. (*a.*) A considerable amount of evidence, chiefly oral, was given with regard to the irregularity of employment which prevails in dock and riverside labour in London. It was stated with regard to the docks generally that the average number of months' employment that a man could obtain in the year was a little over seven, but the same witness made the contradictory statement that of the total number of men applying for work at the docks about 6 per cent., who are permanent men, have 12 months' work, 10 per cent. 10 months' work, 12 per cent. eight months' work, 16 per cent. six months' work, 20 per cent. four months' work, and the remainder, 36 per cent., three months' work or less. According to this calculation, which is admitted to be merely approximate, the average employment all round would be 5½ months in the year. It may happen occasionally that all the men are employed, but only about a dozen times in the year.(4) The busiest time is said to occur about December, February, and March. July and August are fairly busy months, and September is very slack.(5) The tonnage coming into the port of London is lowest in January and February, and highest in August, but the amount of tonnage does not in itself afford a measure of the number of men employed, because the different classes of goods vary in their capacity to afford employment. The season trades, which go on from June to November, employ a much larger number of men to the ton of goods than other trades. The season trades are those of tea, timber, wool, fruit, silks, jute, and spices. A ton of tea, it is stated, employs as much labour as 20 tons of ordinary goods. Hence steadiness of tonnage, so far as it exists, does not represent regularity of employment.(6) A witness representing the London and India Docks Joint Committee handed in a diagram showing the fluctuations in the average daily number of men of all grades employed on wages each week during the 12 months ending June 25th 1891. These include, besides daily labourers, the wages staff, numbering about 2,000, consisting of clerks, foremen, permanent men, and others. The maximum number shown in this diagram is 12,234 in February, and the minimum 7,558 in March. From the end of February to the end of June the average number employed appears to have been about 8,500, the maximum being 9,527 in April and the minimum 7,908 in May. The number remained very low throughout May and June. During the remaining months under consideration, the diagram shows the number employed weekly to have uniformly exceeded 9,000. Except for two weeks out of 34, it exceeded 9,500, and except for seven weeks it exceeded 10,000. From that number upwards the fluctuations become very marked. The dock labourers employed by the Joint Committee are said to vary from under 5,000 to over 7,000 and even to 8,000 and 9,000. This statement will be seen to correspond roughly with the facts represented in the diagram, if allowance is made for the permanent staff, other than dock labourers, included in the latter.(7) The number of permanent dock labourers employed by the Joint Committee is about 1,732, and these have full work all the year round.(8) The non-permanent men are divided into three classes: 1,015 are weekly labourers (Class A), and these practically have full employment. Class B, comprising 1,750 men, who have about four-fifths of full employment, corresponds very much to what were formerly called preference men. These are paid weekly, except in broken weeks. Class C, numbering 876, have perhaps two-thirds of full employment, and the remainder, who are ordinary casuals, not included in the list, have perhaps only half employment, that is, in the department where they usually work. It is stated that not a dozen casuals are now employed where formerly there were 100. The Joint Committee's instructions to the heads of departments are to the effect that the number of casual labourers is to be reduced as much as possible, and a larger permanent staff employed. It is stated that of Class B, about 10 per cent. every day fail to apply for work, and of Class C, 30 or 40 per cent. Some of these men have other trades at which they work when not employed at the docks.(1) The fluctuation of employment is more marked in the case of the London and St. Katharine's Docks than in that of any other docks under the Joint Committee.(2) In a single department, for instance (No. 11, London Docks), the number employed is said to vary day by day from 20 to 200, and only the more fortunate of the casual labourers obtain seven days' work in a fortnight all the year round. These casual men, it is stated, become gradually incapable of working six days a week.(3) This is the physical result of irregular employment, and is not due to any unsteadiness of character on the part of dock labourers, which might lead them to prefer casual work at high pay. The men's habits, it is stated, undergo a rapid change as soon as they get regular work.(4) One witness took a different view of the matter, stating that according to his experience of employment of labour in the Albert Dock, it was mainly the unsteady and unsatisfactory men who were irregularly employed, while a steady industrious man could count upon regular employment, and there was difficulty in procuring such men in sufficient numbers. The surplus labour consisted only of those who were not worth employing except when there was a press of work. In busy times the Allan and Wilson-Hill lines employ over 500 men a day in the Albert Docks, and in slack times about a third of that number.(6) In the East and West and South India Docks there is a large proportion of sailing tonnage, and sometimes no ships arrive for a fortnight or three weeks. When the wind changes there is a glut of vessels, and all the men are employed for a few days. On an average 6,000 men get about half employment in these docks.(8) In the Surrey Commercial Docks, the number employed is said to vary from 2,400 or 2,500 to 500 or 600 according to the season. It is stated that in this case the fluctuation is not a very serious evil, considering the high wages earned.(7) The employment of clerks at the docks is not in all cases regular. Sometimes they are taken on only for the season.(8) In some cases employment at wharves and warehouses, especially in the coasting trade, appears to be more regular than at the docks, but on the other hand the proportion of permanent men is smaller.(9) In the Wapping district there are about 50 wharves and warehouses, giving employment to 3,500 or 4,000 men, but of these, it is stated, only 250 or 300 are in permanent employment and entitled to a week's notice before dismissal. Of the rest, about 500 have preference of employment, but are taken on and discharged daily like casuals, and the remainder have sometimes only an hour's work at a time.(10) During slack times they are largely supported by their wives, but many could not live without further assistance.(11) At the Free Trade Wharf, Ratcliff, employment is said to be regular.(12) At Hay's Wharf, in the tea trade, about 800 men are sometimes employed in the busy season, and in the slack season not more than 150. The average is about 500. There are 27 permanent men employed on the wharf, and from 60 to 74 in the tea warehouse.(13) At the tea warehouses generally, of which there are about 22, divided among the docks and wharves, it is stated that in busy times 3,500 men are employed, and in slack times about 500, the majority of these being permanent men, but liable to dismissal at a week's notice. Of the non-permanent men, it is estimated that about one-third are employed for 10 months in the year, one-third for eight months, and one-third for six months. At other times they may get

[§ 187 (*a.*)]

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 15. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 17. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. (5) T. McCarthy, 355. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 15, 16. (7) Digest, Vol. I. p. 18. W. E. Hubbard, 587, 4755–62; Appendix II. (8) W. E. Hubbard, 4589.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 14, 18. (2) W. E. Hubbard, 4661. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 24, 25. (6) J. Atkins, 903, 969–75. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 23, 24. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 11. (9) M. Hart, 1724; M. Costello, 1959; Digest, Vol. I. p. 22. (10) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 12. M. Hart, 1662. (11) M. Hart, 1708. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 22. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24

[§ 187 (a.)] employment in the country, but not half of them get any work at all. The busy time in the tea warehouses begins about July, and lasts for a period varying from two to five months. Thus in the worst part of the slack time there is no agricultural employment to be had. The casual men then have great difficulty in finding a living, and are to some extent supported by the labour of their wives. A casual labourer is not recognised as having any claim on his employer except while actually at work.(1) The firm of Messrs. Groves and Sons, granary-keepers, employ 27 men on the staff, and a number of casuals varying from 12 to 50. About 20 of these get regular work for three days a week, and the rest only intermittent employment.(2) It is stated that in the corn trade generally, only about 20 per cent. of the men required at busy times have full employment as a rule.(3) In the grain department of the Surrey Commercial Docks, the number employed is said to vary from 100 to 800 or 900.(4) The above information with regard to the maximum and minimum numbers employed in different departments of riverside labour, may, so far as it is expressed in figures, be tabulated as follows :—

——	Maximum.	Minimum.
Joint Committee's Docks - -	9,000	5,000 (or less)
Surrey Commercial „ - - -	2,400	600
Tea Warehouses - - - -	3,500	500
Granaries - - - - - -	3,000	600
Hay's Wharf - - - -	800	150
Grain Department, Surrey Commercial Docks.	900	100

(b.) *Causes.* (b.) The irregularity above described has been attributed to various causes, such as seasonal causes, weather, fluctuations in trade, and competition for rapid delivery of goods. The cause most frequently referred to and emphasised in the evidence was the irregular arrival of goods such as tea, timber, wool, fruit, &c., which form the season trades.(5) The docks under the control of the Joint Committee do not depend on season trades to the same extent as the Millwall and the Surrey Commercial Docks, but the tea and wool trades affect them considerably.(6) Wool is dealt with in these docks in larger volume than any other class of goods, and is sold at five sales in the year, each lasting from three to five weeks. During a sale the number of men employed in the wool department of the docks is said to be 1,000 or 1,100, while in the intervals 300 or 400 men are sufficient for the work. It has been ascertained that a considerable proportion of the surplus comes from other departments where work is slack at the time. The tea trade, it is stated, does not fluctuate to the same extent as formerly, when China tea was the staple variety. The season then lasted only about six weeks, beginning in July, whereas now that a very large proportion of tea comes from India and Ceylon, it arrives much more regularly, because the crop is gathered all the year round. In the Joint Committee's tea warehouses 540 men are employed, of whom 230 are permanent, 200 have about 10 months' employment, and the rest about eight months.(7) In the Millwall and Surrey Commercial Docks the season trades of grain and timber furnish the bulk of the business.(8) Grain cargoes are more equally distributed over the year than timber cargoes, and the latter arrive more regularly than when they were imported exclusively in sailing vessels. The busiest time in the corn trade is the last three months of the year, after the harvest. Cargoes arrive from the Black Sea and from America at this time, and more or less throughout the winter, while in the summer the grain begins to arrive from the Baltic ports. The timber trade falls off entirely in winter, when the Baltic and Canadian ports are closed by ice. The trade begins in March with importations from Norway, followed in May or June by Swedish, Canadian, and Russian goods, which continue to arrive until November or December according to the nature of the season.(9) One witness, alluding to the docks and wharves generally, laid more stress on the difficulties caused by the "insane" competition of shipowners than on seasonal causes of irregularity, which, in his opinion, had been considerably modified by the introduction and increasing use of steamships.(1) Another witness believed that the irregularity which was "too often ascribed to the "season" arose mainly from the fluctuation of trade.(2) The state of the weather has a great influence on employment, both by affecting the arrival of ships and by interrupting work at the docks. It is stated that this influence is chiefly felt at the London and St. Katharine Docks, which are the furthest up the river, and therefore the most difficult to reach during fog, and also at the India Docks, which depend largely on sailing vessels.(3) In the docks generally the proportion of sailing tonnage is only one-fifth of the whole, and the irregularity of shipping is therefore very much less serious than formerly. The large lines which have fixed sailing dates provide regular work, but on the other hand if a steamer is delayed in arriving, the necessity for leaving at a fixed time in itself causes a pressure of work.(4) Fog or rain causes a stoppage of work, and at Millwall, where much of the work is in the open air, it is stated that rain is the principal cause of fluctuation in the demand for labour.(5) [§ 187 (b.)]

(c.) *Remedies.* (c.) Several witnesses suggested remedies for the irregularity of employment. Some of these were merely mentioned incidentally, such as the better regulation of the arrival and departure of ships, and the institution of stated hours for the collection and distribution of the goods dealt with at the wharves. It was pointed out that such arrangements would remedy the irregular demand for labour caused by excessive hurry at certain times.(6) A plan very strongly advocated was the reduction of the number of men competing for employment, with a view to securing more regular employment for a certain number, who should be added to the permanent staff.(7) It was stated that the Dockers' Union was in favour of the permanent employment of as many as possible.(8) Objections to this plan were pointed out by some witnesses, who anticipated that the permanent men would be overworked, and also that the Dock Companies were unlikely to engage permanent men beyond the small number for whom constant employment could be guaranteed.(9) A further suggestion was therefore made that in order to secure regular work for those employed and diminish the occasional demand for casual labour, the interchange of men between different departments and different docks or wharves should be facilitated. The demand for labour, of course, occurs in different classes of work at different times, and it is thought that employment might be considerably steadied if this fact were taken advantage of to a greater extent.(10) In some degree the practice already exists of changing from one department to another, as in the case of the wool trade already referred to.(11) There is also said to be a very large influx of men into the tea trade when it is busy. On the other hand, a man has little chance of employment where he is not well known, and there is, moreover, a limit to the possibility of interchange. Very few men, it is stated, are available for transfer from other departments to the timber and grain trades, which require special strength and aptitude.(12) The manager of the Surrey Commercial Docks stated that interchange between departments was formerly more frequent, but that in recent years the unions had introduced a rule against it.(13) It was stated that the Joint Committee always endeavoured to provide employment for the men in this way, but found them disinclined to move.(14) Unless the whole river were organised and the docks centralised, there must, it is stated, always be a certain demand for casual labour from time to time.(15) It was pointed out that the immense variety in the size of the ships and nature of the cargoes made it impossible to concentrate the docks in one locality.(16) It was suggested, however, that the unification of control by some such scheme as municipalisation, would facilitate mutual arrangements.(17) The inclusion of the wharves in the plan of centralisation would present great difficulties on account of their divided ownership.(18)

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8. F. Brien, 145, 151, 153. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 26. (3) J. Falvy, 2612. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 25. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 15, 23, 27. Digest, Vol. II., p. 52. W. E. Hubbard, 4584. (6) B. Tillett, 3536. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. W. E. Hubbard, 4587-8. (8) B Tillett, 3536. (9) J. Falvy, 2611. J. Griffin, 6094-6.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. (2) H. Quelch, 2244. (3) W. E. Hubbard, 4661. J. Atkins, 903. (4) W. E. Hubbard, 4585, 4588. (5) G. E. Birt, 7007. (6) T. McCarthy, 512-5. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 16, 17. J. Atkins, 934. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 12, 16. (10) T. McCarthy, 557-8, J. Atkins, 934. Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (11) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. (12) T. McCarthy, 560. H. Quelch, 2323-6. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (14) W. E. Hubbard, 4668. (15) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. (16) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. (17) T. McCarthy, 557-8. Digest, Vol. I., p. 15. Digest, Vol. II. pp. 22, 25. (18) J. Atkins, 1025.

[§ 188.] Detailed statistics and recommendations on the above subject, submitted by Mr. Booth.

188. A witness, Mr. Charles Booth, who had made a special inquiry into the conditions of dock and waterside labour in London, dealt with the subject of irregularity of employment in considerable detail, and illustrated his evidence by charts and diagrams showing the amount and distribution of ordinary riverside labour during the year from April 1891 to April 1892. Among ordinary riverside labourers the witness did not include lightermen, stevedores, or coal porters, whose work was better organised and better paid than that of the docker, but he included the men who handled grain and timber, and the ship workers who discharged and sometimes loaded vessels lying in the stream. The fluctuations of employment at the docks both severally and collectively were shown on the charts, and the comparative numbers of men employed for the whole or for part of the year were shown for each dock separately in the form of a diagram, and in figures for the whole. The details shown on the charts were summarised in a table giving the maximum, minimum, and average numbers of men employed daily at different docks, with the totals of various groups of employment, and the general total of all. According to this table the maximum number employed on any one day during the year under review was 17,994, but the day of maximum employment differed in each division, so that, taking each centre of employment as a distinct labour market, 21,353 men would be required for the work, this number being the sum of the different maxima. But it was pointed out that although the men were mostly attached to some particular centre and placed on a list for employment there, yet within a certain range there was a great deal of movement, which produced an adjustment, though an imperfect one, of the supply of labour to the demand. Hence the number of men necessary for the work under the present system, though more than the actual daily maximum, would be less than the sum of the district maxima, and might be estimated at about 20,000. The number of those regularly competing for employment might amount to 22,000, but no positive statement could be made on this point. The table giving the comparative numbers of men employed for the whole or for part of the year, at the docks and wharves as a whole, showed that, taking the working year as 309 days, there was full work for 12,500 men, and nearly full work (298 to 301 days) for 500 more, and so on in a decreasing scale for each additional 500, up to the maximum of 18,000. About 2,000 of the surplus over the 13,000 in constant work appeared to have very fair employment, averaging 255 days, while the remaining 3,000 had no work in March, and practically none from then to September, and averaged only 63 days' work each. There is thus good work for 14,500 or 15,000, or, allowing for contingencies, for about 16,000 men. The details with regard to the various centres of employment were stated in separate charts and diagrams. The Joint Committee's docks were dealt with in Chart II., both exclusively and inclusively of Tilbury, and the numbers employed at Tilbury were also stated separately, on account of the great distance of this dock from the others. Over the whole of the Joint Committee's docks there appeared to be a deficiency of work from the end of April to the middle of November, becoming especially marked after the middle of July, though subject to a temporary rush of work at the end of September. During part of this time, work might possibly be found in the country. At Tilbury the charts showed special depressions in May, June, and November, not shared by the other districts as a whole, and the irregularity of employment was more marked, and due to less general causes than in the case of the others. The diagram showed that, excluding Tilbury, the maximum number employed by the Joint Committee on any one day during the year under consideration was 7,750, but on three days only was there work for more than 7,500, on seven or eight days only for more than 7,000, and on 21 days only, for more than 6,500 men. Thus 6,500 would suffice for the ordinary work of these docks. For these, if all shared alike, there would be about four-fifths of full employment. They do not, however, all share alike, some being permanent men, and others having preference of employment according to their position on the lists A, B, and C. It is stated, moreover, that the number who take up this work for their livelihood is certainly more than 6,500. According to a table accompanying Diagram A, the amount of work available in the year under consideration would have given 294 days' work each to 1,700 permanent men, 278 days' work to 1,000 men on A list, 247 days' work to 2,000 men on B list, and 195 days' work to 1,800 men on C list, leaving a margin in each case for loss of time. Seven days' work each would remain for 1,250 outsiders. The numbers here assigned to each class are merely assumed. At the Victoria and Albert Docks, the employment offered by the Dock Company, as shown in Chart III., is more regular than elsewhere, while the shipowners' employment is very irregular. The necessarily irregular work amounts to about 25 per cent. There is, it is stated, no very distinct busy or slack season, the irregularity showing itself in short periods, but there is on the whole most work from August to March. The work is considered desirable, and attracts many of the best men, the result being that very few outsiders find employment. The witness estimated that on the present system about 3,000 men were regularly needed, and that there was an average of 222 days' work for each of these, while there were probably 3,500 men actually seeking employment. At the East and West India Docks, shown in Chart IV., the employment is characterised by what the witness termed regular irregularity, being steady from week to week, though irregular from day to day, and thus requiring the constant attendance of those who habitually work there. August and March are the worst months, and there is on the whole most work in the winter, but the difference is not very marked. According to Diagram C the maximum number of men employed on any one day in the year 1891–2 was 2,400, but only on nine days were more than 1,900 employed, which is the number on the Dock Company's lists. The per-centage of irregular work, according to this diagram, is 35½. It was stated that those who work only at these docks are at a disadvantage, owing to their central position, which makes them easily accessible to men who have failed to find work at other docks. At the London and St. Katharine's Docks the great irregularity shown in Chart V. is caused partly by the periodical wool sales, which afford occasional employment for 700 extra men, and apparently affect the work of the docks beyond the wool department itself. The maximum number employed during the year was 4,000, on February 5th, and the minimum 1,300, on November 11th. According to Diagram D, the work of these docks would afford an average of two-thirds employment to 2,150 men, but the number on the lists is 2,400. The per-centage of irregular work is 37½, which is larger than in the case of any of the other docks under the Joint Committee. The work at the London and St. Katharine's Docks is, it is stated, generally considered the most casual of any on the riverside, and it is here especially that the labourers are found who do not desire regular work. The wharves and warehouses on the north side, west of St. Katharine's Dock, including the Joint Committee's town warehouses, were shown separately on Chart VI. The Joint Committee's employment here appears to vary very little day by day, but the amount is least from March to July, and there are depressions at Christmas and early in August, which are possibly due to holiday-making. On the other hand, the employment at the wharves and other warehouses in this district, while not less uniform on the whole, is subject to acute daily fluctuations. From Chart VII., illustrating the whole of the wharves and warehouses, both north and south of the river, it appears that there is considerable regularity of employment throughout the year, with no great variations from day to day or week to week. The chart shows, on the whole, a surplus of work from September to Christmas, and a deficiency from March to August. Though the work at the wharves is less subject to fluctuation than at the docks, it was pointed out that there was less interchange of labour between different wharves than between departments of the same dock. The proportion of necessarily irregular work, according to Diagrams E and F, is 10½ per cent. on the north side, and 12½ per cent. on the south side. On the north side there is fair work for 4,500 men, but it is computed that 5,000 find their living in it. On the south side there is, according to Diagram F, fairly good work for 3,500 men, but it is computed that not less than 4,000 compete for it. At the Surrey Commercial and Millwall Docks, as shown in Chart VIII, work is best in the autumn and winter, until the middle of January. At the Surrey Commercial Docks, the maximum of employment (1,802) was reached in July 1891, and at the Millwall Docks the maximum (1,178) was reached in November, the busy time there beginning only at the end of August. Diagrams G and H show a larger proportion of irregular work at these docks than at any other. It is stated that 3,000 men probably seek their living there. The two principal branches of the

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[§ 188.] business of these docks, namely, grain and timber, were dealt with in a separate chart (Chart IX.) combining the two docks. It appeared from this that the irregularity of total employment was largely due to that of grain work. Special strength and aptitude are required for handling grain and timber, and therefore outsiders cannot compete for it, and those employed in it are not disposed to leave it for less highly paid work. A compendious view of the total employment in the docks and wharves of London, excluding the Tilbury Docks, was presented in Chart I., which showed that the maximum number, 17,994, employed during the year under review, was reached on December 3rd, 1891, and the minimum, 11,967, on December 24th. The chart included a daily record of the weather, showing how far work was interrupted by rain and fog. The number of days on which there was sufficient rain or fog to interfere with work was 89 and 25 respectively, the remaining 195 days, out of the 309 which constituted the working year, being classed as fine. Dense fog, it was stated, puts an absolute stop to work, but the witness suggested that in the case of rain, which throws 500 to 2,500 men out of work, some kind of shelter might be provided, such as is sometimes used on ships in the form of tents hoisted to the rigging. It was pointed out that the loss to the men through rain was not made up when work was resumed, because the extra demand brought in additional workers. As already stated, the general result of the observations and calculations shown on the charts was that the number of men needed for the whole work of the docks and wharves, as at present distributed, might be estimated at about 20,000. The number of professional dock labourers regularly competing for this work is believed to be as much as 22,000. Their earnings are shared by incomers from other trades, who seek work not because the docks are busy, but because their own trades are slack, and it is this, the witness stated, which constitutes the peculiar difficulty of regulating the dock industry. The remedy which he suggested for improving the position of the professional dockers was that their numbers should be reduced to the 15,000 or 16,000 for whom good work could be found, and that the extra number occasionally required should be drawn from the unemployed in other trades, who should be introduced only when needed. It was pointed out that the demand for surplus labour would occur chiefly in winter, when it might be obtained from the brick-making and building and other trades, which have then a number of labourers out of work, who would come to the docks if offered a certainty of employment. They might be placed on supplementary lists, and employed year by year. This plan, it has been seen, involves a reduction of about 6,000 in the number of men regularly competing for the work. This change could not be immediately effected, but the witness believed that the means towards it lay in perfecting the list system, and adhering to it more strictly. By the list system, preference of employment at each department is given in the order of the three classes, A, B, and C, and less strictly in the order of the names in each class. The imperfection of the system is due to the fact that men are not readily transferred from one department to another, and those who have preference in one department are thus obliged to compete as casuals in another when their own work is slack, and that without knowing where to go for the best chance of work. It is supposed that a great deal of apparently voluntary abstention from work offered is due to this uncertainty of information, which causes men occasionally to miscalculate the chances of work at different places. The improved system suggested is that the foreman of each department should communicate overnight with some central clearing house (*e.g.*, the Dock House), giving an estimate of the number of men required in that department for the following day, and stating to what extent he was over-supplied or under-supplied with labour. The central authority should then transfer the surplus shown on any list to the nearest department which was reported short of hands, the men so transferred having preference of employment over outsiders. The men should be able to ascertain from their foreman before leaving work, at which department they would be required the next day. It would, no doubt, be difficult for the dock officials to make a sufficiently accurate estimate of the number of men needed, and it would be a question whether they would take the risk of asking for too many, or whether they would give a safe estimate, leaving a margin of casual labour. Assuming that this difficulty were overcome, the question of expense in getting to the work would be a matter of bargain between employers and employed. It might be found that, on the whole, since the Tilbury Docks would be excluded from the scheme, the distances would not be greater than the men frequently travel now, and they might be willing to go some miles for the certainty of employment, but if they insisted on being paid walking time, and the employers refused it, the scheme would fail. It would be necessary, in order to complete the system, to have some mutual arrangement between the dock directors and the wharfingers and other employers of labour, but a very fair result would be obtained by agreement between the north side and south side wharves severally, and apart from the docks. With regard to a minor point, that of priority of employment according to the list system, the witness thought that the discretion sometimes exercised by the foremen, in giving preference to one man over another, needed safeguarding, and that if the names were arranged in the order of regularity shown in applications for work, this would be a self-acting system which would prove satisfactory. The witness wished it to be understood, however, with reference to his recommendations generally, that he did not offer a detailed scheme, but merely indicated a principle. He believed that it would be possible for a committee of practical men to make use of the information he had collected, to the advantage both of employers and employed, by working out a plan on the lines which he suggested.(1) [§ 188.]

Irregularity of employment in ports other than London.

189. Irregularity of employment was mentioned as a great cause of complaint among casual dock labourers on the Tyne. It is attributed to fluctuations in the market, and to seasonal causes. Out of 1,400 labourers belonging to the Tyneside and National Labour Union, it was stated that only 150 were permanent men, and the rest had sometimes only a few hours' work in the week. Dock labour at Sunderland is subject to great depression for four months in the year, while the Baltic ports are closed.(2) At Southampton the work of the port is said to be fairly constant, except for the great press of work occurring in summer through the trade in foreign garden produce. The number of men then employed daily is about 900, the average for the year being between 300 and 400. It was stated that there was usually about 50 per cent. of surplus labour.(3) At Plymouth the work of the port is said to be irregular, owing partly to dependence on the weather. Only a minority of the men are employed all the year round, and the casual labourers are too numerous for the employment offered.(4) It is stated that there is very little casual labour in the port of Cardiff, and that at least 80 per cent. of the labouring population are permanently employed.(5) Employment at the Liverpool docks is described as very irregular, and surplus labour is said to be encouraged in order that there may be a large number of men to choose from.(6) The employment of warehouse porters in Liverpool is also very irregular, owing to fluctuations in the amount of exports and imports. There are no permanent men.(7) Employment at Barrow Docks is said to fluctuate very much. About 150 men habitually seek their livelihood there, but at times as many as 300 may be employed.(8) It is stated that there is no great irregularity of employment in Glasgow, and the question of casual labour has not presented serious difficulties, because when the work of the port is slack owing to the state of trade, there is other employment to be found in shipbuilding yards, foundries, &c. There is also rarely any scarcity of labour (9)

Shipping.

190. In sea service there is regular employment unless ships are laid up.(10) In the Leith shipping trade the Baltic steamers are occasionally laid up for a short time in winter, but otherwise employment is steady.(11) Riggers' work is said to be at times very irregular, owing to the fluctuation in the number of vessels being built or coming into port.(12) The employment of deep-sea tugmen is described as very regular. The union to which the majority of them belong seldom has any of its members unemployed.(13)

Rivers and Canals.

191. It was stated that the number of licensed Thames watermen without employment was usually 30 or 40 per cent., but according to another statement, not more than 20 per cent. were unemployed in the slackest

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 8, 9, 10, 11. Digest, Vol. III., p. 8, 9, 10. Appendix 155. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 14, 16. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 19, 20. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 42. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 14. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 22. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 35. (10) G. A. Laws, 4974. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 32. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 45. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 11.

[§ 191.] times.(1) The employment of lightermen on the Humber, the majority of whom are casual, is said to be subject to seasonal fluctuations.(2) On the Medway the employment of bargemen is very irregular through many causes, partly through delay to cargo and partly from stress of weather, which is a great cause of detention in tidal rivers. Barges are occasionally stranded in creeks for some days.(3) The employment of watermen on the Weaver and Mersey is subject to fluctuations which are partly attributed to bad management on the part of the employers' officials. There is little or no surplus labour seeking employment.(4)

(iii.) LIMITATION OF HOURS, BY LAW OR OTHERWISE.

The "Eight Hours' Day."

Docks, wharves, and warehouses. The general principle of an eight hours' day.

192. It is chiefly in connection with the conditions of labour in the port of London that the question has arisen of the application of an eight hours' day to this industry. The evidence of the representatives of London dock labourers is almost unanimously in favour of some definite limitation of hours, though it is stated that the Dockers' Union has arrived at no official conclusion on the subject. The normal day's work in the docks is about eight hours, and it is proposed that this or a proportionate weekly number should be the prescribed maximum.

(a.) *Arguments in favour of. Non-economic. (i.) The physical and moral benefit of the workers.*

(*a.*) The main arguments in favour of this restriction proceed from two considerations. The first is that of the physical and moral benefit of those who, it is stated, are now employed for excessive hours. It is maintained that a great deal of dock work, especially of the heaviest kind, is such that no one can perform it efficiently or without injury to health, for a longer period than eight hours a day. It is stated that the work of 25 per cent. of the London dock labourers is of such an exhausting character as to cause physical and moral deterioration, especially under the present system of hours. With reference to the Liverpool docks also, it was urged that the adoption of an eight hours' day would prevent overwork and give leisure for intellectual improvement.(5) The second consideration, which has been more strongly urged than the former, is the desirability of effecting a more equal distribution of work, in order to provide employment for some of the surplus labour. It is contended that the permanent men, who work overtime whenever there is a press of business, and sometimes make 90 or 100 hours a week, thereby appropriate employment which would otherwise fall to the share of those who now have little or none. According to some of the witnesses on the side of the employed, the restriction of hours would go far to solve the problem of casual labour, by remedying the irregularity of employment.(6) There would not be employment for all, but it is believed that 25 or 30 per cent. of the casual labourers would be provided for, and that the regulation of hours would so far reduce the chances of an odd day's work, that the competition for employment would diminish, and the condition of waterside labourers would be materially improved.(7) It is even contemplated that the permanent staff might be so far increased under this system that the necessity for employing casual labour during the influx of trade would no longer exist. The same argument was used in favour of the application of an eight hours' day to dock labour on the Tyne. With regard to the probable effect on wages, the view of one witness who advocated the reduction of hours was that production would be accelerated in a precisely inverse proportion, so that wages would remain the same for eight hours' work as they now are for twelve. In any case, he added, the question of wages might be left to solve itself, since nothing under a certain standard would command the market.(8) One witness, however, anticipated an increase in the cost of production, leading to "the introduction of fresh machinery" and a return to "the same condition of things, only on a higher economic plane." Hence he recommended the expedient of a reduction of hours rather as a temporary palliative than as an effectual remedy for existing evils.(1) It was stated that wages in the Tyne district would not be likely to fall in proportion to the reduction of hours.(2)

Economic. (ii.) The better regulation and distribution of employment.

(iii.) The acceleration of production.

[§ 192 (*a.*)

(*b.*) *Arguments against. Non-economic. (i.) Increased strain on the workers.*

(*b.*) An employer of dock labour in Glasgow stated that many who had had experience of the system of short hours and hard work in American ports, considered it more physically trying than the opposite practice.(3) From the economic point of view, it was stated almost unanimously by the representatives of employers of labour in docks and wharves, that though excessive hours of work are most undesirable, the varied and fluctuating nature of the business renders it impossible to adopt any uniform system of hours. A wharf in the coasting trade, for example, must be open from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. for the reception and delivery of goods. The late delivery of goods, which is unavoidable, causes a certain amount of overtime, and moreover, absolute regularity is impossible where ships are concerned. They necessarily arrive and sail according to the tides, and are often delayed by stress of weather. Thus it is stated that an eight hours' day and a 48 hours' week are alike impracticable.(4) A witness representing the Southampton Chamber of Commerce and Free Labour Association pointed out the impossibility of adhering to a uniform system of hours throughout the year in the case of the Southampton docks, in view of the extreme pressure of business at one particular season.(5) It is further maintained that the amount of overtime usually worked in the London docks and wharves, namely, about two or three hours, could not be usefully restricted by making the men give place to another set of men, because this practice would increase the chances of casual employment, and thus maintain the very class of labour which it is desired to discourage.(6) It is also stated that the men themselves would object to being turned off a job, and deprived of the opportunity of working overtime at a higher rate.(7)

Economic. (ii.) Impracticability through irregular nature of the industry.

(iii.) The risk of encouraging casual labour.

(iv.) The objection of the men to losing overtime pay.

Method of applying the principle of an eight hours' day.

(*a.*) *A 48 hours' week.*

193. (*a.*) It is stated that at the annual congress of the Dockers' Union in October 1890, the question of the form in which an eight hours' day should be adopted was discussed, with the result that a large majority was obtained against the proposal for a literal eight hours' day and in favour of a 48 hours' week. It is stated that the adoption of the latter is very generally thought to be practicable, whereas the unavoidable irregularity due to seasonal causes, tides, and weather, is a bar to the adoption of the former.(8)

(*b.*) *An actual eight hours' day with two (or three) shifts.*

(*b.*) It is maintained on the other hand that by a system of relays or shifts a literal eight hours' day could be worked, and all overtime dispensed with. One plan proposed is that two eight-hour shifts should be worked in the course of the day, and that there should be no night work. Representatives of dock labour in London and Liverpool supported this recommendation, while a representative of the Tyneside National Labour Union proposed a system of three shifts in the 24 hours.(9) The objection made to any such scheme by employers of dock labour in London, is that it would meet with opposition, not from the dock companies, but from the shipowners, and also to a great extent from the workmen themselves, who dislike being interfered with in a profitable job. This statement was confirmed by a foreman at the docks, who also feared that the shift system would lead to quarrels between the gangs relieving each other. It was further stated by an employer of wharf labour that "relays might be very advantageous" if the amount of overtime were constant from day to day, but since it is not, there would be difficulty in equalising the shifts. An arrangement by which the gangs would overlap, one beginning early and the other ending late, would, it was stated, be unsuited to the nature of wharf work. To employ short gangs for any part of the day would cause the work to be delayed.(10)

Method of bringing about an eight hours' day.

(*a.*) *By the voluntary action of trade unions.*

194. (*a.*) The proposal to attempt a reduction of hours of labour by putting pressure on employers through the unions, finds very little favour among the representatives of dock and wharf labourers, who believe it to be impracticable.(11) This method was advocated,

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 13. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 58, 60. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 59. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 55, 56. B. Tillett, 3664-9. Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 55, 56. 57. Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (7) H. Quelch, 2244, 2314-5, 2426. W. Salter 3113. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 91, 92.

(1) H. Quelch, 2504. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 91. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 93. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 380, p. 129. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 93. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 55, 56. T. McCarthy, 447-8. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. H. Quelch, 2311. Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. J. Greig, 5779. (11) Digest, Vol. I. p. 55, 56.

194 (a).] however, by a witness representing the Southampton Free Labour Association, a large employer of dock labour, who stated that if the men thought fit, irrespectively of legislation, to apply to the employers through the Association for an eight hours' day, the question would certainly be entertained; but that legislative interference with hours of labour, and the establishment of a fixed maximum, would lead to disastrous results. The work of the port of Southampton is fairly constant, except that in the months of June and July there is a great rush of business in connection with the trade in garden produce from the Continent and the Channel Islands. More than twice as many casual labourers are required then than at any other time, as the work has to go on continuously day and night with different gangs. If an eight hours' day were enforced, a very large extra number of men would be necessary. There would be no employment for them in the slack months, and if they remained in the town the existing difficulties from overcrowding and scarcity of employment in winter would be aggravated, and the congestion of the labour market would be very serious. As a matter of fact, however, the extra labour would probably not be obtainable, as the inducement which brings a number of men from other trades, namely, the prospect of earning high wages by doing night work, would be removed by a limitation of hours. In that case the work of the port would stand still, and its trade would be injured. An employer of dock labour in Glasgow objected to State interference with hours of labour unless for "non-adults" and females, or in trades in which long hours are dangerous, and even in such cases due regard should be had to foreign competition. Businesses connected with shipping cannot be carried on without full legal power to work as long hours as necessary, whatever may be done by combination to shorten hours or define a day's work.(1) It is stated that at the Liverpool Trades Union Congress in 1890, the only opposition to the resolution which was carried in favour of a legal eight hours' day proceeded from those who objected, not to an eight hours' day in itself, but to a legal enactment of it.(2)

(b.) By legislation. (b.) It is stated by nearly every representative of dock labour who advocates the restriction of hours, that there is no satisfactory means of obtaining it except by legislation. It is said to be the unanimous opinion of members of the South Side Labour Protection League that it is absolutely impossible to obtain a reduction of hours by trade organisation, owing to the crowded state of the labour market. At the Liverpool Trades Union Congress in 1890, a resolution in favour of a legal eight hours' day was carried by a majority.(3) One witness believed that if satisfactory hours were obtained by trade union effort they would be lost again in a year or two. Constant attacks were being made, he argued, on the position gained by the strike of 1889. He wished for legislation on the subject, notwithstanding the objections of a considerable number of people to an eight hours' day. He would interfere to any extent with "individual freedom to starve."(4) Another witness who was less strongly opposed to voluntary methods, still thought that it would take too long to educate employers and unions to take steps in the matter for themselves.(5)

(i.) Act establishing a universal eight hours' day. (i.) It is not clearly stated whether the Dock Labourers' Union advocates an eight hours' day for all trades, but one of its members expressed the opinion that it was no use "having it sectionally." He thought that a universal eight hours' day would have the effect of taking hundreds of men from the dock gates into the shops and factories where labourers are employed, and where the men are now working from 80 to 90 hours a week.(7) A representative of the South Side Labour Protection League stated that an eight hours' day or 48 hours' week for the docks alone would place some men in a worse position, while giving more regular employment to others, and that in his opinion this limitation of the hours of labour should be carried into all departments of industry, and might result in the employment of all the unemployed.(7) Another witness considered it unjust to apply a legal day to one trade rather than to another, and thought that if it were left optional, the eight hours' day would never be obtained. The resolution carried at the Liverpool Trades Union Congress was in favour of a general eight hours' day, not one subject to trade option, and it is stated that a very large proportion of the old as well as the new unions are in favour of it.(1) [§194(b.)(i)]

(ii.) Act establishing an eight hours' day subject to trade option or local option. (ii.) A representative of the Dock Labourers' Union stated that he thought that the Union was in favour of an eight hours' day on the lines of local and trade option. This position was further explained by another representative, who proposed that the law should be so framed that if a two-thirds majority in any trade decided in favour of an eight hours' day, it should be enforced in that trade. He saw no objection to interfering with the individual freedom of the minority in such a case.(2)

(iii.) Practical difficulties. (1.) Avoidance of overtime. (iii.) The view of those who advocate a legal eight hours' day appears to be on the whole that overtime on a day's work should be abolished as far as possible, and that overtime on a week's work should be prohibited altogether. It is recognised that cases may occur in which it would be scarcely possible to avoid overtime on a day's work. There is already, it is stated, an understanding between various sections of dock and wharf workers and their employers, that if a ship is within a given number of tons being completed, overtime shall be worked in order to finish her, and this understanding might continue, since it is quite consistent with a limitation of hours to a given maximum in the week. It should, under this limitation, be a punishable offence to work over 48 hours a week, unless the case were shown to be one of absolute necessity. Of this point, according to one witness, the employers and employed should be the judges; according to another they should be represented on an arbitration board which should decide whether "justifiable cause" had been shown; according to another, a man accustomed to the work should be called in as arbitrator. But for these necessary exceptions, the rule against overtime must, it is stated, be absolute, or it would be valueless to the workman. Those who now work overtime at a higher rate would certainly earn less, but in the cases of emergency already mentioned, overtime rates would still be paid.(3) According to some witnesses overtime should be entirely prohibited, and a system of three eight-hour shifts a day introduced: (4) according to others the night work which this would involve is undesirable on account of its dangerous nature. It is stated that all the London waterside labourers would prefer to have night work done away with.(3) It is admitted that it would be difficult, in administering an Eight Hours' Act, to prove that the employer knew how long a man had worked. In the case of the workman, however, it is thought that his fellow workmen would be willing to inform against him.(6) It is proposed that infringement of an Eight Hours' Act should be punishable by fine or imprisonment both for the workman and employer, if the latter was aware of the offence, otherwise the workman only should be punished. One witness maintained that the workman should not be punished unless he was alone responsible for the offence, because he is not altogether a free agent. Exemption would of course be granted in the cases of exception already defined.(7)

(2.) Detection of infringement

(3.) Penalties under an Act.

SHIPPING.

The general principle of an eight hours' day. (a.) Arguments in favour of. 195. (a.) Representatives of the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union advocate an eight hours' day for all seamen, maintaining that there is no more difficulty in applying it to sailors than to sea-going firemen, who have had a customary eight hours' day for many years, and that any work in excess of eight hours a day is injurious to health.(8) Representatives of the North of England Sailors' and Firemen's Union expressed the same opinion, and added that the reduction of hours would diminish the loss of life at sea by causing more men to be employed and a better look-out to be kept. It was stated that the reduction of hours in the case of firemen had resulted in increased efficiency, and that the same result might be expected in the case of sailors.(9)

(b.) Argument against. (b.) It was pointed out by several witnesses that hours of labour at sea must depend on the requirements of the service, and that to limit the discretion of officers in this respect by a definite restriction would be to subvert discipline and endanger life and property.(10) It was stated on behalf of the National Federation of

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 93. J. Smith Park, 12,819. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 55, 56. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 91, 92. (4) T. McCarthy, 746, 12,452. Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (5) G. Barham, 7417. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. J. Atkins, 1039-40. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. H. Quelch, 2327-30.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. G. Barham, 7417-8. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 56, 57. J. Atkins, 1041-3. B. Tillett, 3917, 4052-4. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 91, 92. (5) Digest, Vol. I. p. 56. H. Quelch, 2311. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 56, 57. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 56, 57. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 91, 92. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. J. B. Lee, 10,577. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. W. Key, 10, 814-5. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 93. A. R. Abbott, 9035.

[§ 195 (b.)] Fishermen, that the men in the North Sea fishing industry would prefer longer periods of rest on shore to a reduction of hours of labour at sea, which they consider hardly practicable.(1)

Method of bringing about an eight hours' day.

196. It is stated by a representative of the North of England Sailors' and Firemen's Union, that unless an adequate manning scale were first enforced by law, the establishment of a legal eight hours' day would increase the dangers of sea service, and also that legislation is unnecessary, since a reduction of hours can be brought about by the action of trade unions, as in the case of firemen.(2) The National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union advocates a legal eight hours' day on the ground that to demand reduction of hours by trade union methods would lead to continual strikes, and a concession gained in that manner would be easily lost.(3) It is proposed that an Eight Hours Act should allow overtime to be worked at sea in cases of necessity, of which necessity the captain must be the judge.(4)

RIVERS AND CANALS. The general principle of an eight hours' day. (a.) *Argument in favour of.*

197. (a.) It was stated that the question of an eight hours' day had never been discussed by the Amalgamated Society of Thames Watermen and Lightermen, but its representative was personally in favour of an eight hours' day, "because it would give the workmen "an opportunity of relaxation and social education."(5) The same opinion was expressed by a representative of the Society of Lightermen and Watermen of the River Humber.(6)

(b.) *Arguments against.*

(b.) It was stated, however, that the members of this society are divided in their opinions, for though some wish for eight hours a day, others wish for nine, and others prefer the present state of things. It was stated by representatives of the Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Humber, and of the United Bargemen and Watermen's Protection Society (Medway district) that the hours of labour in river traffic cannot be reduced, because the work depends on conditions of wind and weather.(7)

Method of bringing about an eight hours' day.

198. A representative of the Amalgamated Society of Thames Watermen and Lightermen was opposed to a legal enactment of an eight hours' day, on the ground that what would suit one class of work would not suit another.(8) It is stated that the Society of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Humber has already been so far successful in obtaining improved conditions of labour, that if the men were unanimous the reduction of hours could be obtained in the same way.(9) One representative of the Watermen and Lightermen of the River Humber was personally in favour of a legal eight hours' day. Representatives of the Thames Steamship Workers' Union and of the Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association were in favour of a legislative restriction of hours of labour, but not to eight hours a day.(10)

3. MUNICIPALISATION.

(a.) *Municipalisation of docks.*

199. (a.) Several witnesses expressed the opinion that a remedy for the irregularity of employment in the docks of London would be found in the acquisition and control of the docks by the municipality. It was apparently contemplated that the scheme should extend to the wharves also. (11) The secretary of the Dockers' Union proposed that the purchase should be effected by means of a State loan, the interest to be paid out of the local rates. The municipality should have power to compel owners to sell dock and wharf property at a rate not exceeding 25 years' purchase on the rental; and it should not be competent to the vendors to invest the purchase money in the construction of new docks for the purpose of competing with the municipality. By this scheme, it was pointed out, the middleman would be abolished, and every advantage in the way of more effective machinery and increased efficiency of labour would contribute to the general benefit, instead of to that of the employer only. The workmen would, moreover, have some control over the docks through the municipal elections. It was maintained that any possible loss would be more than covered by improved management. (12) Other witnesses advocated the municipalisation of the docks and wharves on account of the excessive competition now prevailing. One of these witnesses represented the Association of Foremen and Clerks, an experienced and comparatively well educated body. He proposed that the municipality should have optional power to purchase the docks with capital raised from the local rates. The warehouses should be let to merchants, who would work their own goods, and the rent would be a sufficient interest on capital. Any loss incurred would fall upon the general public. The advantage to the employed would consist, according to this view, in increased wages and greater regularity of employment, not in the employment of more men. (1) Another witness also advocated the municipalisation of the docks on account of the greater regularity of employment which would result from the centralisation of control, and further pointed out that the public would benefit because the profits would go towards the alleviation of the rates, and the provisioning of London would no longer be controlled by private monopolists. (2) On the other hand several objections to the scheme were pointed out. The manager of the Surrey Commercial Docks denied that the municipalisation of the docks would have the effect of equalising the distribution of employment, because according to the rules of the unions a man may only work in his own department. Any scheme of municipalisation, moreover, must include the wharves and warehouses, which would otherwise act as competitors, because the dock owners must carry on the business of wharfingers and warehouse keepers in order to make any return on their capital. The cost of purchase would thus be far larger than the advocates of the scheme probably expected.(3) Similarly, with regard to the Southampton Docks, it was suggested that the municipality should purchase them, possibly by means of a State loan, and should adopt a "fair-wages "clause" for all work done in its employment. It was stated that "the people" were in favour of this scheme, and it was maintained that it was "a step in the right "direction," although municipal ownership had not improved the conditions of dock labour at Bristol. The municipality should not, in the opinion of this witness, be compelled to purchase the docks, but the Legislature would have to intervene in the combat with vested interests. Although it would be to the interest of the whole body of ratepayers that the docks should be worked as cheaply as possible by the municipality, it was contended that many of the ratepayers would gain as much directly or indirectly by the increased wages of the dock labourers as they would lose by increased rates.(4) A witness representing the National Union of Dock Labourers advocated the municipalisation of the Liverpool Docks. (5) [§ 199 (a.)]

(b.) *Municipal workshops.*

(b.) Nearly every witness representing the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union proposed the establishment of State or municipal workshops for the employment of surplus labour. The chief ground on which it was advocated was the principle that it is the duty of the State to find employment at sufficient wages for all persons who cannot get it otherwise. (6) The secretary of the Dockers' Union proposed therefore that the State should undertake, in co-operation with local authorities, to establish workshops which should provide employment of various kinds together with facilities for learning every class of skilled trade. For this purpose the State should grant a loan to the local authorities, they being responsible for its repayment. (7) Other witnesses explained further that these workshops should produce necessaries exclusively, at a fixed minimum wage, and that the products should not come upon the market, but be interchanged with each other, the cost of material being apparently borne by the rates.(8) The majority of witnesses regarded the proposed plan merely as a means of finding employment for workmen driven from their trades by competition, or for dock labourers not in regular work. They maintained that only better distribution of work was needed, and that municipal control would effect this.(9) Some, on the other hand, wished the scheme to extend further, and ultimately to absorb the whole industry of the country. According to this view the state of labour can only be reformed by a fundamental re-organisation.(10) It was also proposed that the State or the municipality should establish good eating-houses

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 57. W. Key, 10,814. (4) W. Key, 10,816-8. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 92, 93. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 92, 93. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (11) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 12, 15, 17, 28. (12) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 15, 17.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 12, 28. G. Barham, 7366-76, 7407-9. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 25. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 17. T. McCarthy, 12,288-90, 12,303. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15. (7) B. Tillett, 3594-7. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 13. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 10, 11, 12. (10) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 13, 15.

[§ 199 (b.)] throughout East London, and also provide cheaper and better rooms than are now to be had, and meeting places for provident or trade societies.(1)

4. INSPECTION AND REGISTRATION, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

he erchant hipping cts. 854-90.

200. Evidence relating to the text and the administration of the Merchant Shipping Acts was given by the representatives of the employed, the employers, and the Board of Trade respectively. It may be summarised, according to the subjects with which it deals, under 15 heads, as follows:—1st, local marine boards, their composition and functions; 2nd, engagement of seamen; 3rd, allotment of wages; 4th, wages and effects of deceased seamen; 5th, provisions; 6th, cases of illness; 7th, accommodation on board ship; 8th, unseaworthiness of ships; 9th, desertion; 10th, deck cargoes, overloading, &c.; 11th, rating of seamen, discharges, &c.; 12th, watertight compartments; 13th, liability of shipowners; 14th, presence of unauthorised persons on board ship; 15th, life-saving appliances.

i.) *Local Marine Boards.*

(i.) Local Marine Boards are constituted subject to the provisions contained in sections 110–121, and section 241 of the Merchant Shipping Act of 1854. They are composed of local magistrates, representatives of the shipowners, and nominees of the Board of Trade. The last mentioned, however, are generally shipowners also (indeed 143 of the 184 members of Local Marine Boards are shipowners), and Mr. J. Havelock Wilson, representing the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, proposed to compel the Board of Trade always to nominate independent persons. Sir Henry Calcraft, on the other hand, representing the Board of Trade, intimated that its policy was always to nominate suitable persons belonging to or in sympathy with the seaman class, where such could be found. Mr. Wilson further suggested that the Seamen's Union at every port should directly elect six additional persons to sit on the Local Marine Board. Although, as was pointed out by Mr. Scrutton and Sir Henry Calcraft, the judicial functions of the Boards extend only to alleged misconduct on the part of certificated officers, Mr. Wilson and Mr. Plimsoll claimed that seamen are nevertheless immediately interested in those functions being properly discharged, and the last-named witness considered that they should be enabled to secure the transfer of such cases as did concern their interests from the jurisdiction of the Local Marine Board to that of the nearest magistrate who was not a shipowner. (2)

(ii.) *Engagement of seamen.*

(ii.) Engagements of seamen are regulated by sections 146–167 of the same Act of 1854. According to the provisions of section 147, no person other than the owner, master, or mate, or some person who is *bonâ fide* the servant and in the constant employ of the owner or master, may engage or supply any seaman to any ship in the United Kingdom, without a special license from the Board of Trade. Inasmuch as the said Board has refused to grant such a license to the agents of the Shipping Federation, Mr. Laws and Mr. Morrison, as representatives of that body, proposed to amend the law so as to entitle them to supply men without applying to the Board of Trade at all, by substituting the word "agent" for the word "servant," and omitting the words "in the constant employ." In any case, the Board of Trade ought, according to Mr. Laws, to exercise its power of granting special licenses in favour of the Federation. As matters stand at present, the Shipping Federation and other corporations and individuals were represented by several witnesses on behalf of the employed to be constantly breaking the law by illegally supplying men to ships, and this was admitted to be the case by Mr. Laws himself, though he added that he had obtained an opinion of counsel to the effect that the sections of the Act which deal with the engagements of seamen were not intended to affect such a question as that now raised. Sir Henry Calcraft, while claiming that the Board of Trade had materially diminished the practice of "crimping," as offences against this law are called, considered that no further enactment would suffice to entirely stamp it out. Mr. Weston urged the expediency of special licenses being granted to officials of sailors' homes, one of which he represented. Mr. Smith Park, who represented the Glasgow Shipowners' Association, proposed to amend sections 149 and 150 of the Act of 1854 by making it a penal offence for seamen to sign on for one ship before they were clear of their engagements for another, and by giving shipowners perfect liberty to make their agreements with the men when and where they pleased, in whatever terms they pleased, and without the presence of an officer of the Mercantile Marine. It was the opinion of Sir Henry Calcraft, however, that permission to sign the agreements elsewhere than at the Mercantile Marine Offices would favour the development of "crimping."(1) [§ 200 (ii.)]

(iii.) *Allotment of wages.*

(iii.) Allotment of wages is dealt with in sections 149–169 of the Act of 1854, and in section 3 of the Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880. Mr. J. H. Wilson, Mr. J. B. Lee, and Mr. W. Key, representing various Seamen's Unions, desired to extend the power of allotment from one-half to two-thirds of the seaman's wages. The allotment notes should, moreover, be permitted to be made in favour of any registered trades union or friendly society. The same witnesses also contended that payments under allotment notes should begin at the end of a week, Mr. Key observing that the long intervals during which seamen's wives had to wait for the wages caused great hardship. Indeed, he thought that the best thing to be done was to abolish allotment notes altogether, and to definitely substitute for them weekly payments to the man's family direct, beginning from the very first week of his engagement. It was also pointed out that, under the present system, the men were in the habit of getting tradesmen, Jews, and other persons, to cash their allotment notes, who in return for the favour, took the first month's payment for themselves, thereby obliging the man's family, in whose favour the notes were drawn, to wait two months instead of one for their money. Mr. Soll Samuel, moreover, urged on behalf of the cashiers referred to, that in view of the difficulty they experienced in recovering the money advanced by them on the security of the notes, a law should be passed enabling them to guarantee the seaman's future earnings simply on proving their claim before a magistrate or the Board of Trade. The said notes, he added, should be sold only by authority from the Board of Trade in order to prevent the forgeries that were not unknown. On the other hand, Mr. Smith Park, representing the Glasgow Shipowners' Association, contended that the more frequent payment of larger portions of a seaman's wages to his family by means of allotment notes would weaken the power of the master to prevent desertions, besides exposing the seaman himself to the annoyance of finding on his return from a long voyage that his wages had almost all been spent. Sir Henry Calcraft, moreover, considered that the policy of the Act of 1854 in limiting the allotment of wages to the case of relatives should not be departed from without good cause.(2)

(iv.) *Wages and effects of deceased seamen.*

(iv.) Wages and effects of deceased seamen are protected by sections 194–204 of the Act of 1854. Mr. J. H. Wilson, Secretary of the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, stated that the owners of the ships "Donegal" and "Rowena" illegally withheld portions of the wages of deceased seamen from the relatives on the plea that the above-mentioned sections of the Act were inapplicable to the cases in question. Mr. J. Smith Park, however, denied Mr. Wilson's allegation, and pointed out that in every case where deductions were made from the wages of deceased seamen, the provisions of the law were carried out to the satisfaction of the Board of Trade.(3)

(v.) *Provisions.*

(v.) Provisions must be supplied to seamen in the manner laid down in sections 149, 221–227, and 232 of the Act of 1854, in section 31 of the Passengers Act of 1855 and in section 7 of the Merchant Shipping Act of 1867. The evidence on this subject was particularly voluminous, and centred round three main points—first, what the scale of provisions should be; secondly, how their quantity should be checked; thirdly, how their quality should be ensured. The law provides that every agreement shall contain a statement of the scale of the provisions to be given to each seaman, and that such scale shall be subject to the general approva

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 22. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 63. Digest, Vol. II. p. 103.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 63, 64. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 103, 104, 105. G. A. Laws, 4960. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 64, 65. Digest, Vol. II., p. 106 (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 106.

[§ 200 (v.)] of the Board of Trade. The Board has accordingly drawn up a minimum scale, which Mr. J. H. Wilson, Mr. J. B. Lee, and Captain E. B. Hatfield, representing various branches of the merchant service, agreed in characterising as insufficient, and the two first-named witnesses went so far as to propose the insertion of a revised scale in the text of an Act of Parliament. It was pointed out, however, by the representatives of the employers, that the Board of Trade scale was regarded as a minimum, not as a standard, and that the provisions actually provided were in most cases superior both in quantity, quality, and variety to those authorised in the said scale. Indeed the bill of fare authorised by the Board of Trade was rigidly adhered to only when necessitated by the exigencies of long voyages, and by way of punishment for insubordination, &c. Mr. Lee admitted the truth of these statements in some cases, but denied that they held good universally, and added that he considered penal reduction of the men's allowance of provisions to be "a very bad plan." Sir Henry Calcraft, on the other hand, was of opinion that the law as it now stood afforded quite sufficient protection to the seamen in the matter of their food supply. He intimated, however, that the Board of Trade was instituting inquiries as to how far an improvement could be effected in the matter. In regard to the means of checking the quantity of the provisions served out, Mr. J. H. Wilson complained that, though the law required scales and weights to be kept on board, there was no enactment compelling those scales to be kept in proper order. In respect to the means of ensuring the provisions being of the proper quality, both Mr. Wilson and Mr. Plimsoll urged the desirability of extending the Act providing for the inspection of the provisions taken on board of passenger ships to ocean-going vessels that did not carry passengers, and the former witness further complained that Local Marine Boards did not avail themselves of their statutory power of appointing inspectors of stores. Mr. Plimsoll detailed at some length the sufferings inflicted upon sailors by being obliged to consume food of inferior quality, and referred the Commission to a Blue Book on the Health of Crews, dated August 1876. The representatives of the employers, on the other hand, agreed in declaring that the supply of inferior provisions was quite exceptional, and Mr. Raeburn, who represented the Clyde District Committee of the Shipping Federation, maintained that the real ground for complaint, where any such ground existed at all, was not the bad quality of the food itself, but the spoiling of good food by bad cooking, and urged the advisability of adopting better and more systematic methods of procuring competent cooks for the sea service. Mr. J. Scrutton, representing the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom, denied the truth of the allegations made by Mr. Plimsoll, who, he pointed out, had himself qualified them by the remark—"I should mislead your Lordship (the Earl of "Derby) if I wanted you to suppose that that is in "existence now." Personally, the witness entertained no objection to the inspection of provisions as a matter of principle; but, as a matter of practice, he contended that there were several obstacles to its more general adoption. Sir Henry Calcraft's statement to the effect that the law was sufficient as it stood, covered the enactments relating to the quantity and quality of the provisions as well as those relating to their variety. (1)

(vi.) *Cases of illness.*

(vi.) Cases of illness are to be provided for in accordance with sections 224–232 of the Act of 1854 and section 7 of the Act of 1867. Mr. Manton, who represented the National Federation of Fishermen, complained that the Grimsby employers charged the fishermen for the use of the medicine chests placed on board the boats belonging to the North Sea fishing fleet. This charge, he contended, was illegal, inasmuch as the employers were bound to place such medicine chests on board the vessels by the terms of section 224 of the Act of 1854, which provides that "the owner of every ship navigating "between the United Kingdom and any place out of "the same, shall provide and cause to be constantly "kept on board such ship a supply of such medicines "and medical stores in accordance with the scale drawn "up by the Board of Trade." The fishing vessels, he urged, did come under this section, inasmuch as the North Sea might fairly be construed as being "a place "out of the United Kingdom" within the meaning of the Act. Mr. J. H. Wilson made three distinct proposals for the amendment of the law on the point. First, that the expenses of sending home seamen invalided abroad should be paid by the shipowners without deduction from the wages; secondly, that the wages of seamen invalided abroad should recommence at the moment they leave the hospital and embark upon their homeward voyage, and should continue until the moment of their arrival in the United Kingdom; and, thirdly, that the seamen's hospital and medical expenses incurred abroad should be paid by the shipowners without deduction from the wages. As the law stands at present, shipowners are liable for such medical expenses only as are incidental to the employment, and any addition to their liability in this respect, whether effected by means of new legislation or brought about by a new interpretation of the existing law, was strongly objected to by their representatives. (1)

[§ 200 (vi.

(vii.) *Accommodation on board ship.*

(vii.) Accommodation on board ship is regulated by section 9 of the Act of 1867, which provides, among other things, that "every place in any ship, occupied "by seamen or apprentices and appropriated to their "use, shall have for every such seaman or apprentice "a space of not less than 72 cubic feet, measured on "the deck or floor of such place." The minimum accommodation here ordered to be observed was characterised by several witnesses as insufficient, and Mr. Wilson definitely proposed to extend it to 120 cubic feet, and to compel shipowners to provide an open space for the men to use for drying their clothes. Mr. Scrutton, representing the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom, explained that shipowners were voluntarily increasing the accommodation on board their vessels beyond the minimum laid down by the Act of Parliament, and expressed his opinion that it was quite an open question whether, in view of the increased size of modern ships and the fewer hands they required in proportion to their tonnage, the said minimum might not wisely be raised. It was pointed out, however, both by Mr. Scrutton and Sir Henry Calcraft, the representative of the Board of Trade, that, without any further legislation, shipowners have a distinct material interest in improving the seamen's accommodation in virtue of the provision contained in sub-section 4 to the effect that the space so occupied may, if its dimensions and internal condition be in accordance with the Act, be deducted from the register of the tonnage chargeable with dues, and the last mentioned witness was of opinion that the legal minimum of 72 cubic feet per man was quite sufficient, provided that the other legal requirements contained in the same section of the Act as to the sanitary and other internal arrangements were fulfilled. That these requirements were not fulfilled, however, was the unanimous testimony of the representatives of the seamen, although one of them, Mr. P. B. Sutcliffe, stated that this was partly due to the slovenly habits of the seamen themselves. In spite of the provisions of the Act, paint, liquors, and oil stores were said to be habitually placed in the men's sleeping places, where the ventilation was defective, the protection against wind and weather inadequate, and the general sanitary arrangements positively unwholesome. The representatives of the employers, on the other hand, contended that, in all these respects, there was a marked and steadily increasing improvement throughout the merchant service, and that, as applied to vessels belonging to first class firms, the charges of bad accommodation preferred by the men's representatives were quite unfounded. (2)

(viii.) *Unseaworthiness of ships.*

(viii.) Unseaworthiness of ships is provided against by section 5 of the Act of 1876, which prevents shipowners and masters from contracting out of their obligation to use every reasonable means to secure the fitness of their vessels for sea. Mr. J. H. Wilson further proposed to compel the manning of ships according to a definite scale in proportion to their registered tonnage, on the ground that ships ought not to be regarded as seaworthy if they are inadequately manned. This proposal was supported by Mr. Friend, Mr. Key, and Mr. Butcher, representing various seamen's organisations, the first named witness urging as an additional reason for its adoption the fact that it would be the means of furnishing employment for a larger number of men. A similar manning scale was drafted and put in evidence by Captain Hatfield, an officer in the Merchant Service, but unlike Mr. Wilson,

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp 65, 66. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 106-10.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 66, 67. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 110, 111. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 67. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 111, 112.

[§ 200 (viii.)] he did not propose to enforce its adoption by Act of Parliament, while Mr. Raeburn, representing the Clyde District Committee of the Shipping Federation, considered any attempt to fix a manning scale at all to be "a vast mistake," because the number of hands required in proportion to the tonnage varied in inverse, not in direct, ratio with the size of the vessel. That ships were often undermanned was asserted by the seamen's and denied by the employers' representatives.(1)

(ix.) *Desertion.* (ix.) Desertion, formerly a criminal offence and punishable as such by fine or imprisonment, became, under the terms of section 10 of the Act of 1880, amenable only to a civil action for damages. It was, however, pointed out by Mr. Graffunder, representing the Amalgamated Seamen's and Tradesmen's Union, that accessories both before and after the fact continued to be criminally liable under section 257 of the Act of 1854. In the case of the former, he preferred to leave this anomaly uncorrected, but he considered that, as applied to the latter, the law on this point was scandalously unjust, and should be amended. Some difference of opinion existed among the seamen's representatives as to the effect of the Act of 1880 upon the number of desertions, Mr. Graffunder maintaining that the number had increased and Mr. J. H. Wilson contending that it had diminished, and that it would be diminished still further, if the period of notice required from seamen desiring to be released from their contract to sail were considerably reduced. On this latter point, Mr. Wilson was supported by a representative of the Hull Seamen's and Firemen's Union, who further proposed that the same notice should be required under similar circumstances from the employers. All the shipowners' representatives concurred in a general condemnation of the present state of the law. They complained that the abolition of the punishment of imprisonment had, in effect, deprived them of all protection against desertions. Theoretically, they could get damages from the offenders, but practically they could not, because seamen had no money to pay. Mr. Smith Park, of the Glasgow Shipowners' Association, considered that seamen should be permitted to cancel their contracts to sail by giving 48 hours' notice only when they can show a reasonable excuse for so doing, that shipowners should be given the same power of arresting the wages of a deserter in home ports, as they already possess in foreign ports, and that the punishment of imprisonment should be restored, at any rate where it could be proved that the offender had had no intention of fulfilling his contract at the time when he made it. Sir Henry Calcraft, however, declared that the re-imposition of the penalty of imprisonment for desertion, simply regarded as such, was a sheer impossibility; but at the same time he pointed out that a seaman accepting an advance note with the deliberate intention of neglecting to join his ship was still liable criminally for obtaining money under false pretences.(2)

(x.) *Deck cargoes.* (x.) Deck cargoes were illegal from 1839 to 1862, when by a repeal of sections 170, 171, and 172 of the Customs Consolidation Act, they were once more permitted. In 1876, however, the prohibition was revived in the case of timber conveyed during the winter months from foreign or colonial to home ports, with an exception in favour of light wood goods to the height of 3 feet above the deck. In the opinion of Mr. J. H. Wilson and Mr. Plimsoll, the safety of the seamen demanded greater stringency, and they accordingly proposed to abolish deck loading on all ships, both British and foreign, within the jurisdiction, during the winter months, the one altogether, and the other only in the case of voyages across the Atlantic. Mr. Wilson further proposed to apply the 3-feet limit to summer voyages, while Mr. Plimsoll desired to deal with outgoing vessels by making the issue of clearance papers contingent upon the requirements of the law being satisfactorily carried out, and with incoming vessels by empowering the magistrates to confiscate all the timber carried illegally. This, he contended, would be a more effective mode of punishment than the present method of exacting money penalties for violations of the law, especially in view of the habitual reluctance of the Board of Trade to institute proceedings. To these representations, the employers replied by urging that the hypothesis that deck loading, as at present practised, rendered the ships unsafe, had not been proved and was in fact untenable, and Sir Henry Calcraft by submitting a return of the prosecutions undertaken by the Board of Trade between 1883 and 1892 in respect of vessels improperly laden. The latter witness also referred to the operation of the Act of 1890, relating to the load-line disc, which, he considered, had exercised considerable influence in diminishing the length of the seamen's death-roll.(1)

[§ 200 (x.)]

(xi.) *Rating of seamen, discharges &c.* (xi.) Rating of seamen is regulated by section 7 of the Act of 1880, which provides that no seaman shall be entitled to the rating of an A.B. unless he has served four years before the mast, and that such service may be proved by the certificates of discharge, which shipowners are obliged under section 172 of the Act of 1854 to give to every seaman on leaving their service. Mr. J. H. Wilson proposed to amend the law by providing for the exchange of these discharges for parchment certificates of competency, similar to those issued to officers, and obtainable by a practical examination, by making it a penal offence to employ as an A.B. a man unprovided with such a certificate, and by issuing similar certificates under similar conditions to firemen, cooks, and stewards. In regard to the second of these proposals, Mr. Wilson was supported by Mr. Butcher, of the Hull Seamen's and Firemen's Association, who complained of the rating of A.B. being granted by employers to men that were not legally entitled to it. Mr. J. B. Lee, a member of Mr. Wilson's union, also supported the above-mentioned proposals, and Mr. Soll Samuel, of the Amalgamated Seamen's and Tradesmen's Union, Cardiff, expressed an opinion to the effect that discharges should be "continuous," that is to say, that they should contain a record of the whole of a seaman's career, instead of merely a single voyage. Sir Henry Calcraft agreed with the principle of this proposal, because, under the present system, seamen are able to suppress those of their discharges that are not to their credit, and to exchange the good ones amongst themselves; but he pointed out that continuous discharges would be only a revival of the old register tickets, which were abolished in 1853, because they proved inconvenient in practice.(2)

(xii.) *Watertight compartments.* (xii.) Watertight compartments were formerly provided for by section 300 of the Act of 1854, which enacted that no steamer was to be allowed to clear unless she had an iron bulkhead before and another iron bulkhead abaft the engine room, but by section 2 of the Act of 1862, the former enactment was repealed. Mr. Plimsoll contended that it was not sufficient to trust entirely to the owners' personal interests for the safety of merchant vessels, because of the practice of over-insurance, and that section 300 of the Act of 1854 ought therefore to be re-enacted. On the other hand, Mr. Scrutton, representing the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom, explained that the said section was repealed as having been rendered obsolete by the stricter regulations of Lloyd's, and by the voluntary efforts of the shipowners themselves, while Mr. Raeburn, representing the Clyde District Committee of the Shipping Federation, declared that systematic over-insurance would be "a decidedly losing game" and was, in fact, never practised.(3)

(xiii.) *Liability of shipowners.* (xiii.) Liability of shipowners is regulated by sections 502 to 516 of the Act of 1854, by sections 54 to 56 of the Act of 1862, and by such of the general statutes relating to Employers' Liability as apply to seamen. Witnesses representing the South Side Labour Protection League, the International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, and the Hull Seamen's and Firemen's Association, desired to procure the inclusion among such statutes of the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, from the provisions of which seamen are at present expressly excluded.(4)

(xiv.) *Presence of unauthorised persons on board ship.* (xiv.) Presence of unauthorised persons on board ship is subject to the rules laid down in section 5 of the Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880, which forbid such persons from entering a vessel on its arrival at a port without the permission of the master. In order to prevent union delegates from entering the ships and tempting the crew to break their agreements, Mr. G. A. Laws, representing the Shipping Federation, wished this provision to be extended to vessels on the point of departure.(5)

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 61, 67, 68. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 113, 114.
(2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 68, 69. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 114-7.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 69. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 117-21. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 69, 70. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 121-3. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 123. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 61. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 123, 124. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 69.

[§ 200 (xv.)]

(xv.) *Life-saving appliances.*

(xv.) Life-saving appliances are ordered to be supplied in the case of every British ship by the Act of 1888. This enactment had, in the opinion of Sir Henry Calcraft, exercised a beneficial influence in reducing the number of lives lost at sea, and Mr. Manton, representing the National Federation of Fishermen, desired to secure its extension to fishing boats(1).

The Canal Boats Acts, 1877 and 1884.

201. It appears from the evidence of Mr. J. Brydone, the Government inspector of canal boats, that, roughly speaking, about 12,000 boats have been registered under the Canal Boats Acts since 1877, but that, for various reasons, such as a desire to take advantage of an easier method of assessing the damage sustained by craft, owners often prefer to register under the Merchant Shipping Acts. Mr. T. Fawcett, representing the Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Humber, complained of the absence of a uniform system of registration, and stated that, owing to the different methods which different inspectors adopted for measuring the cubical contents of the cabins, a boat which in one district would be registered as fit to accommodate twelve persons, would in another only be registered for six. It was pointed out, moreover, by Mr. G. Smith, of Coalville, a literary expert who had made the condition of canal workers his special study, that in consequence of the present want of system in this respect, at least 8,000 boats had escaped registration altogether. All the witnesses, in a greater or less degree, found fault with the administration of the Acts, although Mr. Brydone, the inspector, declared that the defects, though worth rectifying, were few and insignificant. The chief subject of complaint was the unchecked prevalence of overcrowding, bad sanitation, and the illegal employment of children, and for this every witness, with the exception of Mr. W. Turner, of the Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association, and Mr. Brydone, was disposed to blame the inspecting staff. Mr. Fawcett attributed the inefficiency of the inspection to the subordination of members of that staff to the local sanitary authorities, many of which were largely composed of owners of canal boats, and Mr. Smith advised the appointment of a special staff to assist the Government inspector. Such a staff, he explained, need not be large, because the inspection of boats that are bound to be periodically passing a given point on a canal is peculiarly easy, and the local sanitary inspectors to whom the task is at present intrusted, could soon be made to discharge this portion of their duties efficiently, if they were properly supervised and organised for the purpose. In order to assist the administration of the Acts, the same witness proposed to limit the employment of children under 13 on board the boats to the case of those that have passed the third standard as defined in the Education Acts. The other legislative proposals made by the various witnesses were as follows:—To order the issue of certificates of competency obtainable by a practical examination to all persons in charge of canal boats or lighters, to altogether prohibit women and children from living or working on board, to make Mr. Plimsoll's mark compulsory for all river craft (one inch of freeboard for every foot of draught of water being the minimum spare buoyancy), to make inspection periodical, to extend the application of the Acts to all vessels concerned in inland navigation, and to prohibit the payment of freightage in public-houses. The first proposal, that, namely, relating to certificates of competency, was made by Mr. A. Bird, of the Union of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Humber, by Mr. Fawcett, and by Mr. W. Hewson, a forwarding agent, of Hull, all of whom explained that their sole object in making it was to improve the qualifications and add to the responsibility of the persons intrusted with the task of navigation. The two first-named witnesses further expressed a desire to vest the granting of such certificates in the Board of Trade, although the Canal Boats Acts generally are under the Local Government Board. The proposal for the entire prohibition of the employment or residence of women and children on board was made by several witnesses representing the Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association, and by Mr. Fawcett, on the ground that it would compel the men to work harder themselves instead of spending the earnings of the other members of their families in drink, would relieve the women from an unfeminine occupation and a demoralising mode of life, and would enable the children to be properly educated. It was suggested that any increase in the wage bill caused by the exclusive employment of adult males might, without loss of trade, be met by raising the freightage. It was Mr. Fawcett who proposed to make Mr. Plimsoll's mark compulsory, while the proposal as to periodical inspection was made by Mr. Gatley, who declared that, except for the absence of a provision forbidding the employment of women and children, "there would be very little to grumble at" if the inspecting staff were to do its duty more thoroughly. That the application of the Acts should be extended to lighters and to all vessels concerned in inland navigation was the opinion of Mr. Hewson and of Mr. Bird. The latter, indeed, contended that the Acts applied to lighters already, and that all that was wanted was an authoritative judicial decision to that effect. The last proposal, that relating to the payment of freightage in public-houses has already been mentioned under the head of "Wages, (Mode of Payment)."(1)

[§ 201.]

The Ouse (Lower) Improvement Act, 1884.

202. Reference was made to this Act by Mr. W. Hewson, a forwarding agent, of Hull, who complained that the undertakers of the navigation of the rivers Aire and Calder abused the powers it conferred on them. The driving of piles and other processes incidental to the work of improvement make the navigation exceedingly dangerous, so much so, in fact, that "vessels are "being detained in Hull with cargoes of merchandise "for up the river, because the men dare not face the "dangers which there are in Goole Bight at dark"; but the undertakers show no disposition to accelerate the progress of the work, which is at present very dilatory. They also give unfair preference at locks and bridges to the boats belonging to the canal companies, and owing to the general defectiveness of their administration, it now takes about nine hours longer to go from Goole to Leeds than it did 30 years ago. The witness, therefore, desired to deprive the undertakers of the navigation of the rivers Aire and Calder of their powers under the Act and to hand them over to the Board of Trade. (2)

The Thames Conservancy Acts, 1857–1870.

203. Mr. Fairbairn, representing the Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Thames, complained that the Corporation of Conservators failed to properly fulfil its duties, even to the extent of neglecting to take steps to punish evasions of its own by-laws. Barge owners are allowed with impunity to make false declarations of tonnage in order to avoid employing the required number of hands, and to break the rules of the river relating to speed and lights, &c. The reason of this was declared by Mr. Fairbairn to be that the Conservancy was representative solely of the employers, most of whom knew nothing by practical experience of the conditions of navigation on the Thames, and he urged the expediency of replacing them by a properly elected body, or even of transferring their functions to a committee of the London County Council. The witness, however, omitted to trace the various steps by which the present constitution of the governing body has been developed. The history of that development is epitomised in the provisions of the successive Acts of Parliament detailed below, which show, as the result of a series of compromises between the national government and the various bodies that have vested interests in regard to the river, a gradual tendency in the direction of Mr. Fairbairn's proposals, from the year 1856, when the Corporation of the City of London disputed the claim of the Government to interfere with the regulation of the river traffic at all, down to the year 1870, when the principle of including among the Conservators elected representatives of the trade was confirmed, and the definition of their qualifications was corrected. Mr. Fairbairn was also dissatisfied with the composition of the court of the Watermen's Company, and with the way in which it discharged some of its duties; but he was, at the same time, strongly opposed to the transfer of its functions to the Thames Conservancy. (3)

The Watermen's and Lightermen's Amendment Act, 1859.

204. Mr. L. S. White, representing the Watermen and Lightermen's Hall, stated that Mr. Fairbairn, of the Amalgamated Society of Thames Watermen and Lightermen, had presented a petition in 1870 against the transfer of the powers entrusted to the Court of the Watermen's Company to the Thames Conservancy, and had, in 1871, secured the introduction into Parliament of a Bill to alter the mode of electing the court by

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 70. Digest, Vol. II., p. 124.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 124–8. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 137–8. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 128. (3) Digest, Vol I., p. 70. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 128, 129.

[§ 204.] giving all the freemen the right of voting for the election of members, but he did not succeed in passing it. The composition of the court, therefore, remains unaltered. Mr. Fairbairn, however, still adhered to his original policy, and tried to promote a new Bill with the same object in November 1891, but on this occasion he failed, according to Mr. White, to get the watermen's and lightermen's support. The evidence of Mr. Fairbairn himself was mainly concerned with an enumeration of the defects in the administration of the company, which he sought to remedy by his proposed legislation. Reform, however, he insisted, should be attempted, not by remodelling the system so much as by improving its working. The watermen and lightermen, he explained, did not at all approve of the Bill for freeing the Thames from the present system of apprenticeship, which was introduced in 1890, in consequence of the report of the Thames Traffic Committee of the House of Commons, although they regarded many of the other recommendations of that Committee as excellent, especially that for permitting a man to get a license by simply proving his ability before a board of "practical" men. Mr. Fairbairn thought that, in order to secure the proper instruction of apprentices, they should not be permitted to work for anyone but the person to whom they are bound. The decision in Smith *v.* Francis has made it clear that, under the present law, they are allowed to accept work from others who only offer it to them because they are willing to take a lower wage than full-licensed watermen. The Union, moreover, thus loses power over them, and so there is no real security that barges will be well and safely navigated, such security resting simply on the fact that the men in charge have nominally gone through their apprenticeship. Mr. H. Webb, of the Thames Steamship Workers' Union, maintained that it should be made illegal for a ship's crew to usurp the proper function of qualified watermen and lightermen by taking men to and from the ship in the ship's boat, and Mr. J. Stanbury, of the London United Riggers' Association, deplored the decay of the system of apprenticeship in regard to riggers, and proposed that every applicant for a rigger's license should be required to produce proof of at least four years' service in sailing vessels, to pass a practical examination, and to be approved by the local Union of Riggers. He considered, however, that perhaps the best plan would be to abolish licenses altogether, for the main ground of his complaint was that incompetent and inexperienced men, armed with licenses which they ought never to have been able to obtain, were *ipso facto* placed upon an equal level with competent and experienced men, who would otherwise be competing against them with the advantage due to their superior merits.(1)

5. ACCIDENT FUNDS AND EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

Docks, Wharves, and Warehouses. Number and causes of accidents.

205. Frequent reference was made in the evidence to the dangerous nature of quay and ship labour, involving as it does the continuous and rapid handling of heavy goods, but very few statistics of accidents were given. It was stated that in the docks under the control of the London and India Docks Joint Committee, the number of accidents reported in the year 1891 was 900. Of these, nine were fatal, two resulted in loss of limbs, 30 in fractures, and the remainder were slight.(2) In the Surrey Commercial Docks, it is stated that in 1889 there were 44 serious and 41 slight accidents; in 1890, 31 serious and 41 slight, and in the first six months of 1891, seven serious accidents and 24 slight.(3) It was stated that there were on an average five or six accidents a week at wharves in the Wapping district, but in the case of two wharves in particular, Hay's Wharf, and the Free Trade Wharf, Ratcliff, accidents were said to be very rare and slight.(4) Steamship work is considered more dangerous than dock labour.(5) The employment of warehouse porters in Liverpool is considered dangerous, for though accidents are not specially frequent, they are liable to be serious. It was stated that three fatal accidents had occurred during the last six months of 1891.(6)

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 70. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 128, 129. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (4) J. Greig, 5675. H. C. Smith, 6334. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 12. Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 14.

[§ 205.] Among the causes of accidents in dock and riverside labour those most frequently mentioned in the evidence were defective machinery and gear, hurry and carelessness on the part of workmen,(1) and also the employment of boys and incompetent workmen in responsible and difficult labour.(2) With reference to the London Docks it was stated that the gear, such as planks and trestles, supplied by the Dock Companies, was sometimes dangerously defective(3), but it was stated on the part of the Dock Companies that all machinery and gear was carefully inspected and tested, and that accidents were very rarely attributed to any deficiency in that respect.(4) Accidents in steamship work have been attributed to the condition of the gear supplied by the shipowner.(5) In the Surrey Commercial Docks the gangways giving access to the ships were said to be defective and to have caused accidents, but these occurred more frequently, it was stated, from the use of defective sacks supplied by the receivers of grain, than from any other cause.(6) Complaints were made of the quality of the plant and machinery used in the Liverpool docks by the contracting stevedores. The gear supplied by shipowners was said to be invariably good.(7) In Glasgow accidents in dock labour were said to be of rare occurrence, and no reference was made to defective gear as a source of danger. It was stated that there were no accidents from this cause among the men employed by Messrs. Allan, of the Allan Line, whose gear is constantly inspected and tested.(8) It was represented that the cotton warehouses in Liverpool were not inspected, being outside the operation of the Factory Acts, and that accidents were caused by the machinery being unprotected, and the cotton improperly stowed.(9) Coal-trimming was also described as a dangerous occupation, owing to insufficient ventilation of the holds of ships, and the consequent retention of explosive and inflammable gases. It was suggested that holes should be cut between decks in the case of two-decked and three-decked vessels, to provide both ventilation and means of exit, since the hatchways are frequently blocked with coal.(10) Among other causes of accidents, the chief stress was laid on the excessive hurry which sometimes prevails in dock and wharf labour. This causes such accidents as the fall of bales into a ship's hold while being hoisted with the crane.(11) The employment of incompetent workmen, and of foreigners who do not understand orders given in English, was also mentioned.(12) In the Liverpool docks the danger of the work was said to be largely due to the employment of boys, sometimes for excessive hours, in work for which they are unfit. It was stated that boys employed in lowering cargo were sometimes asleep at the winch, with the lives of the men in the hold depending on them, and also that they were sometimes severely injured through being unable to hold the winch.(13)

Accident Funds. (*a.*) *History.*

206. (*a.*) There are very few societies for insuring against accidents in dock and wharf labour, and such as there are appear to be of recent origin. The Surrey Commercial Docks Mutual Aid Fund was formed "some years ago" and has been, it is stated, of very great service to the men. 189 cases were relieved by the fund in the year 1891, and 197 in 1892. The Dock Company make an annual contribution to the fund, which is controlled and worked by the officers of the Company free of cost to the members.(14) There is also a superannuation fund conducted by the Dock Company, but it applies only to the officials and clerks and foremen.(15) The Millwall Docks Mutual Insurance Scheme was instituted in 1880, on the passing of the Employers' Liability Act. It is stated that a good deal of alarm prevailed at that time among employers as to the probable effect of the Act, and the directors of the Millwall Dock Company proposed to substitute for its operation a mutual insurance scheme which should cover all accidents, whether in the docks or elsewhere, and the men consented to give this scheme a three months' trial. The rules of the fund provided that a man earning 30*s.* a week should be entitled to a benefit of 30*s.* a week for 26 weeks of disablement, and that in the event of his death his family should receive 225*l.*, the maximum sum (three years' wages) allowed under the Act. The

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 10, 12, 14, 26. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 15. Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (3) H. Styles, 1168. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 19, 23. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 25. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 35. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 14. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. (11) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 10, 11., J. Atkins, 893. (12) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 12, 15. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (14) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. J. Griffin, 6104. Statement of Accounts received from witness, June 28th, 1893. (15) Digest, Vol. II., p. 25.

[§ 206 (a).] fund was supported by a subscription of 6*d.* a week per man, the Company paying 3½*d.* and the men 2½*d.* The management was in the hands of a committee formed by the members themselves. The Dock Company desired to continue this arrangement, although they were losing by it, but at the end of three months the men decided to give it up and to stand by the provisions of the Act, which accordingly has since been in operation. The Dock Company then insured against claims, and found that the cost of doing so was about a third or a fourth of the sum which they had been paying into the fund.(1) Messrs. Allan, of the Allan Line, who employ a large amount of dock labour in Glasgow, insured against claims for accidents on the passing of the Employers' Liability Act. Not wishing, however, to leave the men to the strictly legal treatment of the insurance company, they instituted an accident society and gave a donation to its funds.(2) It was stated that other firms employing dock labour in Glasgow had similar accident funds, but no further particulars were given.(3)

(b.) Contributions and benefits.

(*b.*) The contributions and benefits in connection with these societies have been tabulated as follows:—

TABLE of Contributions and Benefits in connection with ACCIDENT FUNDS.

Contributions and Benefits.	Surrey Commercial Docks Mutual Aid Fund.(4)	Messrs. Allan's Accident Fund, Glasgow.(5)	Funds established by certain Glasgow firms (not specified).(6)
Contribution by ordinary members.	1*d.* a week -	2*d.* a week -	3*d.* a week.
Benefit.			
Non fatal accidents.	7*s.* a week for four weeks, and 5*s.* a week for the four following weeks.	12*s.* a week for 12 weeks and thereafter 8*s.* a week up to a total of 12*l.*	15*s.* a week.
Fatal accidents -	5*l.* - -	12*l.* - -	50*l.*

No complaints were made as to compulsory membership of any of these societies or deduction of subscriptions from wages. The only sources of income mentioned are contributions from employers and members.

Voluntary compensation by employers.

207. In several cases it was mentioned that though no accident fund existed, employers, as a matter of fact, gave compensation according to the merits of each case. The London and India Docks Joint Committee allow in a case of accident 7*s.* a week to an unmarried man and 9*s.* a week to a married man.(7) At Hay's Wharf, according to the statement of the employers, the firm allows either full pay or 8*s.* a week, according to the severity of the accident, but accidents, it is stated, are so rare that the matter is unimportant.(8) At the Carron Wharf, it is stated, the employer pays 25*s.* a week in every case of accident, whether caused by the man's negligence or not.(9) The Bute Docks Company, Cardiff, the Bristol dock owners, and the Mersey Docks and Harbour Board, grant compensation on the merits of each case.(10) At Garston Dock, Lancashire, the employers make an allowance of 14*s.* a week while a man is disabled, and 80*l.* on total disablement or death.(11)

SHIPPING. Accident Funds.

208. The only seamen's accident funds unconnected with trade organisations, which were mentioned in the evidence, were the Leith Maritime Disasters Fund, established in 1883, and the Society for the Relief of Widows and Orphans of Shipwrecked Mariners, established in 1831, and amalgamated in 1873 with the Widows' and Orphans' Fund. It was stated that these societies were chiefly supported by shipowners. The 1891 report of the two amalgamated societies showed that the subscriptions paid by shipowners in that year amounted to 538*l.* 9*s.* 11*d.* out of a total of 760*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.*(12) The Leith Maritime Disasters Fund, it was stated, is administered chiefly by shipowners, and each claim upon it is considered individually on its merits and dealt with accordingly. In some cases pecuniary assistance is given by payment of rents or otherwise, and in other cases employment is found for applicants.(1) It was stated that shipowners in all cases compensated seamen for accidents on board ship, and paid their hospital and medical expenses,(2) but one witness stated that he knew of no case in which such compensation had been given except under pressure from the Sailors' and Firemen's Union.(3) A mass of documentary evidence was produced in proof of the former statement.(4) One witness proposed, as a means of preventing disputes in the shipping trade and creating a bond of sympathy between employers and employed, that a national insurance and provident fund for seamen should be established by legislation. Shipowners and seamen should contribute in equal parts a sufficient sum to keep it up, and the fund should provide pensions for seamen at the age of 55, and annuities for seamen's widows and orphans. The amount annually contributed by shipowners and seamen should be 600,000*l.*, in addition to which the Government should refund the sum which has accrued to it during the last 30 years in unclaimed wages and deceased seamen's effects, amounting to about 300,000*l.*(5) The witness handed in a detailed scheme of this fund, and of an alternative plan by which an annual sum of 300,000*l.* should be contributed by Government, and the pension should begin at the age of 50.(6)

[§ 20[illegible]]

RIVERS AND CANALS. Causes of accidents.

209. It does not appear that there are any accident funds in connection with the employment of watermen and lightermen. It is stated that accidents are frequent on the Mersey, the Humber, and the Medway, owing to the absence of life-saving appliances and other necessary equipment on board the boats.(7) It was stated that on the Mersey there were over 400 craft unprovided with any life-saving appliance except a rope, and that on the Medway not two per cent. of the barges were so provided.(8) The absence of rails and man ropes on board the lighters on the Humber was mentioned as a cause of serious danger in rough or wintry weather.(9) On the Peak Forest Canals, several lives are said to be lost every winter in the locks during frost or fog. In one mile of canal there are 16 locks 20 feet deep, without ladders or any means of rescue in case of an accident.(10) Undermanning and incompetent manning of boats was also complained of, especially with reference to the Humber, and it was contended that only qualified and certificated persons should be in charge of river craft.(11) Overloading, it was stated, was not practised to any great extent.(12)

Voluntary compensation by employers.

210. Only one case was mentioned in which compensation for an accident (in this case a fatal one) had been given by the employers, and then a sum of 50*l.* was paid to the relatives of the deceased, at the request of the Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen. It was stated on the part of the employers that a larger sum would have been given if the society had not intervened,(13) and with reference to owners of river craft on the Thames generally it was stated that they usually offered compensation, but to a limited extent.(14)

DOCKS, WHARVES, AND WAREHOUSES. The Employers' Liability Act, 1880. *(a.) Operation of the Act.*

211. (*a.*) The Employers' Liability Act appears on the whole to have had no unfavourable effect on independent and voluntary schemes of compensation not intended to supersede its provisions. From a considerable amount of evidence given on the subject it appears that the principal ground of complaint in connection with the operation of the Act is the application of the doctrine of common employment, which precludes compensation for injuries resulting from the negligence of a fellow-workman.* The Act, which was designed to

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 27, 61. Appendix 39. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 20. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. J. Griffin, 6104. Rules received from witness, June 28th, 1893. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 20. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 11. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 377, p. 100. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 12. (10) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 385, p. 101. Nos. 386, 388, p. 102. (11) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 336, p. 31. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 28.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 34. (2) G. A. Laws 4979. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 34. (4) Digest Vol. II., p. 28. (5) Digest Vol. II., p. 38. (6) Appendix, 80, 81. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 56, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 56, 59. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 58, 60, 62. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. (11) Digest Vol. II., pp. 58, 61, 62, 63. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 61. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 13. (14) Digest, Vol. I., p. 61.

* The Employers' Liability Act does not cover the whole ground of the liability of employers with respect to the personal safety of their workmen. It simply "extends and regulates" the liabilities to which the relationship of master and servant was held by the common law to give rise. Much of the evidence given in regard to this Act, therefore, is rendered intelligible only by reference to the common law rules which the Act has either left untouched or but imperfectly superseded. According to the common law, the liability of masters towards their servants was considered to arise solely from the terms of the contract of service. And, in the absence of express provision to the contrary, every such contract was held to imply an undertaking on the part of the master to exercise due care to associate his servants with competent persons as mates and superiors. But here the master's responsibility was held to cease. Provided that he had exercised due care in the selection of the members of his staff, he was not held liable for the Wilson *v.* Merry, Law Reports, 1 H. L. Sc. 326.

[§ 211 (a.)] modify this doctrine, makes the employer responsible only for the injuries caused by superior servants to inferiors—not for those caused by one workman to another of the same grade—and Mr. J. Falvy, representing the corn porters employed in the London warehouses, Mr. H. Quelch, representing the South Side Labour Protection League and the Steamship Workers' Society, and Mr. J. H. Wilson, representing the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, desired to extend the employers' liability to the latter class of cases also, thereby eliminating the doctrine of common employment altogether. Mr. T. McCarthy, representing the Dockers' Union, and Mr. S. Sims, representing the Amalgamated Stevedores' Labour Protection League, moreover, stated that, even where an injury results to a workman from the negligence of a superior servant, the employer is released from his liability by section 8, unless such superior is "a person "whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence "and who is not ordinarily engaged in manual labour," and the last mentioned witness proposed to destroy the effect of this limitation by inserting the words "for the "time being" after the words "any superintendence "entrusted to him" in the first section of the Act quoted above. In the present state of the law, the rule of common employment is declared operative as between a "ganger" and his subordinates, and Mr. Quelch said that about 90 per cent. of the accidents that had come under his notice had been due either to defective gear or to the negligence of some person temporarily in authority, but not a "superintendent" within the meaning of the Act.(1) Again, the Act leaves untouched the common law doctrine of "contributory "negligence," which arises from the application of the maxim *volenti non fit injuria*.† Mr. J. Atkins, representing the Dockers' Union, Mr. H. Quelch, and Mr. J. Falvy regarded it merely as a quibbling means of defence, sanctioned by the law for the use of employers. Mr. Atkins said that in many cases where men had tried to get compensation, they had lost by the company's officials finding other men ready to give false evidence in support of a defence of contributory negligence. This statement was corroborated by Mr. Salter. Mr. Quelch characterised the defence of "contributory "negligence" as too easy to prove or rather to appear to prove, and Mr. Falvy informed the Commission that he had himself been prevented from establishing a claim by the doctrine of "contributory negligence," and that he held that failure on the part of a workman to report to his superior the existence of defects in the machinery or plant should no longer be deemed sufficient to absolve the employer from his liability. He stated that if a man did so report a defect in the gear used, the fact of his continuing to work with it, though by the foreman's orders, would bring him under the contributory negligence doctrine if an accident resulted. He added, however, that he considered this doctrine to operate less severely than the doctrine of common employment, because the application of the former was left to the jury, whereas that of the latter was invariable.(2) On the whole, therefore, it would appear that the representatives of the employed approved of the policy of the Act in extending the liability of their employers, but complained that it had not gone far enough. One of the employers' representatives, on the other hand, Mr. W. B. Hill, of the firm of Allan Brothers and Company, of Liverpool and London, shipowners, hinted that the law was now too favourable to the workmen, and expressed his opinion that "the employer should be held responsible only for "those injuries that resulted from orders given by "himself or his representatives or from defective gear." Colonel G. R. Birt, however, the general manager of the Millwall Docks, stated that, though the Act had caused much alarm to employers in its enactments, yet, in its operation, it had proved to be, on the whole, a pleasant surprise. "The Act" he said, "practically "throws a very small liability indeed upon the em- "ployers of labour, as far as the docks are concerned; "nothing like to so alarming an extent as was an- "ticipated." Hence there did not appear from the evidence to be any case in which employers of dock labour had contracted out of the Act, except in the instance of the Millwall Docks Mutual Insurance scheme already referred to. This was discontinued entirely through the exaggerated idea entertained by the men of the probable benefit to be derived from the Act. Neither Mr. W. Langridge, of the shipping firm of Messrs. Gray, Dawes and Co., nor Mr. J. Smith Park, of the Glasgow Shipowners' Association—the only other representative of the employers who referred to the matter—expressed disapproval of the Act, although the latter witness objected to its further extension as being a mere encouragement to litigation.(1)

[§ 211 (a.)]

(b.) Contracting out, and insurance against claims.

(*b.*) The foregoing review of the evidence has been confined to such portions as relate to the effect of the Act upon the extent of Employers' Liability. As has already been seen, however, in the case of the Millwall Dock Company, employers may escape their legal liabilities by persuading their men to "contract out" of the Act in consideration of certain benefits. In that instance it appeared that, in spite of the pecuniary advantages which the men might derive from entering into such a contract, they nevertheless preferred to remain under the protection of the Act. The only representatives of the employed who touched upon this precise point were Mr. Ben Tillett, representing the Dockers' Union of London, and Mr. J. Sexton, representing the National Union of Dock Labourers at Liverpool. The former said:—"Our men would be "against any joint insurance between workmen and "employers for the purpose of contracting themselves "out of the ordinary liability, because they know their "share of the spoils would be very little." And the latter:—"The Government should enforce a law that "no employer should be allowed to contract himself "out of the Act by bribing and subsidising a workman "not to take action where he thought he had a good "case," and "it should be made penal for a man to "accept anything from an employer before the case "goes before a court of justice, and it should be made "penal for the employer to offer it." The men's objections to the cognate practice of insuring against the liability took more definite shape. Mr. H. Quelch complained that its prevalence made the employers careless, and Mr. J. Falvy expressed the same opinion, and added that it was very difficult for men to fight insurance companies in the law courts, for where insurers and employers were jointly liable, the latter executed a bill of sale and the former were not compelled to satisfy the verdict, and where the insurers took over the whole liability they fought the case right up to the House of Lords, so that the workman's victory was either converted into a defeat, or, if confirmed, proved more expensive than it was worth, even supposing that he could afford to continue the fight. The witness also desired insurers against Employers' Liability to be compelled to make the same deposit as is required in the case of life insurance.(2)

(c.) Suggested amendments.

(*c.*) In section 3, it is enacted that "the amount of "compensation recoverable under the Act shall not "exceed such sum as may be found to be equivalent to "the estimated earnings, during the three years pre- "ceding the injury, of a person in the same grade "employed during those years in like employment and "in the district in which the workman is employed at "the time of the injury." Mr. H. Quelch and Mr. S. Sims objected to this clause and considered that the amount of compensation should be left entirely to the discretion of the jury.(3) Section 4, moreover, runs as follows:—"An action for the recovery under this Act "of compensation for an injury shall not be maintain- "able unless notice that injury has been sustained is "given within six weeks, and the action is commenced "within six months from the occurrence of the accident "causing the injury, or, in the case of death, "within 12 months from the time of death: Provided "always, that, in case of death, the want of such notice "shall be no bar to the maintenance of such action, if "the judge shall be of opinion that there was reason- "able excuse for such want of notice." This provision, limiting the period of notice to six weeks, whereas the

results of their subsequent actions towards one another. The absence of such liability finds positive enunciation in the doctrine of common employment, and it is to modify this doctrine that the Employers' Liability Act provides that "where personal injury is caused to a "workman by reason of the negligence of any person in the service of "the employer who has any superintendence entrusted to him, whilst "in the exercise of such superintendence; or by reason of the "negligence of any person in the service of the employer to whose "orders or directions the workman at the time of the injury was "bound to conform, and did conform, where such injury resulted from "his having so conformed," &c., "the workman . . . shall have the "same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if "the workman had not been a workman of, nor in the service of, the "employer, nor engaged in the work." That is to say, servants are, in certain cases, given the same right of action against their master as is conferred by the application of the maxim *respondeat superior* upon members of the general public.—G. D.

† This doctrine is described by Sir Frederick Pollock in his memorandum on the Act as "somewhat refined."

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 62. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 13, 14, 62.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 61, 62. Digest, Vol. II., p. 103. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 60, 61. Digest, Vol. II., p. 102. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 62.

common law right of action extends over six years, was strongly objected to by Mr. J. Sexton, who had himself been debarred by it from establishing a claim for compensation through not having sufficiently recovered from the injury to give notice within the prescribed period.(1) Apart from the Act, the relatives and legal representatives of a deceased claimant for compensation cannot recover,* and it would seem that it is with reference to this rule that Mr. Fairbairn, representing the Watermen and Lightermen of the Thames, to whom it is probable that that Act does not apply, said that "if the deceased was "allowed to be represented by the relatives, or through "a solicitor, it would be the means of minimising the "accidents on the river and bringing the liability to "the proper shoulders." In the case of claims made under the Act, however, it is expressly provided that "in case the injury results in death, the legal personal "representatives of the workman, and any persons "entitled in case of death, shall have the same right of "compensation and remedies against the employer as "if the workman had not been a workman of, nor in "the service of the employer, nor engaged in his "work."(2) Section 6 provides that "every action for "recovery of compensation under this Act shall be "brought in a county court, but may, upon the "application of either plaintiff or defendant, be re-"moved into a Superior Court in like manner and "upon the same conditions as an action commenced in "a county court may by law be removed," *i.e.*, by writ of *certiorari*. Mr. H. Quelch and Mr. S. Sims objected to this right of appeal on the ground that workmen could not afford to follow the appellant from court to court, and the latter witness explicitly proposed to abolish that right except in cases where the damages originally awarded did not exceed 50*l*. On this point, Colonel Birt professed entire agreement with the men's representatives. He stigmatised the practice of appealing as "a denial of justice all round," and went even further than Mr. Sims by proposing that, for all cases involving a smaller sum than 500*l*., the decision of the county court should be regarded as final.(3) Mr. J. Falvy expressed his opinion that the whole system of proceeding by civil action and for the recovery of a money penalty was a farce, and that employers should be criminally liable, whether for their own or for their servants' negligence, to imprisonment. The expense of a civil action was described as a frequent bar to redress in the case of a poor man, and Mr. Tillett therefore suggested that the burden of instituting proceedings should be transferable to a Government Department, and that "the decision should "cost nothing to either party." Colonel Birt, however, considered that such a practice would be to the disadvantage of the workman, for the fact of having applied to a Government Department and having failed to convince them that the case was good, would create a presumption against him if he afterwards were to take proceedings on his own account.(4) The last subject mentioned by the witnesses in connection with this Act was the question of its application. According to section 8, it applies only to railway servants and to persons to whom the Employers and Workmen Act, 1875, also applies, and, inasmuch as it is expressly stated in section 13 of that Act that it does not apply to seamen, while the courts have held that the definition in the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, of the term "seaman" as including "every person employed or "engaged in any capacity on board any ship" held good with regard to these Acts also, it would appear that a very large number of the men represented before this Group are excluded from the operation of the Act altogether. Several witnesses, representing seamen's unions and various branches of the sea service, desired to include "seamen" within the Act, on the ground that there was no good reason for their exclusion, and that they stood in as great need of its protection as workmen on land. It was stated that numbers of seamen were injured through the neglect of the employer to send the ship to sea properly equipped. Whether the persons employed in inland navigation are also excluded appears doubtful, and Mr. E. Gatley, representing the Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association, was anxious to get the point authoritatively decided by the courts.(5)

* Under the common law no action will lie by personal representatives or relations for tortious injury to the person of an individual causing his death, the rule being *actio personalis moritur cum persona*.—Noy's Maxims, pp. 20, 21.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 102. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 60. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 63. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 14, 60, 63. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 61. Digest, Vol. II., p. 102.

6. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

[§ 212.] Home and foreign competition.

212. Two other subjects dealt with in the evidence may here be mentioned: the influence of competition on the labour market, and the effect of the introduction of labour-saving machinery. The congestion of the labour market by the influx of agricultural and foreign labour was mentioned as one of the principal grievances connected with the docks of London. With regard to the former, while some witnesses represented the competition of agriculturists with the "*bonâ fide* docker" as a serious evil,(1) it was stated by others that such competition did not exist to any great extent, and that the only considerable migration from the country to the docks in recent years was that which occurred during the strike in the early part of 1891. It was further stated that the migration was often in the other direction, and that dock labourers competed for occasional agricultural work at certain periods of the year.(2) The Dockers' Union, however, appears to recognise the existence of a difficulty of this kind, by its endeavours to enrol agricultural labourers as members with a view to keeping them on the land and helping them to improve their condition.(3) On the other hand, the influence of foreign competition on dock labour was acknowledged by every witness who alluded to the subject. It was represented as one principal cause of the over-supply of labour, and that in two ways. English manufacturers, it was stated, are driven by the comparative cheapness of foreign products to buy the component parts of their manufactures abroad, and employ English workmen only to fit them together. There is also an immense immigration of skilled but cheap foreign labour, which congests the market. In both cases large numbers of skilled English workmen are displaced, and seek a living at the docks as the only resource. It is mainly in these ways, rather than directly, that foreign competition is said to be felt in this industry.(4) Complaints were made, however, of the displacement of dock labour at Sunderland and Glasgow by the employment of foreign crews in discharging timber, and it was pointed out that they ought, like British seamen, to confine themselves to the work of the ship.(5) The influx of country labour is regarded as a grievance among the Liverpool warehouse porters. It was stated that outsiders were brought in by persons in a position to give them work, to the disadvantage of local labour.(6) Serious complaints were made of the extensive and increasing employment of foreigners in the British mercantile marine. It was alleged that they overstocked the market and brought down wages, and that shipowners employed them in preference to Englishmen. It was stated, on the other hand, that there was no difference between the wages paid to British and foreign seamen shipped in England, and that shipowners and captains always preferred to employ their own countrymen if equally competent and well-behaved. Foreign seamen, however, were sometimes employed on account of their greater sobriety and amenability to discipline, especially in the case of Scandinavians. These, it was stated, are more particular than British seamen in the matter of accommodation and food.(7) Apart from the question of outside competition, reference was made to several matters affecting the distribution of employment. It was represented as a grievance that in some cases boys and old men were employed in docks and wharves to do the work of able-bodied men at reduced wages. The employer, it was stated, profits by this practice at the expense of the employed, who are also brought into unfair competition with others. It was suggested that an agreement should be made between employers and employed as to the limits of boys' work and men's work, and that it should be made illegal to overstep such limits.(8) The Billingsgate fish porters have struck unsuccessfully against a system of encroachment on their employment by unlicensed middlemen, who employ men with barrows to intercept the porters on their way from the market to the buyers' carts.(9)

Introduction of labour-saving machinery.

213. Objections were expressed in the evidence to the use of labour-saving machinery, on the ground that while diminishing the number of men required, it increases the work for those who are employed. It

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 11, 17. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 22, 23, 26. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 10. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 10, 11, 29. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 341, p. 33. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 14. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 39. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 32, 36, 39, 40. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 13. Digest Vol. II., p. 13. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9.

213.] was proposed that it should be taxed in proportion to the displacement of labour which it causes.(1) With regard to the introduction of such machinery in the Surrey Commercial Docks, it was complained that the men were obliged to stand by without payment while waiting for that part of the work which could only be done by hand.(2) It was pointed out, however, by the manager of the Millwall Docks, that in his experience the saving effected in annual expenditure by the use of certain kinds of machinery had given rise to improved trade and consequently to an increased demand for labour to the extent of three times the amount displaced.(1) It was stated that at Glasgow and Liverpool labour-saving machinery was used to a greater extent than in London. Besides cranes and steam winches, elevators for discharging grain have been introduced, though objections were made to them at first. It was stated that they could not be used in London owing to the resistance of the men.(2) The effect of the use of grain elevators was said to be that 12 men could do in 10 hours what 36 men formerly did in 23 hours, that is, the increase in efficiency was nearly 600 per cent.(3) [§ 213.]

B. ORGANISATIONS.

1. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS, ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED, AND JOINT BOARDS.

Docks, Wharves, and Warehouses.

Organisations of Employers.

(a.) *History.*

Organisations of Employed.

(a.) *History and Extent.*

214. There was, it is stated, no organisation whatever among employers of dock and wharf labour in London until 1890. The London Docks, Wharves, Warehouses, and Granaries Association was formed in February 1890, on the occasion of the Dock Labourers' Union forbidding their members to deliver goods to non-unionist carmen (3). It is a purely defensive organisation, and its rules recognise no distinction between unionist and non-unionist labourers (4).

215. (*a.*) Before the year 1889, such organisation as existed among dock and riverside labourers was of a merely local character. It was in that year that the three chief national unions in connection with this industry were formed: the National Union of Dock Labourers, the Dock, Wharf, Riverside and General Labourers' Union, and the Tyneside and National Labour Union. The oldest local union which has been mentioned in evidence is the Glasgow Society of Harbour Labourers, which was formed in the year 1853, and includes the better class of dock labourers (5), and has always maintained friendly relations with the employers (6). In 1871, the first riverside union of any considerable extent was formed in the port of London (7). This was the South Side Labour Protection League, a local organisation, mainly limited to Bermondsey, Rotherhithe, Deptford, and Wapping. Any organisation for the protection of labour is, however, eligible for affiliation with the League (8), which is a federation rather than a centralised organisation (9). It was designed to include "all sections of hitherto unorganised labour," and its present membership of 3,000 is composed of corn porters, steamship workers, engineering labourers, factory workers, warehousemen, and riverside and general labourers (10). It is stated that the League has generally met with opposition from employers, but always endeavours to settle disputes by negotiation, without a strike (11). It has taken part in seven strikes since its formation, beginning with the dock strike of 1889. These, it is stated, have cost the Union about 1,200*l.* in actual disbursements (12). The members of the League joined in the dock strike of 1889 in order to regain the rate of wages which had prevailed in 1871 (13). After the strike they agreed to go back and work with the non-unionists who had not struck, and the agreement has been faithfully carried out, but in the Surrey Commercial Docks the non-unionists are receiving less than the union rate of wages, and every possible inducement has been held out to them to join the Union, but with very little success (14). The next union formed in the port of London, the Amalgamated Stevedores' Labour Protection League, also called the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society, differed from the former in being an organisation of more or less skilled labour (15). It is said to have originated as follows: About 1872, it is stated, a revolution was brought about in stevedores' work in the port of London by the introduction of labour-saving machinery. Formerly, only one-fourth of the men working on board ship were employed in the comparatively skilled work of stowing cargo in the hold, the remainder being merely rough labourers. After the introduction of hoisting-gear, most of the latter were transferred to the ship's hold, and came in contact with the other men. The exchange of ideas which resulted brought about the formation of the union, the aim of which was to bring the employers into closer relation with the workmen (16). The master stevedores were then, it is stated, "a band of tyrants," and did not treat the men fairly, but that grievance is now "a thing of the past." The shipowners and brokers assisted the Union "in bringing about a better state of things." Soon after its formation the Union obtained a nine hours' day at 8*d.* an hour, instead of the previous rate of 4*s.* for 10½ hours' work (4). It also obtained a rate of 1*s.* an hour for overtime and night-work, including meal-times, with an extra shilling an hour for work during meal-times (5). It improved the system of taking on men by limiting the number of calls to three a day, and restricted overtime by prohibiting more than 24 consecutive hours of work (6). The general condition of the men materially improved between 1872 and 1889. The Union undertook educational work, and taught them thrift and self-respect (7). Everything worked very smoothly, and the relations between the employers and the Union were satisfactory. The only dispute was in 1874, when the master stevedores attempted a reduction of wages, with the result that the shipowners and brokers who employed them held a conference with the society and decided that the existing rate should be maintained. From that time there was no dispute until 1889 (8). When the dock strike began, the stevedores joined in it spontaneously, before obtaining the sanction of the Union, because they knew the condition of the dock labourers, and thought that they "had a case" (9). Afterwards, when the dock strike committee, which represented all the trades connected with shipping, was formed into the United Labour Council, its action was resented and disowned by the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society. The society was not fully represented on the United Labour Council, and when the latter issued its manifesto of the 5th of December 1890, declaring a general strike in support of the Seamen's Union, the stevedores refused to cease work incompliance with it (10). The Stevedores' Society regarded the manifesto as "very wild," and declined to be "made a catspaw of other unions who had no case" (11). Since the formation of the Shipping Federation, the Society has been concerned in several disputes, owing, it is stated, to the employment on board ship of Federation "coalies," whom its members consider incompetent and dangerous to work with (12). In 1891 the P. and O. Company locked out certain members of the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society, who demanded double pay for working on their annual holiday. The Union, it is stated, tried all methods of conciliation in vain (13). This society has about 4,000 members, of whom 25 per cent. are seamen (14). All the stevedores in the port of London belong to it, "except those that have been introduced lately by the Shipping Federation" (15). Foreigners are excluded from membership (16). The first attempt at a general organisation of unskilled riverside labour was the formation in 1872 of the Dock Labourers' Union, which obtained a temporary advance of wages, but lasted only eight months. In 1889, at the beginning of the movement which has been said to mark "a new era in the history of labour," was formed the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union, "the only properly organised riverside union in the port of London." It immediately took up the various grievances of its members, and made a series of attempts to negotiate with the Dock Companies on behalf of the men. It was, however, ignored by the employers, who did not regard it as representative of the men, or believe that there was any great amount of discontent among them. The great strike which followed was organised by the Dockers' Union, and before its close "several discussions" took place between the Union officials and the employers (17). For a year after the strike their mutual relations were greatly improved, but more recently the attitude of the Dock Companies towards the Union has, it is stated, been one of professed neutrality but actual hostility, the former having "never forgiven the success of the strike." In the Millwall Docks, however, none but unionists have been employed since 1889.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 12, 13. (2) Digest, Vol II., p. 25. (3) J. Greig, 5705. (4) J. Greig, 5771, 5826. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 30. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 40. (7) J. Falvy, 2049. (8) Tabulated Rules, No. 160. (9) H. Quelch, 2388. (10) Tabulated Rules, No. 160; H. Quelch, 2281, 2272-3. (11) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 343, p. 33; H. Quelch, 2394. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 343, p. 51. (13) J. Falvy, 2638. (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. (15) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 14, 26. (16) R. Cridge, 4085.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p, 35. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 341, p. 33. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 17. (5) R. Cridge, 4190–6. (6) R. Cridge, 4200; Digest, Vol. I., p. 14. (7) R. Cridge, 4093. (8) J. Donovan 3354–5; Digest, Vol. I., p. 14. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 17; R. Cridge, 4094. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 17. (11) R. Cridge, 4257. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 14; J. Donovan, 3235. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 48; Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 334, p. 52. (14) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 344, p. 13; R. Cridge, 4242. (15) J. Donovan, 3477. (16) J. Donovan, 3230. (17) F. Brien, 130, 284–90; Digest, Vol. I., pp. 49, 50; B. Tillett, 3874.

[§ 215 (a.)] The Union has undertaken a great deal of educational work for the benefit of its members (1). The members of the Dockers' Union in the port of London are said to number about 25,000 or 26,000, out of a number of workmen eligible for membership, stated variously at 45,000 and 100,000 (2). It has numerous branches in different parts of the United Kingdom, but few details have been furnished with regard to these (3). In 1890 a branch was formed at Southampton, which at first had a membership of 2,000 or 3,000, and prospered for some little time, but after the strike which took place in the summer of 1890, it was almost entirely broken up, and its numbers sank to 200 or 300. The men had entered on the strike without the consent of the executive, and by the rules of the Union no strike pay was allowed. The members being unaccustomed to the discipline of an organisation, seceded from it on account of the enforcement of the rule (4). The Dockers' Union endeavours to organise agricultural labourers, in order to keep them on the land (5). It has 28 branches in agricultural districts (6).

The action of the Dockers' Union in 1889 brought about, in an indirect and somewhat peculiar manner, the formation of the Association of Foremen and Clerks of the Docks of London. The dock labourers, on returning to work after the strike, refused, it is stated, to work under the foremen unless they joined the Dockers' Union. The foremen and clerks, who had stood by the employers during the strike, did not care to join an organisation of men who were under their supervision. They therefore resolved to form themselves into a union "not inimical to the interests of the employers," hoping to strengthen their position and to be able through organisation to express their grievances (7). The employers gave their full concurrence to the formation of the Union, and to its federation, if necessary, with other unions, on condition that arbitration should be resorted to in all cases of dispute. Since then, it is stated, the employers have become indifferent to the Union, while the officials immediately over the foremen and clerks are decidedly hostile, and discourage members from remaining in it (8). From this cause, and in consequence of a reduction of staff by the Joint Committee, the number of members has considerably fallen off, and the Association is not in a position to press its grievances (9). It has endeavoured to obtain improved conditions for its members by application to the Joint Committee, but with very little success (10). The Union now consists of about 700 members, though at its formation there were about 2,000 (11). It represents foremen and clerks employed in the superintendence of work in the warehouses, and in assorting goods for merchants. There are about 10,000 persons so employed in the port of London (12). In 1889 the National Union of Dock Labourers was formed. Branches were formed in Glasgow and Liverpool in the same year, and at Barrow-in-Furness in 1890, with others at Garston, Belfast, Drogheda, Londonderry, Burntisland, and other places (13). In Glasgow the majority of dock labourers joined it shortly after it came into existence. Its rules "hampered the stevedores greatly in carrying on their work; in fact the officials of the Union were the masters" (14). The Union blocked vessels which had been worked by non-unionists in other ports where there were branches of the Union, and, in December 1890, refused to allow its members to work on ships with non-unionist crews, in order to support the Sailors' Union. The National Union also came into conflict with the old Society of Harbour Labourers, which had existed in Glasgow for many years. Its policy was defeated by the action of the Shipping Federation, and it has since declined in numbers, and is not strong enough to enforce its own terms (15). When the Barrow branch was formed in June 1890, only 14 out of 100 "old hands on the docks" remained outside the organisation. A conference of the various branches, held in the following month, revealed the fact that the financial position of the Union was not very strong. The contractor who employed the dock labourers at Barrow immediately introduced a system for the permanent men, to which the Union objected, with the "intended result" that the permanent work was given to non-unionists. The Union had no resource but to refuse to work with the non-unionists unless the latter were placed on equal terms with them (16). This was the origin of the strike at Barrow, and of the series of "blocks" which occurred in connection with it at other ports, leading to the break-up of the organisation at Garston and Londonderry, and the weakening of its general position. The secretary, treasurer, and four other members of the Union were dismissed from their employment after the strike, in consequence, it is stated, of the active part they had taken (1). At Liverpool, though the National Union has partly succeeded in obtaining its demands, the employers have refused throughout to recognise the Union, or to hold any communication with its representatives (2). It is stated that since the Liverpool dock labourers have been organised, accidents have been 50 per cent. less frequent (3). The Tyneside and National Labour Union was also formed in 1889. It comprises members of various unskilled industries. The Tyneside branch, formed in June 1889, was the first riverside branch, but the 31st branch of the Union. It is stated that it has secured and maintained advanced wages for the dock labourers in the Newcastle district. It is also stated, however, that the policy of the Union in insisting on a certain rate of wages has sometimes caused the men to lose the work altogether (4). Until lately, according to one witness, the great bulk of the work on the Tyne was done by Union men, but the Union has now considerably declined in numbers and power, and is not able, as it formerly was, to insist on the exclusion of non-unionists from employment (5). The number of members of the Tyneside branch is stated to be 1,400, and the total membership of the Union about 30,000 (6). Two local unions are mentioned which date from about the same time as these three national organisations. The Coal Trimmers' Protection and Benefit Association, Cardiff, Penarth, and Barry, was formed in May 1888. It has about 1,200 members, out of 1,600 employed in the industry represented. It has never conducted a strike (7). The Grain Weighers' and Tally Clerks' Union of the port of Dublin was registered in 1888, and has since been amalgamated with the Dock, Wharf, Riverside and General Labourers' Union, with which it co-operated on the occasion of the strike of July 1891 in the port of Dublin (8). It has 64 members, all unskilled labourers (9). The Sunderland and North East Coast River, Dock, and Wharf Labour Union is not federated with any of the other dock labourers' unions. The date of its establishment is not stated. Of about 650 casual labourers employed in the docks and wharves in Sunderland it is stated that about 560 are members of the Union (10). The Liverpool Cotton and General Warehouse Porters' Society is a local union without branches. It has about 2,700 members, the total number of men employed in that district and branch of industry being about 10,000 in winter, and 6,000 in summer. The date of its establishment is not stated. The society has conducted no strikes. It has attempted to bring employers and employed into closer relations by conference with employers' associations. Its delegates have met the Liverpool Cotton Association, and the Liverpool Corn Association, for the discussion of questions affecting the men, and have been cordially received. It is expected that "some material good" will result from these interviews (11).

[§ 215 (a.)]

(b.) Constitution and government.

(b.) The rules of the following dock labourers' unions have been furnished to the Commission: the Tyneside and National Labour Union, the Cardiff Coal Trimmers' Association, the National Union of Dock Labourers, the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union, the South Side Labour Protection League, the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society, and the Dublin Grain Weighers' and Tally Clerks' Union. It appears from the rules, which are all of recent date, that these unions are very similar in constitution. There is in each case an Executive Council or Committee, varying, however, in numbers and mode of appointment, and including a staff of officials, generally a president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer, whose salaries, except in the case of the secretary, are merely nominal. There are also trustees and auditors, the trustees being in some cases members of the Executive Council (12). In the case of the Cardiff Coal Trimmers' Association and the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society the entire management of affairs is vested in this Committee or Council which consists of representatives from the different branches in proportion to the number of members. Questions are decided by a majority, and the president has both a deliberative and a casting vote. The president and other officers of the Cardiff Coal Trimmers' Association are elected at an annual meeting of the society, which also elects a sub-committee for the purpose of canvassing and collecting contributions, but appears to have no further powers (13). In the case of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union, a Finance Committee is elected from the Executive Council, which may also divide

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10; J. Atkins, 1060. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 30. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Nos. 337, 338, 346, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351. (4) Digest. Vol. II., pp. 16, 17. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 10. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 17. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 11.; G. Barham, 7355, (8) G. Barham, 7400, 7356; Digest, Vol. I., p. 28. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 28; W. H. Horton, 1515–6. (10) W. H. Horton, 1572-4. (11) G. Barham, 7337. (12) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 28 (13) Tabulated Rules, No. 158: Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 22, 23. (14) G. Monro, 12,696, (15) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 21. (16) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 22, 23.

(1) E. M. Shepherd, 13,551, 13,572. (2) Digest Vol. II., p. 23. (3) J. Sexton, 13,589. (4) Tabulated Rules, No. 149; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 11, 12. (5) T. Allman, 11,420–1. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13; Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 319, p. 4. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. (8) Tabulated Rules, No. 163; Digest, Vol. I., pp. 20, 52. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 352, p. 15. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 14.; T. F. Parr, 12,081. (12) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 149, 156, 158, 159, 160, 162, 163. (13) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 156, 162.

[§ 215 (b.)]

nto sub-committees for special purposes (1). In this Union, and in the South Side Labour Protection League, the National Union of Dock Labourers, and the Tyneside and National Labour Union, the Executive Council is supplemented by a general council or delegate assembly, meeting monthly, quarterly, or annually, or "when necessary." It consists of delegates in proportion to the number of members in a branch or district, except in the case of the Tyneside and National Labour Union, where each branch sends a delegate, who has votes in proportion to the number of members, with a maximum of four votes (2). The Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union has a quarterly delegate meeting, consisting of one delegate for every 3,000 members in a district, and also an annual delegate meeting consisting of one delegate for every 1,000 members in a district (3). The Dublin Grain Weighers' and Tally Clerks' Union, being a small society, has a quarterly general meeting, at which all members are expected to be present (4). Where a general or delegate assembly exists, it is alone competent to change the constitution or rules of the Union and to hear appeals from the Executive. The voting powers of the president or chairman at the meetings of such assemblies are not specified. Branches are governed in most cases by a small committee together with a body of officials similar to those of the central organisation, generally a president or chairman, vice-president, treasurer, and one or two secretaries (5). The South Side Labour Protection League is somewhat peculiar, being a federated organisation, with sectional autonomy, so that the branches act as independent unions, subject only to the general rules (6). The Dock, Wharf, Riverside and General Labourers' Union, and the Tyneside and National Labour Union are divided into districts, and these again into branches. Each district is governed by a committee consisting of one member from each branch, elected half-yearly, and by four officers. The district committees have full local authority, subject only to the general rules and the Executive Council (7).

(c.) Entrance fees and contributions.

(*c.*) Each of these Unions charges an entrance fee, the most usual amount being 2*s.* 6*d.* or 5*s.*, and a weekly contribution of from 2*d.* to 4*d.* (see *infra*, "Table of Entrance Fees and Contributions," pages 170, 171). Members who are a given number of weeks in arrears are suspended from benefits, and in the case of three Unions—the National Union of Dock Labourers, the Tyneside and National Labour Union, and the Dublin Tally Clerks' Union—members 13 weeks in arrears are excluded from the society.

(d.) Benefits.

(*d.*) The extent of benefits granted to the members varies considerably in different organisations. Three only—the National Union of Dock Labourers, the Tyneside and National Labour Union, and the Liverpool Cotton and General Warehouse Porters' Association—pay dispute, accident, and funeral benefit. The Dock, Wharf, &c. Union, and the South Side Labour Protection League pay dispute benefit only, and the Cardiff Coal Trimmers' Association and the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society pay accident and funeral benefit only (see *infra*, "Table of Benefits," pages 170, 171). The funds are invested in the names of the trustees.

(e.) Dispute regulations.

(*e.*) All the unions whose rules have been quoted, except the Dublin Tally Clerks' Union, have special regulations with regard to disputes between employers and employed (8). The Tyneside and National Labour Union has an elaborate system by which cases of dispute are referred for settlement, first to the branch Committee, then to the delegate or corresponding secretary, and failing these to the Executive Council, which has power, subject to the approval of two-thirds of the members affected, to resort to arbitration, or on the failure of all amicable methods, to order a strike. Members who instigate a strike against the wish of the Executive are expelled from the society. The district Committee can only give permission to less than 50 members to suspend work (9). The power to order a strike rests with the Executive Council in the case of two other unions—the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, &c., Union, and the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society. In the former case the matter in dispute is first referred by the branch to the district Committee, which must endeavour to settle it (10). The rule of the Cardiff Coal Trimmers' Association is that in cases of dispute the president or secretary must call together the Committee of Management "to see right and justice done to all parties" (11). In the National Union of Dock Labourers there appears to be no special provision for the settlement of a dispute but the branch Committee can alone authorise a strike (12). In the case of the South Side Labour Protection League the ultimate responsibility rests with the General Council. Any dispute between a branch and the employers is notified to the Executive, who endeavour to settle it by mediation. Failing this, the question is submitted to a special meeting of the General Council, of which a two-thirds majority is required to authorise a strike. Should the Council, however, decide against a strike, the branch may nevertheless enter upon one without affecting either its relations with the League or the obligation of other members to support such a strike. The extent of this obligation is such, that any branch or member assisting any employer whose workmen are on strike, is punishable with exclusion from the League, even though the full standard wages be insisted on, and the strikers do not belong to any branch of the League (1). The Glasgow Society of Harbour Labourers has, it is stated, a rule providing for the settlement of disputes, in the following terms:—"No strike shall be organized unless decided by a three-fourths majority of the whole of the members of the society, and that only after the matter in dispute had lain for one clear week before the Honourable the Lord Provost of Glasgow, the Provost of Govan, and the Provost of Patrick, as a board of conciliation to act between the parties" (2).

[§ 215 (e.)]

(f.) Regulations with regard to non-unionists.

(*f.*) In some cases there are rules with regard to the attitude of members towards non-unionists. The South Side Labour Protection League discourages its members from working with non-unionists, and whenever they are sufficiently strong they refuse to do so, on the principle that "liberty to combine does not imply liberty not to combine" (3). In the Surrey Commercial Docks, where a majority of the men employed are non-unionists, there is, it is stated, great bitterness between them and the members of the League (4). The National Union of Dock Labourers also prohibits its members, in certain cases, from working with non-unionists, and has frequently ordered strikes on this ground (5). Its rules provide that every branch shall "see that the name of every man working at the quays or docks in the port in which it is located is on the roll of members," and that members must exhibit their badges when seeking employment (6). The Tyneside and National Labour Union has no rule against working with non-unionists, but prohibits it when sufficiently powerful (7). The rules of the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society and the Dublin Tally Clerks' Union prohibit members from working with non-members only if there are members present who are without employment (8). The Sunderland and North East Coast River, Dock, and Wharf Labour Union has no rule on the subject, but its practice is similar (9). The Dock, Wharf, Riverside and General Labourers' Union has no rule on the subject, and does not insist on the exclusive employment of unionists, but approves of it in principle (10). In the Liverpool Cotton and General Warehouse Porters' Society no question of excluding non-unionists from employment has ever arisen (11).

(g.) Objects.

(*g.*) These organisations have, of course, certain objects in common, such as the regulation of wages, hours, and other conditions of labour, and the promotion of the general interests of their members. Most of them have also special objects, in which they vary considerably (12). The Tyneside and National Labour Union proposes to regulate the relations between employers and employed, and to endeavour to arrange differences between them by amicable and conciliatory means (13). The National Union of Dock Labourers desires "to secure the legal recognition of the natural rights of labourers to the produce of their toil, and to foster a spirit of co-operative enterprise" (14). The Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union has for one of its objects "to abolish the system of sub-contract in the trades embraced by its membership;' and its principles are further stated as follows:—"It is the duty of trades unions to work unceasingly until the evils of industrial competition are removed by industrial co-operation. The first step towards this end is to join the workers in one industry in unions, and the next for the various organisations to affiliate together, in Trades Councils or otherwise, for the purposes of education in industrial economics, and for the elevation of the worker" (15). The South Side Labour Protection League was organised, as stated in the preamble to the rules, to form "an irresistible barrier to capitalist aggression, and a powerful instrument for raising the physical, moral, and social standing of the labourer." It is added that "in any dispute between employer and employed the position of this League should be that the workman is bound to be right, and the employer is bound to be wrong" (16).

(1) Tabulated Rules, No. 159. (2) Nos. 160, 158, 149. (3) No. 159. (4) No. 163. (5) Nos. 149, 156, 158, 159, 162. (6) No. 160. (7) Nos. 149, 159. (8) Nos. 149, 156, 158, 159, 160, 162, 163. (9) No. 149. (10) Nos. 159, 162. (11) No. 156. (12) No. 158.

(1) Tabulated Rules, No. 160. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. G. Monro, 12696. (3) Tabulated Rules, No. 160; Digest, Vol. I., p. 13 (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 23, 36. (6) Tabulated Rules, No. 158. (7) Tabulated Rules, No. 149; Digest, Vol. II. pp. 12, 13. (8) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 162, 163. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13, (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 14. (12) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 149, 156, 158, 159, 160, 162. (13) Tabulated Rules, No. 149. (14) Tabulated Rules, No. 158. (15) Tabulated Rules, No. 159. (16) Tabulated Rules, No. 160.

[§ 215 (g.)]

TABLE of Entrance Fees and Contributions paid to (Tabulated Rules, Nos.

Payment.	Tyneside and National Labour Union. No. 149.	Cardiff, Penarth, and Barry Coal Trimmers' Association. No. 156.	National Union of Dock Labourers. No. 158.
Entrance fee	2*s.* 6*d.* Sailors and firemen pay the same entrance fees that their union charges the members of this society.	2*s.* 6*d.*	5*s.*, or such other sum as the branch committee, subject to the approval of the executive, may fix.
Contribution	Ordinary members 4*d.* a week; honorary members not less than 2*s.* a year.	3*d.* a week.	3*d.* a week. An assessment on all members may be levied by the executive for any special object.

TABLE of Benefits granted by Associations of

Benefit.	Tyneside and National Labour Union. No. 149.	Cardiff, Penarth, and Barry Coal Trimmers' Association. No. 156.	National Union of Dock Labourers. No. 158.
Accident	6*s* a week for 13 weeks; 4*s.* a week for 13 weeks; 2*s.* 6*d.* a week for 26 weeks. After which time the benefit ceases for that illness.	12*s.* a week for 26 weeks; 6*s.* a week for remaining time of disablement.	Branches may advance money to assist any member to enforce his legal claims for compensation in case of accidents for which the employers are responsible.
Dispute	1. 8*s.* a week for 12 weeks; afterwards 6*s.* a week until the end of the dispute. 2. "Victimised" members 10*s.* a week for 8 weeks; 6s. a week for 8 weeks. 3. Legal assistance may be provided for members in matters connected with the society, if on inquiry the case is found to be justifiable.	-	The amount paid every week is determined by the executive.
Funeral	4*l.* on the death of a member; 2*l.* on the death of a first wife.	6*l.* in case of a fatal accident met with whilst engaged in the occupation of coal trimming.	2*l.*, if a member for 3 months; 4*l.*, if a member for 4 months; 6*l.*, if a member for 6 months. Branches may have their own sick or other bene fit funds.
Superannuation	-	-	-

Associations of Employed (Dock, Wharf, and Riverside Labour). [§ 215 (g.)]

149, 156, 158-60, 162-3.)

Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union. No. 159.	South Side Labour Protection League. No. 160.	Amalgamated Stevedores' Society. No. 162.	Dublin Grain Weighers' and Tally Clerks' Union. No. 163.
5*s.* 6*d.* for members over 18, and 2*s.* 9*d.* for members under 18.	Not less than 2*s.* 6*d.* except in the case of new branches, whose members may enter free. In branches composed exclusively of men employed in Government departments, who are not entitled to strike benefits, the minimum entrance fee is 1*s.*	2*l.* for members over 18 years of age; 1*l.* for members from 14 to 18; 2*s.* 6*d.* for members' sons from 14 to 18.	10*s.*
3*d.* a week for members over 18; 2*d.* a week for members under 18. The Executive Council may raise a levy from all members, in case of emergency, at 20*s.* for each member.	Not less than 2½*d.* a week for each member. Each branch or association must contribute to the central fund 6*d.* a quarter for each member. The funds must be maintained, if necessary, by levies at a minimum of 5*s.* a member.	2*d.* a week for members over 18; 1*d.* a week for members under 18. Quarterly payments are determined by the executive council, and branches may make levies when necessary.	2*d.* a week.

Employed (Dock, Wharf, and Riverside Labour).

Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union. No. 159.	South Side Labour Protection League. No. 160.	Amalgamated Stevedores' Society. No. 162.	Dublin Grain Weighers' and Tally Clerks' Union. No. 163.	Liverpool Cotton and General Warehouse Porters' Society. Digest II., p. 14.
- - - - - -	- - - -	If a member is incapacitated by an accident from following his employment for the rest of his life, a levy of 6*d.* per member is made for his benefit.	- - -	10*s.* a week.
Members over 18, 10*s.* a week, and members under 18, 5*s.* a week. Legal proceedings against employers for the recovery of wages may be taken by the Executive Council.	10*s.* a week -	- - - - - -	- - -	According to the condition of the trade fund.
- - - - - -	- - - -	Levies on each member are made on the death of a member. The amount of the levies varies in different branches. In some branches a levy is made on the death of a member's wife.	4*l.* - - -	20*l.* on death by accident; 10*l.* on death from natural causes.
- - - - -	- - -	- - - - - -	- - -	5*s.* a week for life after 15 years' membership.

[§ 216 (a.)]

SHIPPING. Organisations of Employers.

(a.) *History.*

216. (*a.*) The first instance of combination among shipowners was the Shipowners' Association of Great Britain, which was formed in the ports on the north-east coast in June 1889. An organisation on a national basis took its place in September 1890, on the formation of the Shipping Federation, Limited (1). This is a federation of companies and persons whose interests are closely connected with the shipping trade. About 25 associations, companies, and firms are affiliated with it, representing some seven million tons of shipping (2). The motive of its formation is stated to have been the necessity of resisting improper interference with the business of shipowners through the unreasonable demands and coercive tactics of the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union (3). The Federation has never professed to be opposed to "sound principles of trade unionism," or to seek to interfere with the rate of wages, or to exclude members of any union from employment (4). Registry offices were established by the Federation on its formation at all the principal ports, and registration tickets were issued to seamen desiring employment (5). These tickets, for which a charge of a shilling was made, entitled the holder to preference of employment, at the recognised port wages, with any shipowner affiliated with the Shipping Federation, and also to membership of the Amalgamated British Seamen's Protection Society, if desired, though members of any other seamen's union might avail themselves of it without prejudice. Registration was understood as a pledge that the holder of the ticket would proceed to sea in any vessel in which he signed articles, notwithstanding that other members of the crew might or might not be members of any seamen's union (6). It was thought at that time that if no charge were made for the ticket it would be useless for purposes of registration, but the Federation did not then refuse to employ men who were without tickets (7). The Federation ticket "aroused the bitter hostility of the Union leaders," who forbade the members to take it. So violent was the opposition to the registration system that "it was found necessary, in many instances," to sign crews on board ship instead of at the shipping offices, the approaches to which were, it is stated, beset by pickets. The United Labour Council of the Port of London issued a manifesto in December 1890 against this practice, and in favour of the exclusive employment of members of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union. After the unsuccessful strike which followed, the Federation required all seamen employed by its members to take the Federation ticket, and so pledge themselves to sail with unionists and non-unionists indifferently after having signed articles. The clause promising preference of employment only, was now withdrawn as meaningless. It was also felt that since the ticket was compulsory a charge should not be insisted on, and therefore a free paper ticket was issued to seamen who preferred not to pay. The charge for the parchment registration ticket was continued, and entitled the holder to the use of the reading rooms attached to the registry offices (8). It is thus incorrect to state, as has sometimes been done, that the preference clause was withdrawn from the ticket, and the charge abolished (9), since the paper ticket, which is alone compulsory, never had a preference clause, and was never charged for (10). This ticket is issued practically to all comers, including foreigners with British discharges and a knowledge of English. The parchment ticket is issued only to the better class of seamen, and on a stricter examination of discharges. "A brief but desperate resistance," it is stated, was offered by the Seamen's Union* to the Federation ticket, but its objection was at last withdrawn, and the Federation claimed to have "completely established freedom of contract" (11). One of the functions of the Federation is to supply labour to any district where it is required, especially during a strike, unless it is a strike on a question of wages, with which the Federation does not desire to interfere (12). Its policy, however, as stated by its representatives, is to displace local labour as little as possible, and to give work to the unemployed in each district, and especially to restrict the employment of foreigners in the British mercantile marine. Foreigners are not registered unless they can produce four years' discharges from British vessels, or can speak and understand English (13). In the opinion of some witnesses the Shipping Federation is an aggressive body, formed by a certain number of capitalists in order to cause dissension and trouble in the ranks of the various trade unions, or even to crush them altogether, and at the same time to reduce wages (1). The secretary of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union believes that the collapse of that organisation is the main object desired by the Shipping Federation, which he accuses of coercion and aggression (2). Members of this union regard the Federation ticket as a "badge of slavery" (3). It has been stated, moreover, that the Federation agents supply seamen to ships by illegal methods, since they are not, as the Merchant Shipping Act requires, in the constant employment of any individual owner. The Federation has also been accused of encouraging foreign labour, and giving preference of employment to non-unionists, while its individual members have, it is stated, engaged crews at reduced rates of wages, but each of these statements has been repeatedly contradicted by representatives of the Federation (4). Among the associations and companies affiliated to the Shipping Federation, are the Employers' Labour Association, Liverpool and Birkenhead, the Clyde Sailing Ship Owners' Association, and the Clyde Steamship Owners' Association, of which the rules all date from 1891 (5). The Employers' Labour Association, formed in 1890, includes master stevedores as well as shipowners, and its members employ both seamen and quay labourers. There are 32 employers or firms connected with the Association (6).

[§ 216 (a.)]

(*b.*) The form of government of the Shipping Federation is as follows. It is managed by an Executive Council, consisting of representatives elected annually by the members, in the proportion of one representative for every hundred thousand tons of shipping entered with the Company. The president and vice-president for the time being of the Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom are ex-officio members of the Executive Council. Questions arising at any meeting are decided by a majority of votes, the chairman having a casting vote. The Council may delegate any of their powers to a sub-committee or sub-committees. Ordinary general meetings of the Company are held annually, at which each member has one vote for every hundred thousand tons entered with the Company. The president is elected at the general meeting, and the general manager and secretary are appointed by the Executive Council. The Executive Council has power to define the districts of shipping centres and to appoint local district committees (7). The Employers' Labour Association and the Clyde Steamship Owners' Association are very similarly constituted, each having a general committee and sub-committees, and an annual general meeting. In the case of the former, the general committee consists of the shipowning members, and in the latter of the chairmen and members of the two sub-committees. In the Employers' Labour Association, each member has one vote only at the general meeting, but in the Clyde Steamship Owners' Association members have one vote for every 3*l.* subscribed, with a maximum of four votes (8). The Clyde Sailing Ship Owners' Association is managed by six directors elected by the members, each member having one vote for each ship entered, and there is an annual general meeting in which the decision of the majority is binding on all the members. There is a special section within the Association for the purpose of insurance against ownership risks, and this has a similar form of government (9).

(*b.*) *Constitution and government.*

(*c.*) The funds of these associations are maintained by contribution from the members in proportion to the tonnage entered by each. These contributions are levied from time to time when necessary. In the case of the Shipping Federation, the amount so levied in any one year must not exceed 1*s.* a ton for steamers, or 4*d.* a ton for sailing ships. In the other associations mentioned there is also a regular annual subscription, which in the Employers' Labour Association is 5*l.* 5*s.*, in the Clyde Sailing Ship Owners' Association 1*l.* 1*s.* per ship entered, and in the Clyde Steamship Owners' Association 1*l.* per 1000 tons upon the gross registered tonnage, with a minimum of 3*l.* and a maximum of 50*l.* a year (10).

(*c.*) *Contributions.*

(*d.*) The Shipping Federation has established a benefit fund for officers and seamen employed by the members, "in order to promote good feeling and accord between members and the seamen employed by them, and to encourage and assist steady and reliable men." The scale of allowance for loss of life or incapacitation through an accident occurring on board a Federation vessel, is as follows:—

(*d.*) *Benefit fund for Seamen.*

* In the evidence, and in this summary, the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union is frequently referred to as the Seamen's Union.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (4) G. A. Laws, 4928, Digest, Vol. II., pp. 27, 30. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (6) Appendix 11. (7) G. A. Laws, 5116. (8) Appendix 186. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. (11) Appendix 186. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 53; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 27, 30, (13) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 28, 50,

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 15, 26. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (3) Appendix 60. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 33, 37; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 46, 57; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 30, 41, 48, 50. (5) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 188, 190, 191. (6) No. 188. (7) No. 187. (8) Nos. 188, 191. (9) No. 190. (10) Nos. 187, 188, 190, 191.

	£.
Master	100
Chief Officer, Chief Engineer, Surgeon and Purser	75
Second Officer and Second Engineer	50
Other Executive Officers (on articles)	40
Petty Officers, Chief Stewards, &c.	35
Sailors, Firemen, and all other members of the crew	25
Asiatic Seamen	12 10*s.*

Or alternatively, the following allowance while incapacitated, for a period not exceeding 13 weeks:—

Master	40*s.* a week.
Chief Officer	30*s.* ,,
Second Officer, &c.	20*s.* ,,
Any other Executive Officer	16*s.* ,,
Petty Officers, &c.	14*s.* ,,
Sailors and Firemen	10*s.* ,,
Asiatic Seamen	5*s.* ,,

Or, alternatively, half the amount payable in each case. The benefit selected must be declared when application is made for the benefit certificate. Seamen do not contribute to this fund. They are entitled to participate in it, if they hold parchment Federation tickets, and can show six months' faithful service in Federation vessels. The benefit certificate contains the name and description of the holder, with a record of service, so that it is in the form of a continuous discharge, and serves as a means of identification (1).

(*e.*) The Employers' Labour Association, Liverpool and Birkenhead, alone among these organisations, has specific regulations with regard to labour disputes. In the event of strikes seeming imminent it undertakes to obtain an immediate supply of outside labour and to arrange accommodation and police protection, and to take such other steps as seem expedient. Members are forbidden to concede the demands of men on strike without first consulting the committee (2).

(*f.*) The objects of the Shipping Federation are to consider all questions affecting the interests of the shipping trade, and to take such action as may be necessary to promote such interests; to procure the improvement of existing laws and customs affecting shipping, and to prevent the enactment or establishment of laws and customs which are prejudicial to the trade: also to protect and indemnify the members against any loss arising in the management of their trade without their actual default (3). The objects of the affiliated organisations are very similar, but it is a special feature of the Shipping Federation that it undertakes to indemnify members for losses incurred in carrying out the general policy of the Federation and upholding the principle of absolute freedom of contract (4). The objects of the Employers' Labour Association have a still more explicit reference to labour questions. It was formed "to secure mutual support and co-operation in arranging terms with trade unions or counteracting unreasonable demands made by them"; to assist members in taking legal proceedings in furtherance of the objects of this rule, and to establish an office for the organisation and registration of labour (5).

217. (*a.*) Organisation among seamen is of older date than that among dock labourers, but until recently it was on the whole either unsuccessful or merely local. In 1851, when wages were very low (from 1*l.* 15*s.* to 2*l.* 5*s.* a month in foreign-going vessels), a union was formed which was called the Seamen's United Friendly Society. It became very powerful, and had branches in about 30 different ports, but was not sufficiently centralised. It met with considerable opposition from the shipowners, who, it is stated, opened free labour offices and issued tickets through which preference of employment was given to the holders. This policy resulted in the collapse of the union in 1859 or 1860. The condition of seamen, which had improved considerably between 1851 and 1855, deteriorated with the decline of the union, and still more after it had ceased to exist. Wages, it is stated, fell from 5*l.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* a month on ships bound to the Baltic, and from 4*l.* to 2*l.* 15*s.* on ships bound to the Mediterranean (6). In 1872 a union was formed called the British Seamen's Protection Society, which has had about 8,000 or 10,000 members, but has declined of late years (7). The last return it sent in to chief Registrar was in 1882, when the society's balance in hand was 4*l.* 7*s.* (8). Its members were nearly all absorbed by the "new unionism," but in 1891 it was still in existence, and had as its secretary the superintendent registrar of the Shipping Federation for the port of London (9).

The first issue of Federation tickets contained a clause stating that the fee for registration entitled the holder of the ticket to membership of this society (1). This apparent connection with shipowners has caused the British Seamen's Protection Society to be termed a "bogus union (2). In 1879 a union was formed which is still in existence, called the North of England Sailors' and Sea-going Firemen's Friendly Association (3). It was first established in Sunderland, which is still its head-quarters (4). Immediately on its formation the Union addressed a circular to a large number of shipowners in the ports on the north-east coast, asking for an increase of wages on board their vessels, from 30*s.* a week to 32*s.* 6*d.*, in consideration of the improvement in freights, and at the same time proposing a conference (5). The circular was ignored, and the Union then sent deputations to the shipowners, with no better result; but on the men threatening to strike, an advance of 1*s.* 6*d.* a week was offered and accepted. In other ports, however, such as London and Liverpool, wages remained low, with the result that men shipped in the north lost the advantage of their position through being discharged on their arrival in London. In 1880 the association numbered about 1,000 members, (6) chiefly men employed in the home and coasting trades, (7) and up to 1882 it made considerable progress, and formed branches in adjacent ports (8). In 1882, however, these branches began to collapse, and wages were then reduced, and preference of employment was given to foreigners. The reduction of wages was not attributed by the union to any lowering of freights, which, it is stated, were better at that time than in 1891, when wages were 30 per cent. higher. Between 1884 and 1886 there were not more than 200 members of the Union (9), and the total yearly contributions were only 80*l.* or 90*l.* (10). In 1885 the seamen, being dissatisfied with their position, mainly because large numbers were kept out of employment by the preference given to foreigners, again began to agitate. In 1886 an attempt was made to reorganise the North of England Society by issuing a privilege card, admitting members free of charge. The attitude of the union towards the owners was still conciliatory, and at the time the secretary invited about 400 shipowners to attend a conference on the subject of wages and the employment of foreign seamen. The invitation was not accepted, and some of the owners stated in reply that they could not give a rise of wages, or that they did not want dictation from agitators, and represented that the rate of wages depended, not on freights, but on the supply of labour. Wages were at that time about 1*l.* a month higher on the north-east coast than in ports elsewhere, owing, it is stated, to the influence of the North of England Union. Another attempt at organisation was made in 1886, by the formation of a union in London called the Vigilance Association, which had shipowners on the committee (11). About 1,000 members were enrolled, but the organisation only lasted about 18 months. A similar one at Shields collapsed after about three months, owing to dissensions between the shipowners and seamen on the committee (12). In 1887 a member of the North of England Union, Mr. J. H. Wilson, attempted to reorganise that society on a national basis, but meeting with opposition from the other members, he seceded from it and founded the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union (13). He then asked the North of England Union to amalgamate with the National Union, but the former refused (14). After a certain amount of friction and mutual defiance the two unions came to terms and federated, and worked harmoniously together (15). Since then the North of England Union has apparently become more prosperous. In 1891, there were 1,800 financial members, and perhaps 2,000 names on the books (16). It is stated that its relations with some of the largest firms of shipowners have been very satisfactory, and that the society has so conducted its affairs as to secure their respect and co-operation. There have been differences between the Union and the shipowners, but these have always been settled "without undue heat or temper on either side" (17). One particular firm in Sunderland always engage their men through the Union, and settle disputes by conference with the Union officials. The Union has spent about 400*l.* on strikes since its formation. These have been few and of short duration, and have always met with success (18). The secretary has obtained by negotiation a six hours' day for the firemen employed by a certain firm which owns 22 boats. In other cases the

(1) Appendix 186; Answers to Schedules of Questions, Appendix 7. (2) Tabulated Rules, No. 188. (3) Tabulated Rules, No. 187. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48. (5) Tabulated Rules, No. 188. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 39; W. P. Lind, 7644. (8) Appendix 68. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 39.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 47. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (6) J. H. Wilson, 9193. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 47. (8) J. H. Wilson, 9194. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (10) J. H. Wilson, 9197. (11) J. H. Wilson, 9225-7, 9808; Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (12) J. H. Wilson, 9232. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (14) Digest, Vol. I., p. 40. (15) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (16) Digest, Vol. I., p. 39. (17) Digest, Vol. II., p. 47; W. M. Roche, 14630. (18) Digest, Vol. I., p. 40.

[§ 217 (a.)] firemen have obtained an eight hours' day through the action of the Union, though the limit is practically exceeded (1). On the formation of the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, a circular was issued in its name to a number of shipowners, with the object of gaining their co-operation and sympathy. This circular, dated 20th September 1887, announced that the Union was prepared to supply men to all ships that might require them, and to guarantee their going on board at the proper time and in a fit condition for work, and also to pay compensation for any delay caused by members failing to join their ships. It appealed to the owners to assist the Union in endeavouring to provide a better class of men for the merchant service. The Union was not, however, very cordially met either by shipowners or seamen (2). Many sailors, it is stated, held aloof at first through doubts as to the *bonâ fide* nature of the movement, and the shipowners considered that the secretary was endeavouring by his speeches to foment troubles between them and their sailors at a time when the shipping trade was just emerging from a prolonged and disastrous period of depression (3). They therefore refused to co-operate with the Union in establishing the standard of wages desired by the latter (4). In November 1887, wages on the north-east coast rose from 2*l.* 5*s.*, 2*l.* 10*s.*, and 2*l.* 15*s.* a month, to 3*l.* 15*s.* for sailors, and 4*l.* for firemen, but there were always individual shipowners who would engage crews, if possible, at lower rates than those prevailing (5). The Union claimed the credit of the improvement in wages which took place at this time, but it has also been stated that it was simply the natural result of improved trade and the fuller employment of seamen. It is agreed, however, that the Union called attention very distinctly to the rise in freights, and showed the men that they were entitled to a share in it, and that in this respect its action was wise and advantageous (6). By the end of 1887, and before the Union had extended beyond Sunderland, about 200 members had been enrolled (7). In 1888, branches were formed in Glasgow, Liverpool, Cardiff, and Hull, and the membership rose rapidly to 7,000 or 8,000, partly through the belief entertained by large numbers of seamen that the rise in wages was being brought about by the Union (8). In 1889, branches were formed in about 45 ports, and the membership continued to increase rapidly. By the end of that year there were branches in every port in the United Kingdom (9). At the end of 1890, there were about 60,000 financial members, and in 1891, the total number of members enrolled reached 130,000, and there were 15 branches on the Continent (10). It was calculated at that time that almost the whole of the seamen in the mercantile marine had joined the National Union, though they were not all paying members (11). Up to 1889, the tactics of the Union were conciliatory, and "the bulk of shipowners" made no objection to it so long as its efforts were "confined to obtaining increase of pay, &c.," though it is also stated that its representations on the subject of provisions on board ship were treated "with very little courtesy" (12). The shipowners, in fact, tolerated the Union, though they were not disposed to countenance it in view of the attitude adopted by the secretary towards shipowners as a body (13). During these two years the Union frequently came into conflict with the owners, but no serious strike occurred (14). In 1889, however, as the Union increased in numbers, its demands, it is stated, became unreasonable and aggressive.(15) A circular which it issued in May 1889, stating the rate of wages which would be required after a certain date out of all ports in the United Kingdom, has been described as a clear attempt to dictate to the shipowners "without ever consulting them "(16). A rise of wages was granted by nearly all the shipowners at this time, the shipping trade being very good (17). The effect of endeavouring to force a further rise was that in Leith and Liverpool the movement was entirely unsuccessful, and the strikes which occurred were disastrous to the men (18). It is stated, however, that the Union was opposed to the Liverpool strike (19). In 1889 the National Union began to advance a demand for the exclusive employment of its members, and to endeavour to compel all seamen sailing from British ports to join it, by refusing to let its members sail with non-unionists (20). The shipping offices on the north-east coast were picketed by members of the union, and it is stated that non union men who attempted to enter were in many cases threatened and ill-used (21). The comment of one witness on this development of policy was that the National Union was only conciliatory so long as it was not sufficiently strong to be otherwise (1). Meanwhile organisation was in progress among the officers of the mercantile marine. In 1888 a union was formed, called the National Amalgamated Certificated Officers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland. The members became dissatisfied with the manner in which the society was conducted by the secretary, but according to the rules it was not open to them to discharge him. They therefore dissolved the Union in 1889, and formed another called the Certificated Officers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland, appointing the secretary of the National Union as honorary general manager (2). He formed four branches of the Union, namely, at Glasgow, Leith, Liverpool, and Hull, but resigned his post in the following year (3). The officers, it is stated, objected to the existing officers' Unions on the ground that they were controlled to some extent by shipowners, the Sunderland Shipmasters' and Officers' Union having five shipowners on the committee of management (4). On the formation of the Certificated Officers' Union, the National Seamen's Union took steps to compel masters and officers to join it. The method adopted was to prohibit members of the National Union from sailing in any ship where the master and officers refused to join the Officers' Union (5). "In this way," it is stated, "masters and officers were coerced into joining it," even if they were already members of other societies; otherwise their vessels under contract to charterers would be detained. In many cases the owners paid the Union fees for them rather than incur damages for breach of contract. The National Union also had arrangements with the Dockers' Union at several ports, providing that dockers, lightermen, and others should strike against vessels of which the officers or crew were "free" or non-union men (6). The shipowners were in most cases helpless under the "coercive tactics" of the Union. They could not break their obligations by detaining vessels pending a fight with the Union. The captains, whose only interest was to avoid detention of vessels, and unpleasantness among the crew, gave way in the great majority of cases to the demands of the Union, at the risk of proceedings by the men whom they were forced to discharge. Non-unionists, finding themselves at a disadvantage, were obliged to join this "apparently invincible" Union (7). The policy of the Union at this time has been described as entirely subversive of discipline. This opinion has been supported by the statement that Union officials have called out crews after they had signed articles (8). It is maintained, however, on the part of the Union, that nothing further has been done on any occasion than to prevent men from signing articles. In some cases, it is stated, the men themselves have refused to sail, but their action has not received the sanction of the Union (9). In any case, the position was one which the shipowners could no longer tolerate, and they proceeded to combine in order both to resist "improper interference with their business" and to establish and maintain the principle of absolute freedom of contract. Thus in September 1890 the Shipping Federation was formed (10). The effect, according to the account given by representatives of the Federation, was "almost magical." The attempt to "coerce" the officers into joining the Officers' Union "was abandoned after a very brief struggle." The claim for the exclusive employment of seamen of the National Union "was fought for more strenuously," but the failure of the strikes in Leith, London, Hull, Cardiff and elsewhere gave the death blow to this claim, and the Federation ticket, which is simply a free-labour pledge, "was soon firmly established, and almost universally adopted." Under these circumstances the membership of the Union, it is stated, "steadily dwindled and declined," though wages kept up and employment was good (11). The secretary of the Union, on the other hand, states that in addition to this policy of organisation the shipowners were, in the meantime, carrying out a plan of conspiracy against the Union, by importing men into it for the purpose of causing dissension, and discrediting both him and the Union in the eyes of seamen generally (12). The existence of any such conspiracy is, however, emphatically denied by the persons said to have been concerned in it (13). When the Shipping Federation was formed, the National Union, it is stated, regarded it with approbation, believing that it was only by strong combination on both sides that a more uniform system could be arrived at in the matter [§ 217 (a.)]

(1) H. Friend, 10427-34. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 47. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31, 32. (6) Digest. Vol. II., p. 47. (7) J. H. Wilson, 9240. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31; Digest, Vol. II. p. 47. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (10) J. H. Wilson, 9387. (11) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (12) J. H. Wilson, 9241; G. A. Laws, 4930; J. H. Wilson, 9247. (13) W. M. Roche, 14612. (14) J. H. Wilson, 9264. (15) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20; Digest, Vol. II., p. 47. (16) Digest. Vol. II. p. 32; J. Cormack, 11687. (17) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. (18) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 79, 80. (19) Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. (20) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (21) Digest, Vol. II., p. 47.

(1) J. Smith Park, 12822. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (3) J. H. Wilson, 9448. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (5) J. H. Wilson, 10345; Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (6) G. A. Laws, 4933. (7) W. M. Roche, 14617; Digest, Vol. II., p. 47. (8) Digest Vol. I., p. 20. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32; J. H. Wilson, 10369-70. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48; G. A. Laws, 4930; W. M. Roche, 14627-8. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (13) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 48, 49.

[§ 217 (a.)] of wages, provisions, &c., on which competition had a disadvantageous effect (1). The individual members of the Federation, however, adopted, it is stated, an aggressive attitude towards the Union, and the Federation shortly issued a ticket, and gave preference of employment to the holders, who pledged themselves by taking it to sail with unionists or non-unionists indifferently (2). Members of the Seamen's Union in many cases refused to take the ticket, believing that the main object of the Federation was to bring about the collapse of their organisation (3). The executive having ascertained that every branch of the Union objected to the ticket, instructed the members to refuse to take it or to sail with men who took it (4). The Union thus came into conflict with the Shipping Federation, and a series of strikes took place, of which the most serious were those in London, Cardiff, and Aberdeen, in 1890 and 1891 (5). There were others at Liverpool, Shields, Newcastle, Hull, Glasgow, and a number of other ports (6). It has been repeatedly stated that during these strikes, intimidation and violence were practised by members of the Seamen's Union; but on the other hand this is denied, and it is stated that there has been a great decrease in the violence and disturbance attending strikes since the formation of the Seamen's Union (7). The general result of the conflict was that, for reasons which have been variously represented, the Seamen's Union withdrew its objection to the Federation ticket, at least for the time being. The membership of the Union sank in 1891 from 60,000 to 40,000, and its financial position was much weakened by the strikes. At the end of 1890 it had a balance of 31,000*l.*, which in 1891 was reduced to 10,000*l.* Since its formation the Union has spent about 50,000*l.* on strikes, but it claims to have procured a total gain of 3,000,000*l.* in increased wages paid to seamen (8). The Union's view of the situation is thus presented in its annual report for 1890: "In 1887, when the Union first started, the wages in many ports were 3*l.* 5*s.* for sailors and 3*l.* 10*s.* for firemen. To-day, in the same ports, sailors are earning 4*l.* 10*s.*, and firemen 4*l.* 15*s.* to 5*l.* a month. . . . . In the weekly boats, in 1887, the highest wages paid to sailors and firemen were 28*s.* At the present time the highest wage paid is 32*s.* 8*d.* a week, and the lowest 28*s.*, giving a mean average of 30*s.* 4*d.* a week; but . . the lowest rate is paid in very few. Moreover, in addition to securing this substantial increase, the crews are now kept on pay, no matter how many days the vessel may lie in harbour" (9). It is maintained, on the other hand, by shipowners, that the increase of wages from 1887 to 1889 was due to economic causes quite independent of the Union, or at any rate that the Union was not the sole cause, since a gradual increase had, on the whole, been going on since 1883 (10). The Union perhaps increased wages in certain ports, or in certain individual cases (11). The Seamen's Union has endeavoured to secure the enforcement of the law as it affects seamen. In 1885 an attempt was made in this direction by forming an organisation for the sole purpose of providing legal protection for the members against individual shipowners, but it met with no support from the men, and considerable opposition from the shipowners, and was therefore abandoned. The Seamen's Union instituted a special legal department for the purpose of enforcing the pecuniary claims of members, conducting prosecutions for maltreatment by officers, and above all, calling the attention of the Board of Trade to infringements of the Merchant Shipping Act (12). The Union has frequently reported to the Board of Trade cases of unseaworthiness, over-loading, shipping of incompetent seamen on false discharges, and so forth (13). A large number of shipowners, it is stated, object more seriously to this than to any other part of the work of the Union, but it is contended that it has contributed to bring about the recent decrease in loss of life at sea. It is partly to ensure the employment of competent men that the Union claims exclusive employment for its members. A number of ships are lost, it is stated, entirely through the incompetency of the crews, and discharges are inadequate as a guarantee of ability. The Union therefore has a rule that every man who joins must show four years' sea service. It does not consider that under these conditions the policy of refusing, when possible, to ship with non-unionists, is a policy of aggression or tyranny (14). The Union is anxious to co-operate with the shipowners so far as they will allow it to do so. In 1891 the secretary issued a circular to the shipowners in the Tyne district, stating that he had established a call office in telephonic [§ 217 (a.)] communication with the shipowners' offices, where a number of men were stationed ready to sail at 20 minutes' notice. It was proposed to extend this scheme if it met with the approval and co-operation of the shipowners, but the latter practically refused to have anything to do with it(1). In short, it is complained that the claim of seamen to be regarded as skilled workmen, and to have their organisations dealt with on the same terms as have generally been secured by associations in skilled industries, has not been conceded by the employers, except partially and in some individual cases(2). The Hull Seamen and Marine Firemen's Association was formed under its present title in 1887. It has not worked very harmoniously with the National Seamen's Union, but they are now both federated with the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions. It is stated that the shipowners recognise this Union, and all disputes have been settled by conference. There have been no strikes in connection with it. It is stated that although wages have been raised by the action of the Union, the gain to the men has been in part merely nominal, since a crew is now discharged on arriving in port instead of remaining to work the ship. Since 1886, wages in Hull have risen from 26*s.* a week to 30*s.* 4*d.* and from 3*l.* 5*s.* a month to 4*l.* 10*s.* The Association has 1,000 members (3). In April 1890, the International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen was founded in opposition to the National Union, with the idea of co-operating with the shipowners. It is stated that it met with very little success, and that it never collected more than about 200*l.* (4). The statement that it was financed by shipowners, and had no *bonâ fide* members, was denied (5) The Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, established in 1890, is said to have been called into existence by the coercive policy of the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union, by which seamen were forcibly prevented from obtaining employment in Cardiff if they could not pay the Union entrance fee, which was 30*s.* or 35*s.*, and in certain cases 20*l.* (for foreigners who had not served more than a year on an English ship (6). The Cardiff Boarding Masters' Guarantee Association, after vainly endeavouring to obtain a reduction of the entrance fee from the local officers of the National Union, proceeded to form the Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, at the request of a number of seamen. This Union undertook to supply crews to ships and to send them on board sober and in proper time (7). It has received a number of testimonials from shipmasters as to its success in doing so (8). It is stated that the National Union has persisted in an aggressive attitude towards this organisation, and that members of the former have assaulted and intimidated members of the latter (9). This hostility ceased, however, after a time, when the men found that the Seamen and Tradesmen's Union was not "a bogus union got up by the shipowners in order to reduce wages." The Union has branches at Newport and Barry, and a membership of 83 tradesmen and about 5,000 seamen (10). The Federation of Trade and Labour Unions connected with the Shipping, Carrying, and other Industries, came into existence nominally in October 1890, and formally in January 1891 (11). It was a development from the United Labour Council, which was itself the outcome of the dock strike committee of 1889 (12). It was the formation of the Shipping Federation which suggested the idea that the various unions in the shipping trade should also federate in order to "withstand aggression" (13). In February 1891, the London shipping strike being in progress, the Federation first exercised its powers as such, by bringing out the members of four unions who were working in connection with the ships affected by the dispute (14). The Federation includes about 26 unions connected with shipping and one connected with railways. Its numbers rapidly increased during the first year of its existence (15). The National Independent Seamen and Firemen's Association, Liverpool, was formed in 1891, but no details have been furnished as to its history (16). The National Federation of Fishermen was established in its present form in 1890. It has conducted no strikes, but has obtained certain concessions by meeting the employers in conference (17). It is not a federation of unions, but simply a union composed of local branches, chiefly on the east coast. There are branches on the west

(1) Appendix 188. (2) Digest Vol. I., pp. 20, 33. (3) J. H. Wilson, 9321, 9721. (4) Digest Vol. I., p. 33. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 50, 51, 52. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 35. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 22, 28; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 30, 31, 33, 39, 40, 41; Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31, 32, 33. (9) Appendix 188. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31; G. A. Laws, 5062–5. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 34. (13) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 33, 34. (14) Digest, Vol. I., p. 34.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 35. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 36. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 42, 43. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 32, 42. (5) J. H. Wilson, 9295–7; Digest, Vol. II., p. 49. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31, 43. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 43; W. Graffunder, 10984. (8) W. Graffunder, 10963. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 43. (10) W. Graffunder, 10990. (11) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 36, 37; Tabulated Rules, No. 178. (12) C. Edwards, 8880; R. Cridge, 4096. (13) C. Edwards, 8744. (14) Digest, Vol. I., p. 37; C. Edwards, 8861–3. (15) Digest, Vol. I. p. 36; C. Edwards, 8852. (16) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48; Tabulated Rules No. 172. (17) R. Manton, 11219, 11225–6.

[§ 217 (a.)] coast, but these have never paid any contributions. There are about 5,000 members, employed mainly on board the North Sea fishing smacks, and also at the ports where the fish are landed. The non-unionists in the district number about 5,000 (1).

(b.) Constitution and government.

(b.) Of these organisations some are national and others local. The former resemble each other to some extent in their constitution. They comprise the International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, the Union of Shipmasters and Officers, the Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions, and the National Federation of Fishermen. These are all governed by an Executive Council or Committee of Management, consisting of a president, vice-president (one or more), a secretary, treasurer, and other officials, with a number of representatives varying from 12 to 20, or more, who are elected at the annual general meeting, in most cases by ballot. The only exception is the International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, in which the members of the Committee, here called a board of directors, are representative of the different districts. The National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, the Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, and the National Federation of Fishermen, have a Finance Committee for the management of the funds. The Union of Shipmasters and Officers has, besides the Executive Committee for the transaction of ordinary business, an Executive Council which is appointed by the annual meeting, and is, as far as possible, representative, and has full control over all officials and all administrative business. The National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union and the International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen are divided into districts, each managed by a Committee consisting of a chairman, a secretary, and delegates from the branches. Branches are governed by a chairman and other officials, with a Committee, except in the case of the International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, where the branches have only a chairman and a secretary. There is in each case an annual meeting consisting of delegates from the different districts or branches (or organisations in the case of the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions) in proportion to membership. Appeals may be made from the executive to the annual meeting, which also has sole power to make, amend, and rescind rules. The Federation of Trade and Labour Unions has also district councils, composed of delegates in the proportion of one for every 500 members, which meet once a month, or oftener if required (2). The local seamen's unions, namely, the Hull Seamen and Marine Firemen's Amalgamated Association, the National Independent Seamen and Firemen's Association, Liverpool, and the North of England Sailors and Seagoing Firemen's Friendly Association, are governed in each case by a Committee of Management, consisting of a president or chairman, a vice-chairman, secretary, and other officials, with a number of members varying from 12 to 20. The Hull Seamen and Firemen's Association holds an ordinary meeting of the society once a week, and the North of England Association twice a week. The former of these, and the National Independent Seamen and Firemen's Association, have an annual general meeting. Rules may be made, altered, or rescinded only at a general meeting (3).

(c.) Entrance fees and contributions.

(c.) The entrance fee for all these organisations is subject to alteration from time to time by the Executive Council, but is usually 2*s.* 6*d.*, except in the case of the National Federation of Fishermen, where it is 1*s.* The usual contribution is from 3*d.* to 6*d.* a week (see *infra*, Table of Entrance Fees and Contributions, pp. 178–9).

(d.) Benefits.

(d.) All these societies, except the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions, have benefit funds. The extent of benefit varies, but dispute and funeral benefits are granted by all. Accident or sick benefit is granted by all except the North of England Association and the International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, but these, in common with the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union and the Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, allow a small distress benefit for loss of clothes at sea. The National Sailors' and Firemen's Union and the Union of Shipmasters and Officers grant a superannuation benefit after 20 and 15 years' membership, respectively. (See *infra*, Tables of Benefits, pp. 178–9).

(e.) Dispute regulations.

(e.) All these organisations, except the Union of Shipmasters and Officers and the National Independent Seamen and Firemen's Association, have special regulations with regard to disputes between employers and employed. By the rules of the National Sailors' and Firemen's Union, a general strike cannot be proclaimed until the Executive has stated the circumstances to the branches, and obtained the consent of a majority of the members ashore at the time. In the North of England Association the only provision is that no member may take the place of a "victimised" member, on pain of expulsion from the society. All the other unions have a rule that disputes between members and their employers must be referred to the Executive Council or the District Committee, which must endeavour to effect an amicable settlement. In the case of three of these, the rule further provides that on the failure of other methods the Executive must offer to refer the dispute to arbitration or conciliation. The International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen only resorts to a strike "as an extreme measure," and with the sanction of a majority of the district and the approval of the board of directors. The Federation of Trade and Labour Unions has a rule that even in the case of a strike which the Executive has not sanctioned, no federated organisation may take the work of the men on strike. [§ 217 (e.)]

(f.) Regulations with regard to non-unionists.

(f.) Only the National Independent Seamen and Firemen's Association and the National Federation of Fishermen have rules as to the attitude of members towards non-unionists. The former enjoins on its members to proceed to sea in any vessel in which they sign articles, in accordance with the Merchant Shipping Act, "notwithstanding that other members of the crew may or may not be members of this or of any other seamen's organisation." The National Federation of Fishermen forbids its members to engage non-members to work for them.

(g.) Objects

(g.) The objects of these different organisations are somewhat various, but there are several which are common to most of them, such as, to obtain and maintain fair rates of wages and reasonable hours of labour, to afford legal and other assistance to members; to provide for the safety of ships and prevent loss of life at sea, and to provide a better class of men for the merchant service. The National Independent Seamen and Firemen's Association, the International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, and the Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, propose in addition to promote the settlement of disputes by arbitration or conciliation. Among the objects of the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union are the promotion of the Parliamentary representation of seamen; the assistance of members whose interests have suffered by reason of prominent services to the Union; and the establishment of homes for seamen. The National Independent Seamen and Firemen's Association has for one of its objects "to support freedom of contract;" the Union of Shipmasters and Officers has the special object of "protecting certificates," and the National Federation of Fishermen that of "improving the share system." The Federation of Trade and Labour Unions was formed to facilitate mutual assistance between unions in cases of dispute (1).

Riggers.

(a.) History

218. (a.) Associations of riggers hold a somewhat different position from those of seamen, since their employment is regarded as a skilled trade, but at the same time nearly all riggers are also seamen, though experience at sea is not a necessary part of a rigger's apprenticeship. The members of riggers' societies have special privileges with regard to transporting ships and going runs (2). The Loyal London United Riggers' Association, with which several others, at Glasgow, Greenock, Liverpool, and other places, are federated, was established in 1853 (3). In 1872 its members obtained an increase of pay and shorter hours "without any agitation worth calling a strike," and since then there has been no dispute, except an occasional difference with an individual employer as to a breach of the society's rules. In 1889, when the Sailors' and Firemen's Union became powerful, it began to be antagonistic to the Riggers' Unions, and, it is stated, endeavoured to debar their members from going to sea in accordance with their recognised privilege, unless they consented to join the Sailors' and Firemen's Union. Both on the Thames and on the Clyde riggers were sometimes compelled to join it in order to be able to do their work unmolested. Members of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union also, it is stated, showed antagonism by cutting down the prices for rigging work on purpose to get it into their own hands. Attempts on the part of the Riggers' Association to settle matters amicably were ignored by the rival union, but through the co-operation of the employers

(1) R. Manton, 11150–4; Digest, Vol. I., pp. 43, 44. (2) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 183. (3) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 171, 172 173.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 183. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 45, 46. (3) Tabulated Rules, No. 179.

[§ 218 (a.)] the former maintained its position. In 1890, the Riggers' Association was affiliated with the United Labour Council of the Port of London, but refused to obey the manifesto issued by the latter on December 5th, declaring a general strike against some of the principal shipping firms. The Association objected to any move which tended to strengthen the Seamen's Union in its demand that none but its own members should be shipped. Moreover, the delegate of the Riggers' Association on the United Labour Council reported that two of the delegates of the Seamen's Union had declared that they would efface any smaller unions which dictated to them. The Association therefore issued a counter manifesto, complaining of the treatment received by the riggers, and protesting against the proposed strike. After this the cause of complaint against the Seamen's Union to a great extent ceased (1). The Clyde Federated Ship Riggers' Association was formed in 1872, and is federated with the London society, and with all the principal ship riggers' associations in the United Kingdom (2). The Greenock Ship Riggers' Protective Association, formed in 1890, and the Liverpool Riggers' and Mariners' Trade Society, of which the rules date from 1891, are also federated with the London Riggers' Association (3).

(b.) Constitution and government.

(*b.*) The rules of these associations have been received. Each of them is governed by an executive consisting of a president, secretary, treasurer, three trustees, and a committee. In some cases there is also a vice-president and a minute secretary. In the case of the Liverpool Riggers' and Mariners' Trade Society, the president, secretary, and trustees form an Executive Council, with power to convene all special meetings. The Clyde Federated Ship Riggers' Association has a committee chosen from the Executive for the management of the "subsidiary fund." There is in each case a general meeting of the society, which is finally responsible for any alteration in the rules.

(c.) Entrance fee and contributions.

(*c.*) The entrance fee is from 5*s.* to 10*s.*, except in the case of the Clyde Federated Ship Riggers' Association, where it "varies from time to time." The usual contribution is 3*d.* a week (see *infra*, Table of Entrance Fees and Contributions, pp. 178–9).

(d.) Benefits.

(*d.*) Benefit funds exist only in the Loyal London United Riggers' Association, and the Clyde Federated Ship Riggers' Association. The former allows accident, dispute, and funeral benefit, the latter dispute and out-of-work benefit (see *infra*, Table of Benefits, pp. 178–9).

(e.) Dispute regulations.

(*e.*) These two associations have the same rule with regard to disputes, namely, that any member who has a dispute with an employer must give a written notice to the president or secretary, who summons the opposing party before the Committee. Appeal from the committee's decision may be made to a general meeting, when a majority of votes is binding on both sides. The chairman can order all members to cease work for the said employer until the dispute is settled. The Clyde Federated Ship Riggers' Association and the Greenock Ship Riggers' Protective Association have a further rule in common, that members who attempt to strike for a rise of wages without the sanction of the office-bearers and Committee, do so on their own responsibility. The Liverpool Riggers' and Mariners' Trade Society has a rule that if an employer victimises a member, or refuses to agree to the rules of the society, all members then working for him must leave work pending a settlement.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 45, 46. (2) Tabulated Rules, No. 180. (3) Tabulated Rules, No. 181; No. 182.

[§ 218 (f.)] (*f.*) Members of these associations are forbidden to work with non-members while members are available, but in the case of two unions, occasions of "sudden danger or calamity" are excepted from this rule. In each case there are regulations with regard to wages, hours, overtime, Sundays and holidays.

(f.) Other regulations.

(g.) Objects.

(*g.*) The objects of the Loyal London United Riggers' Association and of the Clyde Federated Ship Riggers' Association are "to protect the hours of labour, overtime, and meal hours, and to resist, by lawful combination, any infringement of the rules by the employer or other persons; to co-operate with other societies in maintaining the rights and privileges of the trade, and cultivating a friendly intercourse throughout the entire profession." The Greenock Protective Association substitutes for the first part of this statement the words, "to protect the interests of the operative portions of the profession against unjust innovations" (1).

Note.—With regard to the Shipping Federation and the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, a series of statements and counter-statements were made which it was not found convenient to embody in the text. With regard to the Shipping Federation, it was stated by the secretary of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union and others:- (1.) That members of the Federation have refused to ship union men, and that its officials have insisted on non-unionists being shipped instead of unionists (2). (2). That in 1889 the Federation encouraged certain persons to throw discredit on the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, and subsequently subscribed for their defence on a trial for libel (3). (3.) That the Federation had shipped incompetent men without discharges, and men who were not seamen at all (4). (4.) That during the strike at Cardiff in 1891, men were brought there by the Federation on false pretences (5). (5). That Federation agents had taken money from boarding masters for shipping men (6). (6.) That men had been kept out of employment by being refused a Federation ticket (7). (7.) That the Federation attempted to beat down wages. (8.) That the Federation had agents abroad for engaging foreign seamen. (9.) That the Federation had supplied their labourers with revolvers on the occasion of the "Wade's Arms" strike. (10.) That the Federation employed a "gang of ruffians" for the purpose of dealing with unionists (8). (11.) That it was the object of the Federation to break up the Seamen's Union (9). In contravention of these statements, it was stated by representatives of the Shipping Federation: (1.) That it was no part of the policy of the Federation to give preference to non-union men (10) (2.) That the Federation did not exist in 1889, and had nothing to do with the defence of the persons referred to (11). (3). That the Federation had introduced no incompetent seamen into the mercantile marine, and that Federation tickets were never given to people without discharges, except in the case of boys (12). (4.) That the fact of the Cardiff strike was widely known at the time that the men here referred to were engaged, and that they had all stated that they were willing to take employment anywhere (13). (5.) That Federation agents had never been known to take money in return for employment, and any official reasonably suspected of doing so would be instantly dismissed (14). (6). That the Federation officials give tickets to all applicants who can show the requisite sea service, and that in the instance quoted to the contrary the facts were incorrectly stated (15). (7.) That the Federation had never interfered with the current rates of wages (16). (8.) That the Federation had never had a single agent abroad. (9.) That the Federation officials had no knowledge of their labourers being armed. (10.) That the Federation had never employed or heard of any such persons (17). (11.) That the Federation was simply a defensive union (18) With regard to the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, it was stated by the Secretary of the Union: (1.) That officials and members of the Union had never assaulted non-unionist seamen, or interfered to prevent them from signing articles at shipping offices. (2). That the Union had never called out crews who had signed articles. (3.) That the Union had established call offices on the Tyne for the convenience of shipowners in engaging seamen (19). (4.) That the action of the Union had increased the wages of seamen (20). On the other hand it was stated:—(1.) That in a large number of cases officials and members of the Seamen's Union had been convicted for assaults on non-unionists, and that the shipping offices, *e.g.*, at South Shields, Cardiff, Glasgow, and in London, had been systematically blocked by unionists to an extent which rendered police assistance necessary (21). (2.) That the secretary of the Union himself, and other officials, had been convicted of calling out men who had signed articles (22). (3.) That no trace could be found of such offices as the secretary described, and that shipowners had no difficulty in obtaining seamen (23). (4.) That the rise in wages in 1889 was due to the improvement in the shipping trade, and not solely or mainly to the action of the Seamen's Union (24).

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 179, 180, 181, 182. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 36. (6) Digest Vol. I., p. 33. (7) J. H. Wilson, 9485. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 33, 37; C. Edwards, 8915. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 33. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48. (11) Digest. Vol. II., pp. 48, 49, 50. (12) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 26, 31, 51. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 28. (14) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 28, 41. (15) Digest, Vol. II., p. 29. (16) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 30, 41. (17) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. (18) Digest, Vol. II., p. 41. (19) Digest, Vol I., pp. 33, 35. (20) Digest, Vol I., p. 36. (21) Digest. Vol. II., pp. 28, 29, 30, 31, 40, 49. (22) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 31, 51. (23) Digest, Vol. II., p. 29. (24) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 31, 36, 47.

[§ 218 (g).]

TABLE of Entrance Fees and Contributions

Tabulated Rules,

—	Hull Seamen' and Marine Firemen's Amalgamated Association. No. 171.	National Independent Seamen's and Firemen's Association, Liverpool. No. 172.	North of England Sailors' and Seagoing Firemen's Friendly Association, Sunderland. No. 173.	International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, United Kingdom. No. 174.	National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, United Kingdom. No. 175.	Union of Shipmasters and Officers, United Kingdom. No. 176.
Entrance fee -	The entrance fee is fixed from time to time by the Committee; but messroom stewards, ordinary seamen, and lads coming out of their time, may pay a minimum entrance fee of 2s. 6d.	The entrance fee is 2s. 6d. for ordinary members; but members of existing societies may be admitted free at the discretion of the Committee. Persons over 16 years of age, who have not previously been to sea, may be admitted as associates on payment of 2s. as entrance fee.	2s. 6d., or such an amount as the Committee may decide from time to time.	2s. 6d., or such other sum as the directors determine. Paid-up members of existing societies may be admitted without entrance fees.	The entrance fee is fixed from time to time by the Executive Council. Engineers, stewards, ordinary seamen, and boys, pay not more than 2s. 6d. Foreign seamen, showing one and a half year's British and two and a half foreign service, or two years' British and two foreign, are enrolled on the same conditions as British seamen. Otherwise, in addition to the entrance fee, they pay from 10s. to 1l., according to the length of their service in a British ship.	2s. 6d., which may be varied at the discretion of the governing body of the Union. All certificated British and Irish shipmasters and officers, all foreigners with masters' certificates for five, or first mates' certificates for one and a half consecutive years in British ships, are eligible as members at a single entrance fee. There is a scale for an increased fee for shorter service. British and Irish and foreign members, liable to a single entrance fee, may be enrolled without payment, on the understanding that they will exert themselves to get a ship as soon as possible, and on getting it, pay the entrance fee and three months' subscription in advance.
Contribution -	5d. a week for ordinary members, and at least 10s. 6d. a year for honorary members. If the funds fall below 1l. a member, and in cases of emergency, the Committee, with the consent of two-thirds of the members present at a general meeting, may raise a general levy.	1s. a month for ordinary members and associates, and at least 10s. a year for honorary members. If the funds are ever found to be insufficient to meet the expenses, the managing Committee has power to declare a levy, and to raise the entrance fee or contributions.	4d. a week, or such other sum as the majority of members decide.	Each member pays a contribution of 1s. a month. Boys over 16 years of age, who are admitted as associates, pay a subscription of 2d. a week. The various districts contribute to the general fund at the rate of ½d. a week for each member within the district.	6d. a week in advance. Engineers, stewards, ordinary seamen, and boys, have the option of paying 3d. a week, which will entitle them to half benefits. Any person who subscribes 500l. a year can be enrolled as an honorary member by a vote of two-thirds of the members present at a branch meeting convened for the purpose. The contribution to the optional sick and burial fund is from 1s. to 1s. 4d. a month, according to age, and to the optional widows' and orphans' fund, ½d. a week.	6d. a week, varied at discretion by the governing body of the Union. The contribution to the optional sick and burial fund is from 4d. to 6d. a week, according to age.

TABLE of Benefits granted

Tabulated Rules,

Benefit.	Hull Seamen and Marine Firemen's Amalgamated Association. No. 171.	National Independent Seamen's and Firemen's Association, Liverpool. No. 172.	North of England Sailors' and Sea-going Firemen's Friendly Association, Sunderland. No. 173.	International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, United Kingdom. No. 174.	National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, United Kingdom. No. 175.
1. Accident - -	5s. a week for 26 weeks. In case of shipwreck, the Committee or general meeting determines the amount of compensation.	20s. a week for five weeks; 15s. a week for five weeks; 10s. a week for five weeks.	—	—	A sum not exceeding 20l., in weekly instalments of 10s., unless the Council sees fit to pay it in a different way.
2. Dispute - -	The Committee, or a meeting summoned for the purpose, determines the amount to be paid each week to members who are on strike, or victimised by the employers. Legal assistance may also be granted to members with a good claim or defence.	Legal assistance may be given when considered necessary by the Managing Committee or secretary.	Such sum will be paid as the Committee of Management may think the funds of the Association allow of.	Such sum is paid as the district Committee, with the approval of the board of directors, may determine. Legal assistance is provided for members when deemed necessary by the district committee.	12s. a week, or 2s. a day, and 1s. a week for each child under 12 years of age. Victimised members receive not more than 12s. a week till work is obtained, or a lump sum of 20l. Dispute benefit is not allowed if the funds in hand are lower than in the proportion of 2s. 6d. a member. Legal assistance can be granted by the branch Committee.
3. Distress - -	—	For loss of clothes at sea, compensation not exceeding 2l.	For loss of clothes at sea, members may receive compensation not exceeding 1l. 10s.	For loss of clothes at sea, members may receive compensation not exceeding 1l. 10s.	For loss of clothes at sea, 2l.
4. Funeral - -	6l. - - - - - -	2l. for members of one year's standing, and an additional 10s. for every year of membership.	3l., or 4l. 10s., in case of member's death through shipwreck.	After one year's membership, 1l. 10s., and an additional 10s. for each additional year, up to a maximum of 5l.	10l. on member's death, but 4l. if his wife dies first, and the remaining 6l. on his own death.
5. Out-of-work -	—	—	—	—	—
6. Sick - - -	—	—	—	—	10s. a week for 16 weeks; 5s. a week for 20 weeks; 2s. 6d. a week for any further period at the discretion of the branch Committee.
7. Superannuation	—	—	—	—	After 20 years' membership, if disabled, a sum not exceeding two-thirds of the payments the member has made to the Union.
8. Travelling -	—	—	—	—	—

[§ 218 (g.)]

paid to Associations of Employed (Shipping).

Nos. 171–83.

Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, United Kingdom. No. 177.	Federation of Trades and Labour Unions connected with the Shipping, Carrying, and other Industries. No. 178.	Loyal London United Riggers' Association. No. 179.	Clyde Federated Ship Riggers' Association, Glasgow Branch. No. 180.	Greenock Ship Riggers' Protective Association. No. 181.	Liverpool Riggers' and Mariners' Trade Society. No. 182.	National Federation of Fishermen, United Kingdom. No. 183.
Must not exceed 2*s.* 6*d.*	—	7*s.* 6*d.*, which may be raised or lowered by the Executive from time to time. The entrance fee to the accident and burial fund is 2*s.* 6*d.*	The entrance fee varies from time to time. All boys serving their time as riggers are members without payment of any entrance fee.	5*s.* Boys under 18 years of age are admitted free; from 18 to 21, they pay 1*s.* entrance fee.	10*s.* - - -	1*s.*, subject to alteration by the Executive Committee from time to time. For other than British born subjects the entrance fee is 5*l.*
Not more than 3*d.* a week, subject to alteration by the Executive Council. Honorary members subscribe 10*s.* 6*d.* a year. The contribution to the optional sick and burial fund is from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* a month, according to age.	Each organisation contributes ½*d.* a member at the commencement of each quarter.	3*d.* a week. If on the death of a member the funds do not amount to 10*l.*, a levy is raised on every member to raise the required amount.	3*d.* a week. Boys contribute for the first two years, ½*d.* a week; for the third and fourth, 1*d.* a week; for the fifth, 1½*d.* a week.	4*d.* a fortnight. Boys under 21 pay half contribution.	3*d.* a week - -	3*d.* a week. The contribution to the optional sick and burial fund is from 4*d.* to 5*d.* a week, according to age. Honorary members subscribe not less than 10*s.* 6*d.* a year. Levies may be made when the Executive thinks it expedient.

by Associations of Employed (Shipping).

Nos. 171–7, 179, 180, 183.

Union of Shipmasters and Officers, United Kingdom. No. 176.	Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, United Kingdom. No. 177.	Loyal London United Riggers' Association. No. 179.	Clyde Federated Ship Riggers' Association, Glasgow Branch. No. 180.	National Federation of Fishermen, United Kingdom. No. 183.
If totally disabled, 10*s.* a week, to be stopped as soon as the injury is seen to be temporary, but if permanent, to be continued up to 20*l.*	—	1*s.* a day, or 6*s.* a week for six working days, for not more than eight weeks from the date of the accident.	—	10*s.* a week for 10 weeks; 7*s.* 6*d.* a week for 10 weeks; 5*s.* a week for 10 weeks.
12*s.* a week, and 1*s.* a week for each child under 12 years of age. Victimised members receive 12*s.* a week till employed, or a lump sum of 20*l.*	12*s.* a week or 2*s.* a day, and 1*s.* a week for each child under 12 years of age. Victimised members receive not more than 12*s.* a week till work is regained, or a lump sum of 20*l.*, from which all previous weekly payments are deducted. No dispute benefit is granted if the funds are lower than in the proportion of 1*l.* a member. Legal assistance is granted at the discretion of the Executive Council.	Half time for all time lost until the settlement of the dispute.	Half time for all time lost until the settlement of the dispute.	Such sum is granted as is in accordance with the state of the funds, or as the Executive may determine. Victimised members receive not more than 1*l.* a week till they regain employment. Legal assistance is granted by the branch Committee subject to the approval of the Executive.
—	For loss of clothes at sea, a sum not exceeding 2*l.*	—	—	—
10*l.* on member's death, 5*l.* on death of his wife.	10*l.* on a member's death, but 4*l.* if his wife dies first, and the remaining 6*l.* on his own death.	5*l.* on the death of a member.	—	10*l.* at member's death, but 4*l.* if his wife dies first, and the remaining 6*l.* on his own death.
—	—	—	The books of members who are four weeks out of employment are cleared by the subsidiary fund. No other claim but the clearance of members' books can be granted unless there is 2*l.* in hand.	—
12*s.* 6*d.* a week for four months; 6*s.* 6*d.* a week for two months.	10*s.* a week for 16 weeks; 5*s.* a week for 20 weeks; 2*s.* 6*d.* a week for any further period at the discretion of the Committee.	—	—	The same as accident benefit.
After 15 years' membership, half the member's contribution, if disabled. After 20 years' membership, two-thirds of his contributions.	—	—	—	—
2*s.* a day for the first month; 1*s.* a day for the second month, to cease as soon as the member owes three months' contribution.	9*s.* a week for six weeks; 4*s.* a week for six weeks. The relief must be repaid as soon as work is obtained.	—	—	—

[§ 219.]

Joint Boards.

219. There are only two conspicuous instances of organisation of this kind in industries connected with shipping. These are the Southampton Free Labour Association and the Plymouth and District Free Labour Association, of similar constitution and method, and founded under similar circumstances.

(a.) The Southampton Free Labour Association, 1890.

(*a.*) The formation of the Southampton Free Labour Association immediately followed the dock strike of September 1890, by which the trade of that port was seriously menaced, though there was no adequate cause of dispute between the employers and employed. The employers proposed that an Association should be formed with the object of preventing the recurrence of a similar state of things. The proposal was warmly received by 1,000 or 1,200 workmen at a mass meeting of persons interested in the matter, held on the 20th of October 1890. The constitution and rules of the Free Labour Association were then settled and adopted. It was constituted as "an Association of workmen and employers in the port of Southampton, for their mutual benefit, and for maintaining and promoting the trade of the port." The members comprise 44 employers and firms, and up to January 1892 about 2,200 workmen had been enrolled, that is, practically the whole number of employers and employed connected with the unskilled waterside industries of Southampton belong to the Association. The Association is divided into two sections, the employers' section and the workmen's section. Each has its separate committee, and is represented on the Council. The workmen's section is divided into sub-sections according to the different branches of labour employed by the Dock Company, the wharf owners, and the steamship companies. Each of these sub-sections elects, at a separate meeting, a representative on the workmen's committee, and this election is free from any control or suggestion by the employers. The workmen's committee meets regularly for the conduct of business, usually once a month, and no employer or employer's representative attends any such meeting except by a special request from that committee. Any sub-section can use the office of the Association for a private meeting at any time, without interference on the part of the employers. The employers' committee is called whenever it is found necessary. The Council consists of 20 members, in equal numbers of workmen and employers. The workmen's representatives are nominated at the sub-sectional meetings, but all members are elected at the annual general meeting of the Association. The manner in which the Association acts is as follows: A body of workmen having a grievance for which their employer does not give them a satisfactory remedy, would instruct their representative on the workmen's committee to bring the matter before the next committee meeting for discussion. If the complaint is considered a legitimate one, the question is again brought before the employer in the name of the workmen's committee. Failing a satisfactory settlement, the workmen's committee is entitled to ask for a joint conference with the employers' committee in order to discuss the matter from both points of view, and arrive at a decision. In case the committees do not agree, a final court of appeal is provided in the Council, which is a sort of second chamber. The Association in this way acts as a board of arbitration for the settlement of disputes, but its decisions are not legally binding. The first object of the Association is to secure freedom of agreement between workmen and employers, and also freedom of communication between them without the intervention of outsiders, for the mutual consideration and settlement of all differences which may arise. The advantages of such an Association, it is pointed out, are that the interests of individuals are protected by the whole body of their fellow-workmen, and at the same time any measure which an individual may advocate is thoroughly considered by intelligent persons before any action is taken. Workmen and employers deal directly with each other, and the workmen's representatives on the committee and council are selected from those who have actual experience of the conditions of labour in each department. Again, when a question is placed before an employer by these representatives, the decision does not depend on his opinion alone, but is considered by a body of employers engaged in various though similar classes of trade. The Association provides an easy means of bringing workmen and employers together to discuss differences calmly instead of entering on a disastrous strike. The Association has, it is stated, already been very useful in promoting harmony and adjusting small matters, and has established its position as affording a means of communication between masters and men, and so tending to prevent strikes. It encourages a feeling of the real community of interest between employers and employed, and therefore both parties, it is stated, prefer it to the Union. There was at first an idea among some of the men that the Association might be used to reduce wages, but when the subject was introduced at a joint committee meeting, the employers disclaimed any such intention, and the idea was at once dispelled (1). A witness representing the Dock Labourers' Union denies, however, that the workmen place any great confidence in the Free Labour Association, and states that they "dare not speak out" at its meetings, and that they are in harmony with the employers only because they have been defeated and have no alternative. It is stated that membership of the Association is a condition of employment at the Southampton Docks, but this is denied by the honorary secretary of the Association (2). It is part of the work of the Association to act as a labour registry. It keeps a list of men unemployed, stating the kind of work required, and circulates it among employers. It has also established an accident fund, a sick fund, and a savings bank. The accident fund is primarily for the benefit of the casual labourer, who is "nobody's man," having no permanent employer to take an interest in him. Members while in work pay a penny a week, which insures them for that week, and in case of accident they receive 10*s.* a week for total disablement, and 5*s.* a week for partial disablement for 10 weeks. In a case of fatal accident the member's family receives 8*l.* The employers have a guarantee fund of about 1,000*l.*, in case the subscriptions should not meet the claims. The fund is administered by a committee consisting of three workmen and three employers, elected annually from the Joint Committee of the Association. The sick fund applies only to sea-going members, who are unable to keep up their subscriptions to the ordinary benefit societies. A subscription of 2*d.* a week secures a benefit of 10*s.* a week for 10 weeks during sickness on shore, and 5*s.* a week for a further period of 10 weeks. The savings bank is in connection with the Post Office, and receives deposits of 1*d.* and upwards, up to 5*l.* (3)

[§ 219 (*a.*)]

(b.) The Plymouth and District Free Labour Association, 1890.

(*b.*) The Plymouth and District Free Labour Association was formed after the strike which took place in the house-coal trade of that port in October 1890. It is an organisation of employers and employed, primarily for the settlement of disputes, and its constitution is almost precisely the same as that of the Southampton Free Labour Association. It has separate committees and a joint council. Disputes have frequently been referred to the council, but the only serious question before it has been that of the division of the work. Membership is open to everyone whose character is thought satisfactory, and preference of employment is given to those who hold a free-labour ticket. It is a rule of the Association that members shall work indifferently with unionists and non-unionists. The effect of the formation of the Association has been, it is stated, a material diminution in the amount of support given to the unions which exist in Plymouth (4).

(c.) Other joint boards.

(*c.*) In connection with the Cardiff, Penarth, and Barry Coal Trimmers' Association there is a "disputes committee" which acts as a board of conciliation. It consists of one colliery proprietor, one shipowner, and one trimmer, or representative of the trimmers. This body is said to have acted successfully in the settlement of disputes (5). At Hull there is a board of conciliation composed of an equal number of employers and of men representing the different unions, with an umpire whose decision is final. Up to February 1892 no dispute had yet been submitted to it. There is a similar board of conciliation in connection with the Leeds Trades and Labour Council, which represents all the trades of the district (6). An instance was mentioned of the entire failure of a scheme of joint organisation similar to that which has succeeded at Southampton and Plymouth. In August 1890 a Committee of the Cardiff Chamber of Commerce was formed with a view to establishing a board of conciliation which should remedy the "great disorganisation" at that time existing in trade. The scheme had been very carefully thought out by the dock owners, and handed to the workmen for their consideration. An Association was to have been formed, called the Bristol Channel Docks Association of Employers and Workmen, whose members were to nominate a joint committee equally representative of employers and employed, which should act as a referee on questions of forms of contract, wages, and general conditions of work. This scheme was accepted by the Cardiff Chamber of Commerce, but was frustrated by the refusal of the Trades Council of Cardiff as the representative of the

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 15, 98, 99; Appendix 76. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 17, 18. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 16; Appendix 77. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 18, 19, 99. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 21, 97. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 14, 16.

[§ 219 (c.)] trade unions of the district, to take any part in the formation of a board of conciliation on which non-unionists were to be represented. Since the aim of the promoters was to form a body which should be thoroughly representative of every class of labour which was then in a state of disturbance, the idea of excluding any section could not be entertained, and the attempt was abandoned (1).

RIVERS AND CANALS. Organisations of Employers. (a.) History and Extent.

220. (*a.*) The Association of Master Lightermen and Barge Owners, River Thames, was registered under the Trade Union Acts in 1890 (2). Its members number about 120, representing 97 firms. 4,600 barges, and 50 or 60 steam tugs are owned by members of the Association (3). They employ about 4,000 men and apprentices licensed under the Watermen and Lightermen's Act, exclusive of watchmen and labourers (4). As an instance of the combined action of the Association it was stated that on the occasion of a strike of watermen and lightermen in 1889, which affected only one firm, the whole of the firms belonging to the Association came forward and did the work of the firm that was threatened (5).

(b.) Constitution and Government.

(*b.*) The Association is managed by a general committee called the Council, which consists of 20 or 30 members of the Association, who are elected at the annual general meeting. The Council is intended to represent as far as possible the various branches of the lighterage trade. A president and three vice-presidents are elected annually from the members of the Council at the general meeting. There are also a treasurer, a secretary, two auditors, and two trustees. All questions before the Council are decided by vote, the chairman having a casting vote. The Council may appoint special committees, with power to appoint sub-committees from their number. At a general meeting each firm, company, or individual has one vote only.

(c.) Entrance Fees and Contributions.

(*c.*) Members pay an entrance-fee of 1*l.* 1*s.*, and an annual subscription of 2*s.* 6*d.* for each barge, with a maximum of 21*l.*, and a minimum of 1*l.* 1*s.* for the year.

(d.) Objects.

(*d.*) The objects of the Association are to protect the general interests of the master lightermen and barge and tug owners of the Port of London; to consider and deal with, for the benefit of members, all questions relating to lighterage, demurrage, rates and charges, wages of workmen, and all other matters of interest to the trade; to establish a central place of meeting for business purposes; to arbitrate, when requested by both sides, upon any question between any members of the Association, or between any member of the Association, his workmen, and others; and to regulate the relations between masters and workmen (6).

Organisation of Employed.

(a.) History.

221. (*a.*) No evidence was given as to the existence of any organisation of watermen and lightermen before the year 1870. A society then existed called the Thames Working Lightermen and Watermen's Protection Society, which in that year presented a petition against the transfer of the powers of the Watermen's Company to the Thames Conservancy. In 1871 the Society made an unsuccessful attempt to promote legislation for the purpose of altering the constitution and mode of election of the Court of the Watermen's Company (7). After that date nothing more is stated with regard to this Society, but by 1888 at the latest there was a new organisation under the same secretary, called the Amalgamated Society of Thames Watermen and Lightermen. The action of this society has, it is stated, been chiefly in the direction of enforcing the existing laws and regulations affecting the navigation of the river (8). According to the statement of the secretary, the expense incurred in the year 1890 in prosecuting under the Thames Acts was at least 1,000*l.*, but another witness alleged that the Society's balance sheet showed the amount to be considerably less (9). During the dock strike of 1889 the lightermen were necessarily thrown out of employment (10). When it was over they returned to work on the terms of Lord Brassey's award, which was accepted by the official representatives of the employers and the Union; but disputes have since occurred in which each side has accused the other of violating the terms of the award (11). The Society has 6,000 members, of whom 5,500 are subscribers, while the rest are "non-financial." They are all either watermen, or lightermen, duly licensed by the Watermen's Company, or apprentices, of whom there is a large number (12). The total number of licensed watermen and lightermen on the Thames is stated to be about 8,000 (13), excluding apprentices, who are said to number 1,493 (14). Immediately after the lightermen's strike in 1889, the Amalgamated Society of Foremen Lightermen of the River Thames was [§ 221 (a.)] formed. It was due to the action of the members of the Amalgamated Society of Thames Watermen and Lightermen, who objected to working under foremen who did not belong to their union. The foremen were not disposed to join it, and therefore formed a society of their own. It contains nearly 300 members, or very nearly the whole of the men employed in the business (1). In the same year was formed the Amalgamated Tug Boat and Ferrymen's Union, whose members are chiefly what are called deep-sea tugmen, employed in towing ships in the Channel. A year after its formation, the Union obtained by negotiation an increase of wages varying from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* a week, according to the different scales of payment. At first, it is stated, the relations of the society with the employers were very friendly, but after about a year and a half the tug owners on the Thames began to oppose it, and "in some cases they have intimidated the men not to belong to the society," and have employed non-unionists in preference. The society itself has never had any collision with the employers nor conducted a strike. It has never had any dispute on the subject of working with non-unionists. The society has 570 members in London. The total number of deep-sea tugmen on the Thames is stated to be about 740. There are small branches of the Union in Liverpool and other ports (2). The Thames Steamship Workers' Union was also formed in 1889. It is federated with the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions. It consists of three branches, with a total membership of 800 or 900, composed of men who load and discharge steamers in the coasting trade. They are not dock labourers, but work on ships which load and discharge by means of barges (3). Another association affiliated with the Federction of Trade and Labour Unions, is the Non-Freemen of the River Thames, Wharf, Dock, and Canal Boatmen's Labour Protection Society. The date of its establishment is not stated, but its present rules were registered in 1892 (4). The number of members is said to be 854, and, according to one witness, it includes very nearly the whole number of non-freemen, but another estimated the latter at about 3,000 (5). There is also a society called the Amalgamated Society of Engine Drivers and Firemen, which consists of about 700 members, chiefly employed on steamboats on the Thames. No details of its history or constitution have been given (6). In 1889, several associations of watermen and lightermen were formed on the Mersey and the Medway. The Mersey Flatmen's Association was founded in March 1889, and registered in 1891. It obtained advances of wages in 1890 and 1891, after very slight stoppages (7). It is stated that disputes were frequent before its formation (8). It has five branches, two at Liverpool, one at Birkenhead, one at Widnes, and one at Sankey Bridge. The number of members is about 1,100, including captains, mates, and boys over 14 years of age. There are, it is stated, not more than 100 non-unionists in the district. The great majority of the men belong to this or to some other union (9). The Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association, also founded in 1889, has its headquarters at Runcorn. There are branches at Liverpool and Burscough Bridge, and two in Manchester. It includes men working on the Bridgwater, the Rochdale, the Leeds and Liverpool, and the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Canals, and on the Mersey between Liverpool and Warrington. The number of members is 1,035, that is, more than half the number of watermen in the districts covered by the association. There are no non-unionists in the district (10). The Burscough branch was founded in February 1892, and three-fourths of the boatmen in the district were enrolled in it within a month. The branch has applied to the employers for a reduction of hours, but without success (11). The Association has never attempted to enforce any of its demands by strikes (12). The employers have refused to meet the officials of the union (13). The United Bargemen and Watermen's Protection Society (River Medway) was established in October 1889. The first movement of the union was a strike in March 1890, in the brick manufacturing districts, by which a 10 per cent. rise of wages all round was gained. The majority of the brick manufacturers are decidedly hostile to the union, and have done all they could to break it up. The Brickmasters' Association "totally ignores" the

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 30, 42, 100; J. Heron Wilson, 11548. (2) Tabulated Rules, No. 189. (3) A. A. Frey, 16733-5. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 414, p. 141. (5) A. A. Frey, 16753-6, (6) Tabulated Rules, No. 189. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56. (8) R. R. Fairbairn, 8038; Digest Vol. I., p. 29. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p 56. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (11) R. R. Fairbairn, 7521; A. A. Frey, 16749. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29. (13) R. R. Fairbairn, 7897. (14) Digest, Vol II., p 56.

(1) H. Juett, 16873-9. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 11, G. Donaldson, 17028. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. (4) Tabulated Rules, No. 185. (5) A. Juett, 16990-5; R. R. Fairbairn, 7498. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 366, p. 57. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63; Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 366, p. 21. (10) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 56, 61. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. (12) Digest II., p. 56. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 61.

[§ 221 (a.)] society, and will not meet its officials. On the whole, however, it is stated that since its formation "the position of the men with the firms" has improved. In the cement manufacturing districts on the Medway, the union has, it is stated, brought the men "an advantage of 15 or 20 per cent." The cement manufacturers in 1890 met representatives of the men on a committee, which, however, afterwards fell through. The society has about 800 members. In 1890 more than two-thirds of the men engaged in the industry belonged to it, but the number decreased considerably during the year 1891–92, partly through pressure brought to bear by the employers, partly through the apathy of the men themselves, who drop out of the union in order to share in the advantages gained by combination without paying for them. The districts included in the society are from Tonbridge to Faversham, in Kent, and from Vange to Burnham, in Essex (1). Before the formation of the present organisations in the Humber district, there was a union called the Lightermen and Watermen's Protection Society, which existed from 1872 to 1885. The wages earned by its members were very fair till 1885, when the society was changed into a sick club, and shortly collapsed. Wages then went down, and remained low, the men being wholly disorganised, until 1890, when the Society of the Lightermen and Watermen of the River Humber was formed. A revised scale of wages was then sent in to the lighter owners, who sent back an amended version which the Society could not accept. The subject was then discussed by a joint deputation, and an amicable understanding was reached, but the owners did not abide by it. A strike then took place which was settled by arbitration. In the same year the Society sent in a revised scale of wages to the manager of the Trent Navigation Company, with an offer to send a deputation to discuss it, which in this case was refused. The result was a lock-out of the men employed by the Trent Navigation Company, of whom about 80 belonged to the Union. After 17 weeks, the company came to terms, and the men's condition improved. The lock-out cost the Union all it had(2). The Union has occasionally approached the employers with requests for safety appliances and other improvements in accommodation on board the lighters, but without success (3). This society is federated with the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions. It is stated that there are probably not a dozen lightermen in Hull who do not belong to it, or to the Dockers' Union. The numbers belonging to these two unions respectively are stated by one witness as 500 and 300, but another states that 300 or 400 out of 1,000 men belong to the Lightermen's Society, and the remainder to the Dockers' Union (4). The number of non-unionists in the Humber district generally is said to be 600 or 700 (5). There is also a society called the Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Humber, whose members, it is stated, number 1,000 or 1,100, but no details have been furnished with regard to it (6). The Watermen and Riverside Labourers' Union, in the Leeds district, was formed in 1890. It has conducted one strike, on a demand for increased wages. There was no disturbance during the dispute, and after a fortnight the masters agreed to make the concession required. The effect was, however, that many members who were unused to organisation left the Society, because they had not obtained all that they expected, but it is hoped that they will come back. On other occasions the advance asked for by the Union has been conceded without a strike. The Union has about 120 members, who are employed as watermen and general labourers on the Leeds and Liverpool, and the Aire and Calder Canals (7).

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 58, 59; J. Tookey, 13915-6. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 57, 60. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 60. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 56, 60. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 361, p. 21. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 60. (7) J. W. Noble, 17090–104.

[§ 221 (a.)] The Weaver Watermen's Association has its headquarters at Winsford, in Cheshire. Its members are employed in navigating steam barges, or in taking charge of barges towed by steam (1).

(b.) Constitution and government.

(*b.*) Of these organisations, only three have supplied copies of their rules: the Mersey Flatmen's Association, the Thames Non-Freemen's Labour Protection Society, and the Thames Steamship Workers' Union. Each of these is governed by an executive council or committee consisting wholly or in part of delegates from each branch (2). In the case of the two former societies, this council includes in addition, a president, who has a casting vote, a vice-president, two secretaries, and a treasurer, with trustees and auditors (3). In the case of the Thames Steamship Workers' Union, each branch sends five members, including a chairman and secretary, to the executive council, who then appoint a general chairman and secretary from their number (4). In the case of the Mersey Flatmen's Association and the Non-Freemen's Society, the supreme authority is vested in a general meeting, which has sole power to make or rescind rules. Branches are governed by a body of officials similar to those of the central organisation (5).

(c.) Entrance fees and contributions.

(*c.*) In each of these three societies the entrance fee is 1*l.*, and the contribution 3*d.* a week. (See *infra*, Table of Entrance Fees and Contributions.) Members who are a given number of weeks in arrears are fined, or suspended from benefit, or both, and if payment is not made within a further stipulated period they are expelled.

(d.) Benefits.

(*d.*) The Non-Freemen's Society grants dispute and funeral benefit to its members, while the Mersey Flatmen's Association grants dispute benefit only, and the Thames Steamship Workers' Union funeral benefit only. (See *infra*, Table of Benefits, page 183.)

(e.) Dispute regulations.

(*e.*) In the case of the two former there are special regulations affecting disputes between employers and employed (6). It is provided in the Mersey Flatmen's Association that members must take no steps in such a case without the consent of the general secretary or Executive Council (7). The Non-Freemen's Society has a rule by which the branch affected appoints a dispute committee to lay the matter before the Executive Council, who refer it to arbitration. The society endeavours to form boards of arbitration for this purpose (8).

(f.) Regulations with regard to non-unionists.

(*f.*) In some cases there are rules with regard to the attitude of members towards non-unionists. Members of the Mersey Flatmen's Association are forbidden to lend their cards of membership to non-unionists, under penalty of expulsion for the second offence (9). The Society of Lightermen and Watermen of the River Humber forbids its members to work with non-unionists, and the Thames Steamship Workers' Union has a rule to the same effect, with the qualification, "if unionists are available" (10). The Amalgamated Tug Boat and Ferrymen's Union and the United Bargemen and Watermen's Protection Society allow their members to work with non-unionists, and the latter has a rule against coercive methods of bringing in members (11).

(g.) Objects

(*g.*) The objects of these societies, so far as they are stated, are for the most part simply the regulation of wages and conditions of labour. The Mersey Flatmen's Association desires "to promote a good understanding" between employers and employed (12). The Amalgamated Society of Thames Watermen and Lightermen was established for the express purpose of securing a more adequate test of competency for watermen and lightermen, and with this object it recommends the reconstitution of the Watermen's Company (13).

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63. (2) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 184, 185, 186. (3) Nos. 184, 185. (4) No. 186. (5) Nos. 184, 185. (6) Nos. 184, 185, 186. (7) No. 184. (8) No. 185. (9) No. 184. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56; Tabulated Rules, No. 186. (11) G. Donaldson, 17028; Digest, Vol. II., p. 58. (12) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 184, 185, 186. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 29; R. R. Fairbairn, 7482.

TABLE of Entrance Fees and Contributions paid to Associations of Employed (Rivers and Canals.)

	Tabulated Rules, Nos. 184, 185, 186.		
	Mersey Flatmen's Association.	Non-Freemen of the River Thames, Wharf, Dock, and Canal Boatmen's Labour Protection Society.	Thames Steamship Workers' Labour Protection League.
Entrance fee - - -	1*l.*, subject to alteration by the Executive Council.	1*l.*, subject to alteration by the Executive.	1*l.*
Contribution - - -	3*d.* a week. Levies may be made on all members when the Executive deems it necessary.	2*d.* a week and 3*d.* a quarter. A levy is raised by the Executive every quarter to pay funeral benefits, and a levy is also made in case of strikes.	3*d.* a week. There is a levy of 6*d.* on a member's death.

TABLE of Benefits granted by Associations of Employed. (Rivers and Canals.) [§ 221 (g.)]

Benefit.	Tabulated Rules, Nos. 184, 185, 186.		
	Mersey Flatmen's Association.	Non-Freemen of the River Thames, Wharf, Dock, and Canal Boatmen's Labour Protection Society.	Thames Steamship Workers' Labour Protection League.
Dispute	Members receive the full support of the Association. Victimised members are supported according to the decision of the Executive Council.	10*s.* a week; if sanctioned by the Executive, the amount is increased by levy. Victimised members receive compensation as the Executive thinks fit.	10*l.* on a member's death.
Funeral	——	10*l.* on member's death, and 5*l.* on the death of his wife. Members are not allowed funeral claims for more than two wives, and the second wife must be registered.	——

2. CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION.

Conciliation.

222. With regard to the general question of the efficacy of joint committees or boards of conciliation as a means of settling disputes, a great variety of opinions have been expressed, but on the whole it may be said that representatives of the employed are in favour of such a method, while the majority of employers state that they prefer direct and informal negotiation between the actual parties to a dispute, rather than any prearranged machinery of decision (1). One of the latter, however, the manager of the Millwall Docks, approved of conciliation boards on the lines of those which already exist in the north of England (2), and an employer of dock labour at Plymouth also approved of conciliation if introduced at an early stage of the dispute (3). The choice of representatives of the employed on a conciliation board is a matter of controversy. Witnesses representing trade unions maintain the right of unionist workmen to conduct negotiations with their employers through the officials of their society, and the Hull conciliation board is formed on this principle. Some recommend in addition that the employers should be organised, and should negotiate only through official representatives. On the other hand objections are made to official representation of either side, and several witnesses, both employers and employed, insist very strongly, for practical reasons, that the men actually employed in the work in question are the only suitable persons to discuss its conditions with the employers. The latter, it is stated, prefer in most cases to "meet the men themselves," irrespectively of the union. It appears, however, that the experience of different witnesses has varied considerably with regard to the adaptability of trade organisations to purposes of negotiation. A further question arises from the alleged difficulty of securing compliance with the decisions of a board (4). It is proposed by one witness to meet this difficulty by the institution of boards of conciliation with legal powers to adjudicate finally on rates of wages or any other question in dispute (5). In the opinion of another witness a board of conciliation established by Act of Parliament should have no power to give judgment between the disputants, but should direct its attention mainly to eliciting a true statement of the facts of the case, for the information of the public as well as of those immediately concerned (6).

Arbitration.

223. Arbitration, or the reference of a dispute to persons not directly concerned, is a mode of settlement with regard to which very different opinions have been expressed.

(*a.*) Favourable opinions.

(*a.*) A large number of witnesses representing the employed were in favour of the general principle, though differing on questions of method (7). Instances were mentioned in which arbitration had been found successful, sometimes after the failure of other and less formal attempts at settlement. Thus the London dock strike of 1890 was settled by the arbitration of intermediaries who made an arrangement with the Dock Companies on behalf of the men, and it was stated that the award was still practically upheld in its entirety (8). In September 1890, the Union of Lightermen and Watermen of the River Humber met the employers on a joint committee for the discussion of a revised scale of wages, and the matter was amicably settled. However, at a general meeting of the lighter-owners, the action of their deputation was repudiated, and the men accordingly ceased work, and offered the owners a fresh scale or an appeal to arbitration. The owners submitted to arbitration, and the dispute was immediately settled. The men gained by the award, which has since remained in force (1). The Conciliation Board of the London Chamber of Commerce has also arbitrated with success. On one occasion it settled a dispute "after an hour's discussion," and the question has never since been re-opened (2). One witness representing the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union, stated as the general result of his experience, that the decision of an impartial abitrator was always accepted by the men (3).

(*b.*) Unfavourable opinions.

(*b.*) Several of those witnesses, chiefly employers, who opposed the principle of arbitration, did so on the ground that a simple discussion of differences between employers and employed, with a view to an amicable arrangement, is preferable to any formal and compulsory method of settlement. To resort to the latter is apparently regarded as an admission of the existence of antagonism, and is therefore unacceptable to those who wish to ignore that point of view, and to promote mutual confidence between employers and employed, on the ground of a common interest. It is maintained, moreover, that when a question of conditions of labour is in the hands of those who have actual experience of the work, it is wholly unnecessary to bring in experts from elsewhere. Those who are immediately concerned necessarily understand the details of the subject better than any outsider (4). An instance was given in which arbitration was thought to have been detrimental to trade. In 1889 a strike of Thames lightermen and watermen was settled by arbitration under Lord Brassey, on the basis of a statement of the views of both parties, and of an agreement already made between them. The award was accepted by the official representatives of the employers and the Union respectively, but it was stated that it had been made without sufficient regard to the circumstances of the trade, and that the transhipment business of the port of London had been considerably injured in consequence. The tendency of this business to divert to Continental ports had already set in, and from that time, it is stated, it developed into a rush (5). It was also objected against arbitration that its machinery is too cumbrous for cases where speedy decision is essential (6). It was proposed that in preference to arbitration, an official investigator of disputes should be appointed, who should be thoroughly well-informed and impartial, and have power only to report to the Board of Trade or of Agriculture. This would prevent the intervention of untrained investigators, and the report of such an official would assist the press in forming a correct opinion of the merits of a dispute (7).

(*c.*) Practical difficulties.

(*c.*) The difficulty of upholding awards was recognised as a practical objection to arbitration, both by those who advocated and those who opposed it on grounds of

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 53, 59; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 96–9. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 59. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 99. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 96–9. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 97. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 58, 59, Digest, Vol. II., pp. 96, 97. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 49, 50.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 96. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 96, 97, 98, 99. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 99. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 59.

[§ 223 (c.)] principle. It was mentioned, for example, by one of the former, that in January 1890, Mr. Thomas Scrutton, of the Chamber of Shipping, drew up an agreement on behalf of six shipping or coasting companies: the General Steam Navigation Company, the Hermitage Company, the Carron Company, the Dundee Company, the Aberdeen Company, and the Irongate and St. Katherine's Wharf. This agreement fixed a certain rate of wages for the men employed on boats and wharves, but it was stated that some of the employers had broken through it without notice (1). Another instance was given of the infringement of an award by employers, in the case of a dispute in 1891, between the cement manufacturers on the Medway and the Bargemen and Watermen's Society, which was settled at the Conciliation Board of the London Chamber of Commerce. It was stated that the men had adhered to the award in every instance, but that the employers had done all in their power to evade it (2). On the other hand, a witness stated that he had known two or three cases in which the men had thrown up an award which did not suit them, though the employers had considered themselves bound by it, and that he was therefore forced to the conclusion that arbitration was useless (3). Another witness pointed out that decisions would not be so readily enforceable on the employed as on employers (4). As a means of meeting this difficulty it was suggested by some witnesses that the award of an arbitration board should be legally binding on both sides for an indefinite time, and by others that it should be binding for a limited period, a month or a year. It was proposed to enforce it on the employed by a fine imposed by their unions; or, according to another scheme, the unions should be under contract to support the decisions of the board by supplying the places of workmen who should refuse compliance. On failing to do this they should be sued for breach of contract.(5) Other witnesses dwelt chiefly on the support which the arbitrators would derive from public opinion, and regarded it as unnecessary that powers of compulsion should be vested in the Board (6).

(d.) Methods. (i.) State arbitration.

(*d.*) (*i.*) With regard to methods of arbitration, the point at which opinions diverged was that of the desirability of a "State Board." The secretary of the Dockers' Union advocated the establishment of a State board of arbitration, with power to intervene in all disputes, and to pronounce decisions which should be binding upon employers and employed. It should have no initiatory power to fix wages, but should form a court of appeal in cases of difficulty and in questions arising under the Employers' Liability Act. There should be such a board in every district, with sections for dealing with each specific difference between employers and employed. Connected with it there should be "an authority" in contact with the working life of that particular district, for the purpose of collecting data. It is thought that such a system would encourage the men to bring forward their grievances, and would oblige employers to negotiate. Several witnesses concurred in this view. [§ 223 (d.)]

(ii.) Compulsory arbitration not under State control.

(*ii.*) The Secretary of the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions suggested in preference an arbitration board not under State control, on which employers and employed should be equally represented. The board should elect a chairman, who should have a casting vote in the election of an umpire. It should have legal power to settle the rate of wages, or any other question in dispute. A fair rate of wages should be determined by an inspection of the employers' books, which they should be compelled to produce. The interest allowed on an employer's capital should be based on the existing rate of interest on Consols, with a reasonable allowance for the risk of private enterprise. (1) One witness proposed that a Government official appointed for the purpose should have power to compel the parties to a dispute to submit their case to arbitration, but that the arbitrator should be appointed by the employer and employed. (2) With regard to the question of the establishment, in any form, of boards of arbitration with legal powers to adjudicate on disputes, an unfavourable opinion was expressed on the part of a section of employers not wholly opposed to the principle of arbitration, namely, the Leith Shipowners' Society. They would think it necessary at any rate that before such a scheme were accepted, the powers of such a board and the terms of submission should be very clearly defined, and the competence of its members ensured (3).

Mediation.

224. In the evidence under consideration no instance was mentioned of mediation pure and simple, that is, the spontaneous intervention in a dispute of a third party not called in by the disputants. The Mansion House Agreement in 1889 was the result of negotiations which had the appearance of mediation, but which were in fact conducted by persons called in by the men on strike and acting on their behalf (4). The witness who advocated the appointment of an official investigator of disputes, with the object, as he stated, of superseding the untrained intermediary, apparently wished to imply an objection to mediation, as a means of settlement (5).

C. TRADE DISPUTES.

1. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

(a.) Influence of trade organisations.

225 (*a.*) It is apparent from the evidence that in most of thetrades here dealt with, the frequency of strikes has increased in recent years, and this tendency to dispute is attributed by many witnesses to the growth of the "new unions," with which it has coincided in point of time (7). Cases are given in which employers never had any trouble with their men until the formation of one of these unions, and protests have been made against their policy as detrimental to friendly relations between employers and employed (8). On the other hand, in cases in which personal relations between employers and employed either did not exist or were of an unsatisfactory character, the intervention of the union appears to have assisted in bringing about an understanding (9), and there are employers and others who state that it is far more satisfactory to deal with an organised body than with an unorganised and irresponsible mass of men (10). The view of many employers was expressed as follows by a representative of the shipowning interest: — "We are glad to have combinations of workmen, but a combination must act within certain fair, right, legal, and reasonable bounds, and wherever it oversteps those bounds it is becoming a tyranny of a very serious character." Trade unions, according to this witness, are very good things so far as they ameliorate the condition of their members, and afford a centre for the representation of the men in wages disputes; but when a union says that none but its own members shall be employed in the trade, then unionism becomes "a despotism of a most objection-"able kind"(6). The manager of the Millwall Docks, while approving most strongly of the organisation of labour, and regretting that union executives had not more power over the men, deplored the tendency of unions to federate for the purpose of sympathetic action in disputes, and regarded such action as an injustice which employers might fairly resist, and with every chance of success (7). There is a theory, however, maintained by some of the representatives of unions, that all that is needed to counteract the tendency to strikes is stronger organisation and more extensive federation, and that the object to be attained is a balance of power between organised employers and organised workmen (8).

(b.) Causes trade disputes.

(*b.*) The majority of strikes mentioned both in the oral and written evidence arose out of a question of wages, and those directly concerned with questions of hours and other conditions of labour appear to have been very few and slight (9). A large number, however, and those among the most important, have been due to questions of principle, such as that of working with non-unionists or of supporting the position of a federated organisation. This is peculiarly the case in the shipping trade (10).

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 12. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 97. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 99. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 59. Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 58. Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Introduction, pp. xi., xvii. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 19, 32, 40. (9) H. Quelch, 2385. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 23, 40.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 58, 59. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (4) B. Tillett, 3879–81. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 53, 59. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 32, J. Heron Wilson, 11624–7. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 27. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 34, 42. Digest, Vol. II., p. 60. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Introduction, p. xi. (10) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 48, 49. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 75, 76, 77.

2. SPECIAL STRIKES.

226. (*a.*) The London dock strike of 1889 has been described as a revolution, marking a new era in the history of labour. It was the beginning of a great disturbance in the labour market, and the attitude of the press and the public towards it was something unprecedented (1). The grievances which led to it were connected both with wages and hours, and other conditions of labour. It was a strike for an advance of wages from 5*d.* an hour to 6*d.* an hour with 8*d.* for overtime, but it is also stated that it was "more than anything to bring about some regularity in the work"; to secure employment for at least four hours at a time (2). The plus or bonus system of payment for piece-work was also mentioned as "really the cause of the beginning of the strike." The demand of the men with reference to this was that their representatives should be allowed to examine the Dock Company's books and check the payments (3). Another grievance is said to have been "the overbearing behaviour of the petty dock officials" (4). The strike was preceded for about two years by a series of attempts on the part of the men or their representatives to bring about a conference with the employers, but the Dock Companies, it is stated, refused to meet the representatives, or to believe that any discontent existed. The secretary of the Dockers' Union believed that the strike might have been averted by a conference, and therefore considered that the whole responsibility of it rested with the Dock Companies (5). The strike broke out very suddenly on the 15th of August 1889, beginning in one dock, and spreading to others (6). The docks directly concerned were those under the control of the Joint Committee of the Dock Companies, namely, the London and St. Katherine's Dock, the India Docks, the Royal Victoria and Albert Docks, and the Tilbury Docks (7). Sympathetic strikes followed at the Millwall Docks, and about a week later at the Surrey Commercial Docks, and at the wharves all along the river. The stevedores throughout the docks also struck in sympathy with the dock labourers; their action was spontaneous, and was taken without a formal consultation, but when their association met on the same evening, a unanimous vote was passed that no member should enter the dock gates till the labourers received what they demanded (8). The corn porters on the south side joined in the strike to regain the rate of wages which had been paid in 1871 (9). The strike was conducted by a committee representing the whole of the trades connected with the shipping industry (10). It lasted till September 14th, and paralysed the shipping and dock trade of London for six or seven weeks (11). It is stated that the majority of those who struck were non-unionists, but "became union men afterwards" (12). During the strike the officials of the Dockers' Union had several discussions with the Dock Companies, and the latter admitted the claim of the men to 6*d.* an hour as valid, but proposed to deduct 3*d.* for meal time, which was half an hour. The Dock Companies also admitted the claim of the men to four hours' minimum employment, and the right of representation, and indirectly indicated that they were willing to negotiate with the Union and with the men in all contracts (13). The strike was finally settled by the Mansion House Agreement, which was drawn up by persons acting as intermediaries on behalf of the men. By the terms of that agreement the strikers were to resume work at an advanced rate of 6*d.* an hour, with 8*d.* an hour overtime. Sub-contract work was to be changed into piece-work, but with a guaranteed minimum wage of 6*d.* an hour. There was to be payment for meal-times in the case of piece-work, but not of day-work. Men taken on were not, as a rule, to be discharged with less than 2*s.* pay. It was also undertaken that no resentment should be shown by the strikers to men who had not struck, or by the employers to the strikers (14). It is stated that on the whole the men carried out the terms of the settlement, but that the Dock Companies departed from it by closing their books against the representatives of the men. It is explained, however, by another witness that this occurred in consequence of a change of system from piece-work to day-work, by which representatives were rendered unnecessary, and that the agreement which was then terminated was merely a subsidiary agreement made on the 4th November 1889 (15). In the Surrey Commercial Docks, after the meeting of the Mansion House Committee, the remaining points in dispute were settled between the manager and chairman and a deputation of the men (1). The wharfingers had no part in the agreement, but were obliged in most cases to adopt its terms (2). There was less overtime worked in the docks after the strike, and employment was somewhat steadied by an increase of the permanent staff, and by the introduction of a classified list of non-permanent men (3). It is stated, however, with regard to the Surrey Commercial Docks, that the regulations of the Union since the strike have put a stop to the transfer of labour from one department to another according to the pressure of work, and that employment is, therefore, less evenly distributed than before (4). It is also stated that the effect of the strike in these docks was to increase the disposition of the men to ventilate trifling grievances, but that no actual friction had resulted (5). In the Millwall Docks things went on much more smoothly after the strike than before, because it became the practice to employ only union men (6). With regard to the docks under the Joint Committee, it is stated that for some 12 months after the strike the relations between the Dock Companies and the Dockers' Union were much improved, but that the subordinate officials placed obstacles in the way of harmonious working (7). After the strike there were numerous small strikes and difficulties in wharf labour, chiefly to enforce the adoption of the Mansion House agreement. In most cases the men obtained a settlement on their own terms, but some of the Union delegates were left out of work. At St. Bride's Wharf, immediately after the great strike, there was a strike for payment for the meal-time half hour, which the men received after a few days, but the proprietors soon afterwards introduced a contract system under which there was no meal-time pay. In January 1890 there was a strike at Hay's Wharf for meal-time payment for the day labourers, who had understood that they were to receive it, notwithstanding the Mansion House agreement (8). It is stated, however, that the men came out unwillingly at the instigation of the Dockers' Union, without previous negotiation (9); on the other hand it is stated that after the failure of negotiation the men came out of their own accord, and that the executive of the Union had then no power to forbid a strike. The matter was brought before the Conciliation Board of the Chamber of Commerce, but without avail (10). The men were given a week to come back, but very few did so. The strike did not succeed, and most of the men lost their employment altogether (11). The shipping firm of Messrs. Gray, Dawes & Co. had continual disputes with the stevedores in their employment at the London Docks between September 1889 and February 1891 (12). At the Victoria and Albert Docks strikes became very frequent after the shipowners took over the work in 1889, though the men had asserted throughout the great strike that they would much prefer to deal directly with the shipowners (13). With regard to the general result of the strike, it is stated that the position of the regular dock labourers, especially the permanent men, has improved, though that of the casuals has deteriorated (14). The increase in wages attracted a better class of men, but it is stated that work became less abundant, and earnings therefore decreased on the whole (15). The indirect loss incurred by the Dock Companies it is "impossible to put into figures." In one instance there was a direct payment of 5,000*l.* (16), but the effect was chiefly shown in a reduced dividend owing to the increased cost of labour (17). A great deal of tonnage was diverted from the port of London during the strike, but the diminution for the whole year was not, it is stated, very serious, and by 1891 the effects had almost passed away. The coasting and transhipment trades are said to have suffered most, but the latter had been falling off for some time (18). One witness stated that the tonnage of London was still falling off in 1891, through the increased expense and delay in handling cargo (19).

[§ 226 (*a.*)]

(*b.*) In September 1890 there was a general strike of the dock labourers in the port of Southampton. The men were called out, it is stated, by a certain William Sprow, who was acting as an agent of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union, of which a branch had recently been formed in the port. It is stated that there was at that time no question between the employers and the men about which a strike could properly be

(*b.*) *Southampton*, 1890.

(1) Digest, Vol. I. p. 50. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 16, 47; B. Tillett, 3856. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 10, 16, 47. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 48; J. Atkins, 906. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 16, 49. (6) G. R. Birt, 6953; J. Griffin, 6111. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 24, 50. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 49. (10) R. Cridge, 4096. (11) Appendix 5; Digest, Vol. I., p. 49. (12) J. Atkins, 907. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 49. (14) Appendix 5. (15) Digest, Vol. I., p. 50.

(1) J. Griffin, 6115. (2) Digest, Vol. I. p. 22. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 19, 27; pp. 14, 18. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (5) J. Griffin, 6112. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10; J. Atkins, 1009. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 16, 49. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 47. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8. (11) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (12) W. Langridge, 7223-4; Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 344, p. 52. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 25. (14) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 17, 26. (15) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 26, 30, 40. (16) Digest, Vol. I., p. 53; J. Griffin, 6117. (17) W. E. Hubbard, 4856. (18) G. R. Birt, 6958, 7111; Digest, Vol. I., p. 53. (19) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 25, 26.

§ 226 (b.)] declared. An advance of wages and a reduction of hours had been granted about a fortnight before. The Dockers' Union had been very active for some little time, but the advance of wages was independent of its influence. The Union was never recognised by the employers, who had never entered into any negotiations with the Union officials, preferring to deal directly with their men. The only pretext for a strike was this refusal to recognise the Union (1). According to another account, however, the rise of wages granted at this time by the Southampton Dock Company was the direct result of the applications addressed by the Union to the Southampton employers generally, though the Union itself was not recognised, and all negotiations were conducted directly by the men (2). On Sunday, September 7th, the Dock Company's officials called a meeting of permanent and casual labourers inside the docks. A report was spread that a reduction of wages had been proposed at this meeting. The Dock Company's men immediately struck in protest, without any notice whatever, and those working for other employers joined in from sympathy, notwithstanding a message received some weeks before from the Union executive, stating that a strike would not be sanctioned. On Monday, the 8th, the strike was fairly widespread, and on Tuesday it was general. While it lasted there was a great suspension of the work of the port, and only the South Western Company's boats running to the Channel Islands were able to get off. According to one witness, "this very serious state of affairs was aggravated by a considerable amount of disorder in the streets." It is stated on the other hand that, though the men congregated at the dock gates, there was no disorder and no attempt to interfere with the passenger traffic or the transit of goods, until the station yard was opened and an engine driven among the people, one of whom stopped it to prevent disaster. At this point the mayor telegraphed to Portsmouth for troops, and called out the fire brigade and the police. On the 10th the Dockers' Union in London sent Mr. McCarthy as their representative. He told the Union officials at Southampton that the strike was entirely against the rules and could not be recognised. He also sent a message to the Dock Company and other employers, announcing that he had been sent to close the strike, but they refused to allow him an interview. He therefore led the men about the town "to keep them out of mischief," and when they were tired sent them home. On the next day, the 11th, it was generally known that the London executive did not sanction the strike, and that no strike pay would be given, and the men began to go back to work on Friday the 12th. By Saturday the whole difficulty was at an end. Mr. Sprow, the Union member in charge of Southampton, received three months' imprisonment for intimidation. It was quite clear, in the opinion of the employers, who held several meetings during the strike to consider the matter, that work had been suspended for a wholly inadequate reason by the officer of the Union, and also that the Union had given no monetary support. It afterwards appeared that a certain amount of money was distributed among the men out of their own subscriptions to the Union, and not from headquarters, where it was distinctly stated that the strike was called without authority. It was believed that Mr. Sprow was aware of this, but hoped that if the strike succeeded the Union would endorse his action (3).

(c.) *Plymouth*, 1890. (c.) In October 1890 a strike occurred in the house-coal trade of the port of Plymouth. A few months before, the Dockers' Union, the Bristol and West of England Labourers' Union, and the National Gasworkers' Union had established themselves in Plymouth and enrolled a great many members. They then began to "make the men dissatisfied with the conditions under which they were working," and supplied copies of their by-laws to various merchants. The Coal Merchants' Association, though not wishing to recognise the Unions as such, were anxious that the harmonious relations between employers and employed should not be disturbed. They held several meetings with representatives of the three Unions, and also with the workmen themselves. It was decided that steam gear should not be used for working house-coal, and a charge of about 4*d.* a ton was practically imposed on those merchants who wished to use it. The Unions also wished to increase the number of men employed on a certain piece of work. The merchants, it is stated, were anxious to consider any reasonable suggestion from the men, and to submit any point in dispute to arbitration, but it was impossible to arrive at a definite understanding, and the Unions refused arbitration. The main point in dispute was the question of unionists working with non-unionists. On October 29th a non-unionist was engaged as one of a gang discharging cargo. The other men working for the same employer then struck, and the union secretaries threatened him with ruin unless he would discharge the non-unionist workman and undertake to employ only unionists. The men acknowledged that they had nothing to complain of as to wages or hours, but said that the Union had ordered them to leave their work because the employer refused to discharge the non-unionist. After some weeks the strike became general, and the whole of the house-coal trade of the port was stopped for many days. The men who attempted to work were menaced by the unionists, and some were ill-treated, and police protection had to be obtained to enable any work to be done. The worst part of the disturbance lasted for about 10 days, and the loss incurred was "incalculable." The employer with whom the strike had begun took proceedings against the three Union secretaries who had threatened him, and after a long lawsuit they were fined 20*l.* each and costs. One of the men on strike was convicted of assault and got six weeks' hard labour. The Unions did not offer conciliation until the whole difficulty was over (1). It is stated, however, on the part of a firm of steamship owners and coal merchants who are not members of the Coal Merchants' Association, that the strike was brought about by the aggressiveness of the employers rather than by the action of the Unions. The real cause of friction, according to this account, was the attempt of the coal merchants to employ their own storemen in weighing out vessels, instead of the store-weighers of the port (2). [§ 226 (c).]

Shipping. (a.) *Liverpool*, 1889. 227. (*a.*) The Liverpool shipping strike of 1889 was the first serious conflict between the shipowners and the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union (3). Wages had gone down considerably during the depression in the shipping trade from 1884 to 1888, and when an improvement in trade began the seamen sought to participate in it, and nearly all the shipowners at once gave a rise in wages of 10*s.* a month (4). Since, however, the wages of Liverpool were still below those on the Tyne, some of the leaders of the men hoped to force a further rise of 10*s.* (5). The shipowners "ignored their demands," and a strike took place, notwithstanding the advice of the general secretary of the Union and the vice-president of the Mercantile Marine Service Association. The strike lasted eight or nine weeks, and caused great distress and loss. The shipowners declined to be coerced and kept their ships going, and at last the sailors and firemen returned to work at the former rates. They were in a rather worse position than before, because a good many lost their employment through the introduction of fresh hands. The Union was unable at that time to give them much assistance. In the following year the shipowners in the large lines voluntarily conceded the advance which had been demanded, "for the purpose of keeping the men contented" (6).

(b.) *Leith*, 1889. (*b.*) In May 1889 the Leith shipowners consented on demand to an increase of wages from 28*s.* to 30*s.* a week, "although the state of trade did not warrant such an advance." The men professed to consider this settlement satisfactory, and it was understood that the officials of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union were of the same opinion. The secretary, however, almost immediately issued a circular to the shipowners in Leith, asking for a scale of wages equivalent to 32*s.* 8*d.* a week. The circular added that it was hoped that this scale might be adopted for the future, so as to prevent any inconvenience arising either to owners or men through the stoppage of work. The owners met and consulted on the matter, and found that they could not afford to give the wages asked. On June 3rd the men, without further notice, left their employment in obedience to the Union, and in breach of the agreement previously made with the owners. This caused great inconvenience and loss, and the regular liners which had advertised sailing dates were put to great difficulty and delay, and many of them had to be laid up. The required number of non-union men were, however, gradually obtained, and the steamers got to sea. A considerable amount of intimidation, it is stated, was practised during the strike. The non-unionists were interfered with in going to work, and it was necessary to put them on board a depôt steamer in the Forth Roads, whence they were drafted off to their vessels as required. In other cases steamers were navigated out to the roads by officers, and the crews

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 15, 78. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 16, 17. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p 78; T. Morgan, 12163; T. McCarthy, 12,276.

(1) Digest, Vol. II. pp. 18, 19, 80; .A H. Varnier, 12502. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 79. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 47; Digest, Vol II., pp. 38, 79. (6) Digest, Vol. I. p. 50; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 38, 79.

[§ 227 (b.)] put on board at certain ports in the Forth. Serious opposition would have had to be faced in putting them on board in the dock. There was a very strong endeavour to bring the dock labourers out, but this was unsuccessful, probably through want of funds. Twenty-two steamers were laid idle in consequence of the strike, and about 500 or 600 men were concerned in it. The strike nominally continued after the steamers got to sea, but it was then practically at an end, and the men still out had to look for employment elsewhere. Many of them had been for years in the same employment, and it was a great disadvantage for them to lose it. Some of these came and requested to be taken back, and tore up their Union books. So far as there were places vacant those men were taken back. The loss in wages was estimated at 1,800*l.* to 2,000*l.*, not reckoning the loss incurred by those who did not obtain situations at the end of the strike. In March 1891, a strike against the Federation ticket was ordered at Leith by the Sailors' and Firemen's Union. The Leith branch met to consider the matter, but finding that "the real nature of the ticket had been thoroughly misrepresented to them by their officials," and remembering the disastrous strike of 1889, the members refused to come out, and sent a deputation to the Leith Shipowners' Society to inform them of their resolution. They also referred to the harmonious and amicable relations that existed between them and the local shipowners, and declared their willingness to sail with non-unionists (1). Soon after the formation of the Shipping Federation, in September 1890, the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union came into conflict with it, chiefly on the question of the Federation ticket, which members of the Union refused to take. The Union, according to the statement of the secretary, had no desire to come into conflict with the Federation, and would have preferred to settle differences by conference. Strikes against the Federation took place at the ports of London, Liverpool, Shields, Newcastle, Aberdeen, Leith, Hull, Glasgow, Hartlepool, Middlesborough, Cardiff, and Swansea (2).

(*c*) *London, 1890.* (*c.*) The London shipping strike of 1890 was one of the most serious of these conflicts. It originated as follows: In September 1890 the Sailors' and Firemen's Union claimed a monopoly of certain work connected with the repair of vessels belonging to the British India Company in the Albert Docks. This work had previously been done by members of the Hammermen's Union, and the shipowners refused to take it from them. The Sailors' and Firemen's Union then withdrew their members from the ships and picketed the shipping offices, intimating that the ships would not be allowed to obtain crews. The owners were obliged to engage free men for the first ship, and to cause their crews in future to sign articles on board ship to prevent intimidation by unionists (3). The Sailors' and Firemen's Union regarded the practice of signing on board as a departure from the general custom, and it is stated on their part that the men strongly objected to it on the ground that it deprived them of certain privileges with regard to the transmission and banking of money, and prevented their having a Union delegate present to look after their interests, and ascertaining who were to be their shipmates (4). On the other hand it is stated that the men made no such objection; that the practice of signing on board was a long-established custom; that it deprived the men of no privileges, and did not prevent Union delegates from being present (5). On December 5th 1890 a manifesto was issued from Wade's Arms in the name of the United Labour Council of the Port of London, and was handed in at the office of the Shipping Federation, and at the offices of three of the principal passenger lines sailing out of London. It announced that owing to the shipowners of London having "decided to sign on board, to the detriment of unionism generally," the Council required the workmen represented to abstain from any work that would "conduce to the sailing" of the vessels of Messrs. Shaw, Savill & Co., the New Zealand Shipping Company, and the British India Steam Navigation Company, until these owners should undertake for the future to sign and discharge crews at the regular shipping offices provided by the Board of Trade, and to sign none but members of the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union (6). The owners of the lines in question applied to the Shipping Federation, who placarded London and the docks with a poster announcing the intention of shipowners generally to continue to engage crews on board ship, "until a better spirit should prevail," for the safety and convenience both of officers and men, and also giving notice of their refusal to employ members of one particular Union to the exclusion of others. Preference would be given, it was explained, to seamen holding Federation certificates, and these might be obtained by unionists on the same terms as by others. Notwithstanding this explanatory notice, and another which was issued by the British India Company, the crews of the boycotted vessels came out on strike, and also the coalies, ship workers, carpenters, painters, and others; but the stevedores and dockers remained at work (1). The Federation then took steps to obtain free labour, but in order to disturb the labour of London as little as possible they first gave the men on strike a week for consideration. At the end of that time the free labourers were brought in, chiefly seamen and fishermen and agricultural labourers from Kent, a fine set of men, and, it is stated, perfectly competent to do the work. A depôt ship, the "Scotland," was fitted up for their accommodation, and most effective arrangements were made for their protection by the police. After the work had begun the police were withdrawn, but it was found necessary to bring them back on account of the riotous conduct of the men on strike, who attacked the "Scotland" and pelted the free labourers. The work was done very well, notwithstanding bad weather, and the vessels were enabled to sail to their dates, though in many cases with much less cargo than they would ordinarily have taken. The strike was utterly defeated, and a great many of the strikers were permanently excluded by the retention of the free labour (2). The dispute went on till the 12th of February, when representatives of the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions, the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, and the Dockers' Union, had an interview with certain shipowners at the offices of the Shipping Federation. The result arrived at was embodied in a memorandum to the effect that the deputation would send the chairman of the meeting a written proposal from the Unions on strike, to be laid before the Executive Council of the Federation (3). The deputation, however, understood that a definite agreement had been made that the Shipping Federation would (1) not give preference to non-union men, and (2) would agree to sign on crews at the shipping offices, provided that the manifesto of the United Labour Council were withdrawn, and the monopoly of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union no longer insisted on. These terms were accepted by the United Labour Council, on condition that the Federation would agree to re-employ the coal porters then on strike. The Shipping Federation refused to discuss the point till the manifesto should be publicly withdrawn, and the block on the boycotted ships removed by the men returning to work (4). The situation was thus a dead-lock, and in the meantime the Amalgamated Stevedores' Society informed the Shipping Federation that unless the free labour were removed from the port the stevedores would come out 5,000 or 6,000 strong (5). On receiving the reply that the Federation had other labour ready, they issued a manifesto, on the 13th of February, calling attention to the "aggressive action of the Shipping Federation," and the "unscrupulous manner" in which they had "withdrawn concessions" and broken off negotiations as indicating a "policy of extermination" directed against all riverside unions. The manifesto further called upon members of the Stevedores' Society to cease working on all ships in the Port of London on February 25th. A general strike of the other riverside trades was expected to take place on the 23rd, and the Federation made preparations for meeting it, but the manifesto produced only a partial result, and was then withdrawn by the men themselves. In the Albert Docks, however, it had the effect of calling out the stevedores and dockers employed by the three shipping lines already blocked by the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, and the case became serious. Free labour, chiefly unskilled, was introduced, and when the stevedores saw that these men were getting trained to the work, they gave way and came back (6). It was calculated that the loss of trade to the port of London during the strike amounted to about 10,000 tons a month in coal alone, with a corresponding loss in wages to the men (7).

(*d.*) *Cardiff, 1891.* (*d.*) Meanwhile another strike against the Shipping Federation was taking place at Cardiff (8). The difficulties which led to it began as early as August 1890, when a committee of the Cardiff Shipowners' Association passed a resolution in favour of maintaining "the right of free labour." The secretary of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union regarded this as a "declaration of war," and gave notice that the Union would stop all Cardiff vessels from getting crews in any port of the United Kingdom. It is

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 32, 33, 80, 83; J. Cormack, 11684, 11708. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 28; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 49, 80. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 33, 37. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 49. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 20, 22, 29, 51; Appendix 13.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 20, 51; Appendix 14. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 22, 23, 28, 51. (3) Appendix 70; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 49, 50. (4) Appendix 28. (5) G. A. Laws, 4956. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 20, 22, 51; Appendix 15. (7) G. A. Laws, 4954. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 51, 52.

[§ 227 (d.)] stated that cases of intimidation and blocking, and assaults on the shipping offices by members of the Seamen's Union, became frequent immediately afterwards. At Newport and Barry the coal-tippers struck in support of the Seamen's Union, against vessels with foreign or non-unionist crews. The special cases mentioned were those of the steamers "George Booth," "Tasso," and "Rougemont." In January 1891 the ship "Glen Gelder" came to Cardiff for repairs, without a crew (1). On February 3rd she shipped a new crew, who were non-unionists, and when she came under the coal-tips, the tippers, at the instance of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, refused to load her. The Union secretary's account of the matter was that this free crew had been shipped in the place of a unionist crew who had refused to take the Federation ticket. The manager of the Shipping Federation stated, however, that this was absolutely incorrect, since the Federation ticket was not made compulsory till February 23rd (2). On the refusal of the Bute Docks Company to turn out the steamer as the Union required, two other ships were blocked, and the Seamen's Union then gave notice that the whole dock would be brought to a standstill. The company issued a circular to the men, stating that any workman leaving his employment without due notice would be proceeded against for damages, and that all labour at the Bute Docks must be regarded as absolutely free, and that the company could not recognise any attempt to put pressure upon other employers or workmen (3). On February 5th, however, the strike became general, and the port was very seriously blocked. The ships were detained for some days, and a great loss was necessarily sustained by the owners (4). The Sailors' and Firemen's Union meanwhile, made daily processions through the streets of Cardiff, causing, it is stated, immense disorder in the town (5). The Dock Company acted very promptly, and in a fortnight all the tips were at work again with free labour obtained in Cardiff. After the collapse of the dock strike the shipowners began to obtain crews more easily (6). At first the shipping offices were blocked, and intimidation was carried on by the Union pickets. The shipowners therefore placed a depôt ship, the "Speedwell," in the Penarth Roads, and the seamen imported during the strike were kept on board in drafts of 150 or 200 at a time, and supplied to ships as required (7). They were obtained chiefly from boarding-houses in Liverpool and other ports, and about 20 per cent. were found to be "wasters" or incompetent men who were not seamen at all, but it is stated that all these were sent back. The remainder were very good average men (8). Great difficulty was experienced, not, it is stated, in obtaining men, but in conveying them into Cardiff without encountering the union pickets (9). On the other hand, the account given by the secretary of the Seamen's Union was that at no time during the strike were the shipowners able to get more than 150 men a week, instead of 1,000, which is the usual number required to man the ships, and that but for the slackness of trade at the time, the victory would in his opinion have been on the side of the men (10). However, about the 9th of March, the secretary requested an interview with the committee of the Bristol Channel branch of the Shipping Federation. He proposed the "cessation of hostilities," but refused to withdraw the Union pickets and discontinue the intimidation and blocking, unless the Shipping Federation would withdraw their ticket, which he termed a badge of slavery, although it was pointed out to him that it merely implied an undertaking on the part of the holder to go to sea in the ship on which he had signed articles, in accordance with the Merchant Shipping Act, whether the crew were unionists or not. Thus the meeting closed without result, since neither side would yield, but from that time, according to a representative of the Shipping Federation at Cardiff, increasing numbers of unionists took the Federation ticket, while remaining members of the Union (11). The strike lasted altogether some seven or eight weeks (12).

(e.) *Aberdeen, 1891.* (e.) A similar strike took place at Aberdeen, beginning on February 24th, 1891. The seamen struck against the Federation ticket, and when the Federation supplied men to take their places, the dockers struck in sympathy, and the Federation supplied dockers also. There was "any amount of free labour to be had, and good labour, too." The work of the port was done, and after about a fortnight or three weeks the strike collapsed (13).

(1) Digest Vol. II., pp. 30, 77; J. Heron Wilson 11543. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 51, 52. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 41. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 30. (5) J. Heron Wilson, 11553. (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 30, 41, 77. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 30. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 51; G. A. Laws, 4956.

[§ 227 (e.)] (f.) At the same time serious disputes were going on in Hull between the Shipping Federation and the unions connected with the carrying industry. In December 1890, it is stated by a representative of one of these unions, a steamer, the "Mary Anning," came into Hull with a union crew. The captain told an official of the Seamen's Union that they were good men, but that he had orders from the Shipping Federation to ship a non-unionist Federation crew. As soon as he did so, the Dockers' Union refused to discharge the ship, and the Federation fetched 70 men from Liverpool to work the cargo into the lighters, but most of the lightermen refused to take it, and it was partly discharged into another steamer. Representatives of the Seamen's Union called on the committee of the Shipping Federation and asked that the union crew might be taken back, but the reply was that they would ship whom they liked. This was the beginning of a number of strikes which went on for about six months, and it is stated that the blame in the majority of cases lay with the local officials of the Shipping Federation, and that preference of employment was frequently given to incompetent Federation men over competent unionists (1).

(f.) *Hull, 1891.*

Rivers and Canals.

228. (a.) In 1889 there was a general strike of watermen and lightermen on the Thames, partly in sympathy with the dock strike and partly on account of certain grievances in connection with night work. The matter was settled by the arbitration of Lord Brassey, according to whose award the wages for a full night's work were raised to 6*s*. It is stated by the master lightermen that the cost of lighterage was thus increased by about 4*d*. a ton, and great injury was done to the export and transhipment trade of the port of London (2).

(a.) *Thames, 1889.*

(b.) In March 1890 there was a strike of bargemen and watermen in the brick-carrying districts on the Medway. It was caused by a demand for an advance of wages. There had been, it is stated, a considerable decrease in wages for some time, and the employers seemed to be inclined to make a further reduction. The Union (the United Bargemen and Watermen's Protection Society) accordingly issued a circular, with a revised list of freights, to all the employers in the district. The revised list was to take effect on March 1st, a month after the date of issue. The employers took no notice of it till within a few days of the termination of the period specified, and then they gave orders that the employés were either to give up their union tickets or tie their barges up. The union members, comprising more than two-thirds of the total number employed, came out "to a man," and remained on strike for eight weeks. The strike ended in the men withdrawing their demand in favour of an alternative list issued by the employers. The result was that the men gained a 10 per cent. rise in wages, with other advantages (3).

(b.) *Medway 1890.*

(c.) In December 1890 there was a lock-out of lightermen employed by the Trent Navigation Company. About 80 of these were members of the Society of Lightermen and Watermen of the River Humber. At that time the captains of the company's boats were receiving 24*s*. a week, and the mates 16*s*. a week, and according to their calculation their hours were 80 or 90 a week, and they were sometimes at work all night. On November 20th the society sent in a revised scale of wages to the manager of the company, offering at the same time to send a deputation to discuss the scale and any grievance on either side. The manager refused to meet any deputation connected with the officials of the union, and, "as a counter-move," each man was given a week's notice to leave the company's service, unless he would sign an agreement which the manager had drawn up. The society advised the men not to sign any agreement which the officials of the society had not seen, and the men also alleged that they were not allowed to read the agreement. They therefore refused to sign it, and the Trent Navigation Company locked them out. Sir Albert Rollit was the only director who agreed to any conciliatory means of settling the dispute. As the other directors would give the men no hearing, the Nottingham Trades Council was asked to organise a deputation. This deputation was not received, but the men at length obtained a hearing. The chairman then told them that the reason they had not been received long before, was that the secretary of the union had sent a very insulting letter to the manager. The Mayor of Newark, to whom the secretary appealed, agreed that there was no insulting language in any of the letters sent to the company. The lock-out lasted about 17 weeks,

(c.) *Trent, 1890.*

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 57, 79. (2) Digest Vol. I., p. 48; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 12, 104, 105. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 58, 59, 82; J. Tookey, 13898.

[§ 228 (c).] and meanwhile there was a severe frost lasting 10 or 11 weeks. The company usually paid the men 1*l.* a week while they were frozen up, but in this case they saved the money. When the frost was over the company came to terms with the men, and conceded an advance of wages of 6*s.* and 9*s.* a week to captains and mates respectively, and a stipulated amount of rest. They all returned to work, and their general condition was much better than before the dispute. The lock-out cost the Union "every penny" it had. It had since appeared that the Trent Navigation Company really could not afford the scale of wages required, and the secretary of the Union affirmed that if this had been proved conclusively to the men, they would have been quite willing to defer their demand till a time of prosperity (1).

d.) Aire and Calder Canal. (*d.*) A strike took place in December 1891, among the Aire and Calder fly-boatmen, belonging to the Goole district of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union. The men asked for an advance of wages of 7½ per cent., on the ground that their work was increased by the use of machinery, which at the same time raised the profits of the Aire and Calder Company. The employers offered 2½ per cent. and then 5 per cent., both of which the men refused. The union offered arbitration, which the company refused. The company called a meeting at Goole, on December 22nd, of all the men in their employment, and issued voting papers for deciding the question of a strike. The manager of the company also issued a statement of advances recently conceded. The men, with one exception, voted for a strike. The strike lasted four weeks, and resulted in a small concession with regard to extra labour in the district above Leeds. The cost to the union was about 430*l.* (2). In the opinion of a representative of the union, the strike might have been avoided if the employers had accepted arbitration (3).

3. PICKETING AND INTIMIDATION, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

icketing nd Intimi- ation. 229. A considerable amount of evidence was given with regard to the practice of picketing, and the system of intimidation which is alleged to prevail in connection with it.

a.) Picketing f Shipping ffices. (*a*). It was stated that the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union, shortly after its formation, established a system of pickets outside the shipping offices at all large ports, and no seaman was allowed to approach unless he could show a union ticket. Intimidation and violence were openly resorted to (4). Various instances of this were mentioned, and it was stated that many more could be quoted. In most cases it was impossible to bring the offenders within the law, because there was no actual threat of violence, though it was well understood that violence was intended, and such violence, it is stated, always followed if the "intimidation" was unsuccessful (5). Cases of assault described as "brutal" are said to have occurred (6). As an illustration of the system of picketing shipping offices, an instance was mentioned in which an agent of the Shipping Federation was sent to Tower Hill shipping office, to see to the shipment of a number of firemen for a vessel at Southampton. He reported that not half the firemen desiring to ship dared enter the door of the office, owing to the conduct of the pickets of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, who were assembled in the yard to the number of 150 or 200, "threatening to break the head of any man who signed on." Those men who were shipped made their exit in safety by a back door, and were sent off from Waterloo with the assistance of the police, notwithstanding the presence of "the chief secretary of the union at the head of a very large body of pickets" (7). The same state of things is said to have prevailed at South Shields for a short period after the formation of the Shipping Federation and before the members of the Seamen's Union began to accept the Federation ticket. So riotous and disorderly, it is stated, was the conduct of the Seamen's Union delegates outside the shipping offices when free seamen approached for the purpose of signing articles, that the Federation officials were invariably obliged to call in police assistance (8). At Newport, Monmouth, in the summer of 1891, according to the report received by a witness from the master of the s.s. "Trinidad," it was highly dangerous for a free seaman even to attempt to enter the shipping offices at that port, owing to the continual presence of "a rowdy element of unionists." Unless a man first secured a union card, he had absolutely no chance of offering his services, "and this too at a Government shipping office" (1). The Shipping Federation registry offices in the Thames district were, it is stated, picketed by the unions for many months after they were opened, and the men who used them were often subjected to intimidation and rough usage. The registry superintendent in that district stated that on one occasion he was savagely attacked by 20 or 30 men, led by an official of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, when going on board a ship in the execution of his duty (2). It is stated that from the first opening of the registry offices in the Tyne district "virulent obstruc- "tion" was offered by the union delegates to seamen being shipped through the Shipping Federation, unless they held cards of membership of the union. Several instances, it was stated, could be given, of intimidation and coercion practised upon free seamen, not by ignorant members of the union alone, but by high officials. A case was mentioned in which a union delegate at South Shields was convicted under the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act of preventing a union fireman from sailing in a Federation ship on which he had signed articles, by threatening him with the consequences of doing so (3). At the time that the Seamen's Union was opposing the issue of Federation tickets to seamen, from two to 50 union men were, it is stated, employed daily to stand at the doors of the registry offices in North and South Shields. Every seaman who approached was stopped, and if he persisted in running the blockade, a system of jostling began, which usually ended in a crowd of people gathering, the victim getting severely handled, and no one assailant being identified. The utmost the police could do in the present state of the law was done, namely, to keep the men moving about a little, or else charge them with obstructing the thoroughfare. Such powers, it was pointed out, are of little use in preventing intimidation (4). It was stated by a member of the Shipping Federation that at Glasgow also there were at one time four pickets constantly kept opposite the office of the Shipping Federation, and that when any man approached to register his name in the Federation books, the picket was reinforced by a large collection of men at the office door. Such was the difficulty of carrying on business that police protection had to be furnished by the Lord Provost. There were, it was stated, any number of convictions of union delegates and members for assault, some of which the witness quoted. After several sentences of imprisonment the intimidation gradually diminished, until the summer of 1891, when all interference ceased (5). A representative of the Shipping Federation at Cardiff quoted from an official report book a long list of cases of intimidation and violence committed by union delegates at that port (6).

[§ 229 (*a.*)]

(b.) Picketing in connection with strikes. (*b*). Evidence was also given with regard to picketing and intimidation during strikes. It was stated that at the beginning of the London dock strike of 1889 there was a good deal of intimidation at the Millwall docks, where the strike was from sympathy. (7) During the strike at Hay's Wharf in January 1890, there were, it is stated, several convictions for assault, but it was difficult to induce men to prosecute in the state of intimidation which prevailed (8). It was stated that during the Leith strike, conducted by the Sailors' and Firemen's Union in 1889, a considerable amount of intimidation was practised. Non-unionists were interfered with in going to work, and it was necessary to put them on board a steamer in the Forth Roads, and thence draft them to their vessels. One case was quoted, in which a man about to join his ship was attacked and considerably injured by the strikers (9). During the Glasgow strike, which was simultaneous with the former, the intimidation experienced is described as "terrible." It was attributed to members of the National Union of Dock Labourers and of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, which were acting in combination. It is stated that the foremen and men on weekly wages, employed by Messrs. Allan of the Allan line, were so terrorised that nearly all of them left work without notice, telling the employers privately that they did so on account of threats of bodily injury. The strikers, it

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 57, 82; A. A. Bird, 13644, 13701. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 15, 104. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 21. (6) G. A. Laws, 4963. (7) G. A. Laws, 4962; Appendix 18. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 29.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 83, 131; J. Morrison, 11541. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 39. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 130. J. Morrison, 11541. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 83, 131. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 40, 84. (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 30, 83. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 33, 84.

[§ 229 (b.)] is stated, congregated in hundreds outside the sheds, and both threatened and attacked men going to work, so that they were afraid to leave the sheds, and had to be housed by the shipowners either there or on board ship. Messrs. Allan alone had at one time nearly 600 men housed in the loading and discharging berths. Prosecution was impossible in nearly every case, owing to the difficulty of identifying the assailants, and of inducing men who were attacked to risk the consequences of taking proceedings. In support of the view that it was intimidation alone which prevented men from taking work on this occasion, it was stated that when disputes had occurred simultaneously at Glasgow and Liverpool, as in 1890, large numbers of men were willing to go from one port to the other to take work where they were not known (1). A few months after this, during the strike of the National Dock Labourers' Union in Glasgow against the old Society of Harbour Labourers, it is stated that a shipowner who employed members of the latter Union was obliged to procure a crew from Dundee, and when they arrived at Greenock the road from the station to the dock was lined with roughs, and only through the protection of the police was the crew saved from rough usage. A year later, after the formation of the Shipping Federation, the National Dock Labourers' Union struck, as on several other occasions, against a non-unionist crew. It is stated that owing to the intimidation and violence which prevailed it was impossible to put the crew on board, and a Newcastle crew had to be obtained and shipped under police protection (2). During the London shipping strike of 1890–91, a great deal of violence and intimidation is said to have been used towards the Federation free labourers (3). According to one witness, there were seventeen convictions for assault and intimidation out of 23 prosecutions, and about an equal number of cases which were not prosecuted (4). The majority of those convicted were unionists. According to another witness, there were quite 40 convictions for such offences during the strike (5). Detailed accounts were given of organised attacks made by unionists on the Federation depôt ship "Scotland" in the Albert Dock, and on the tug "Petrel," which, it is stated, was pelted with stones and other missiles while conveying labourers from the "Scotland" to the ship "Beatrice" in the Victoria Dock. Unorganised riots were also described, such as an attack upon a number of free coal porters at the Ashburton coffee-house, at Woolwich. In most of these cases, it is stated, prosecution was impossible, because the offenders were immediately transferred to another dock (6). The firm of Messrs. Gray, Dawes & Co., were obliged, it is stated, to prosecute in several cases for assaults on their employés, and to obtain police protection for their men on board their own ships (7). The general manager of the Shipping Federation handed in letters describing further cases of this kind, and expressed an objection to all the phases of picketing as now carried on, "because it amounts to distinct intimidation" (8). Several witnesses stated that a great deal of intimidation was practised during the Cardiff strike in 1891, by the pickets of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union (9). "Innocent men were beaten simply because they were endeavouring to obtain work." There were, it is stated, gangs of men posted about "in semi-military style," and armed with sticks and other missiles, guarding the entrance to the docks, and also 50 or 60 men moving about to different places, such as railway stations and steamboat landings. For five weeks the dock company experienced the greatest difficulty in getting into their docks people who had legitimate business there (10). For convenience in shipping crews, the Shipping Federation placed a depôt ship, the "Speedwell," in the Penarth Roads, and fitted her up with accommodation for about 150 men, providing good food and a variety of other comforts. Seamen were easily obtained from Liverpool, Shields, and other places, but there was great difficulty in conveying them into Cardiff without their being intercepted by the pickets. On one occasion, it is stated, a large body of men went to Rhymney Bridge in order to intercept a train full of non-unionist seamen, and a conflict was only avoided by a change of route, the Great Western Company giving the Federation the use of a branch line (11). One witness stated that about 20 men belonging to the Sailors' and Firemen's Union were prosecuted for violence and intimidation during the strike, and the majority of these were convicted. A great part of this intimidation was, it is stated, directed against members of the Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, and several instances were quoted in this connection (1). In illustration of the purposes for which picketing has been employed, a representative of the Shipping Federation in the Tyne district gave an account of a strike which took place there in January 1892. The quay labourers employed by Messrs Currie & Co. refused to work under a new stevedore, and the services of the Federation were called in. Day after day, it is stated, the Federation sent men belonging to the Tyne district to work the vessels, and though the men declared their intention of doing so, in nearly every case they failed to carry it out. The witness was convinced that the cause of this failure was terrorism by the Union (the Tyneside and National Labour Union) in the form of threatening looks and gestures, and "scurrilous taunts." The strikers gathered in a crowd at the wharf where the Leith boats arrived, and men going to work were afraid to pass them. At last men from other districts were induced to accept employment (2). [§ 229 (b.)]

(c.) Replies to the above statements.

(*c.*) On the other hand, the representatives of several unions furnished replies, both general and specific, to the charges practically brought against them of encouraging a policy of terrorism. The secretary of the Federation of Trade and Labour Unions stated that the unions discouraged the use of violence against free labourers, as being illegal, immoral, and inexpedient and that this view was generally acted upon by the members. The witness quoted the case of the Carron and Hermitage Wharves dispute in 1891, during which, he stated, there was only one instance of an assault by a unionist (3). That statement was, however, afterwards contradicted, and it was stated that during that strike there were numerous cases of very serious assault, for several of which convictions were obtained (4). It was stated by the secretary of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, in contravention of various allegations, that during the strikes in London, Liverpool, and Cardiff, the shipping offices were not blocked by union men, and could not have been so, because the superintendents of the offices and the police would be certain to prevent it. The witness was at Liverpool during the strike of 1889, and could vouch that the office was not blocked, and that no force was used to repel men who were without union tickets. The witness added that in no case was any shipping office ever blocked by members of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, and that since the formation of the Union the violence attending strikes had greatly decreased. He was not aware of any acts of violence or intimidation committed by members of the Union against free labourers. Pickets had sometimes been employed in large numbers, but only for the lawful purpose of pointing out the merits of a dispute and dissuading men from working. As many as 400 men acted in this capacity during the Cardiff strike. The witness stated, however, that they were not pickets in the strict sense of the term, because they were ready to leave their posts and take ship under any owner, not belonging to the Shipping Federation, who might require their services (5).

(d.) Proposed Amendments in the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act 1875.

(*d.*) Several witnesses offered suggestions for the amendment of the law relating to picketing and intimidation, as laid down in the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875. These suggestions turned mainly on the meaning to be attached to the term "intimidation." (6) It was urged that although intimidation was punishable under Section 7 of the Act, the absence of an exact definition of the term, and the difficulty in any case of bringing home an offence of that nature, frequently made it impossible to convict unless there had been an actual threat of physical violence. It was pointed out by one witness that the mere assemblage of 150 or 200 men as pickets, with the avowed object of persuading men not to take certain work, was enough to intimidate those who might wish to take it. A threat conveyed in a look, though not recognised by the law, might, the witness thought, prove quite as effectual as a threat stated in words. He therefore proposed, that especially in the case of a sympathetic strike, it should be illegal for large bodies of men to assemble for the sole purpose of preventing other men from working, and that the fact of doing so should be considered to amount to intimidation. The definition of intimidation which the witness would adopt was that contained in the Irish Crimes Act, now repealed, namely, "any words or acts intended and calculated to put any person in fear of any injury or

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 36, 83. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 39, 84. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 22, 23, 28. (4) Appendix 32; Digest, Vol. I., p. 22. (5) T. Robb, 5542; W. P. Lind, 7696 7. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 22, 23, 28; G. A. Laws, 4957*a*; Appendix 34. (7) W. Langridge, 7227–9. (8) G. A. Laws, 5181; Appendix 24. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 43; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 30, 31, 41, 133. (10) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 132, 134; R. Pomeroy, 13751-2. (11) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 31, 41, 133.

(1) W. Graffunder, 14110; Digest, Vol. I., p. 43. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 29, 131; J. Morrison, 11541. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 37. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 33, 35. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 71; Digest, Vol. II. pp. 130–4.

229 (*d.*)] danger" . . . . &c. Under the proposed amendment, picketing should be allowed to the extent of posting not more than three men at any one place, to explain the circumstances of the strike and use reasonable persuasion towards non-unionists. It should be illegal, however, to place pickets on board ship (1). Another witness recommended that picketing should be confined to two or three men, if not disallowed altogether. He referred to the system as "legalised intimidation," pointing out that few men had nerve enough to face a "howling mob" (2). Three witnesses proposed that all picketing should be made illegal. One of these pointed out that with the facilities which exist for diffusing information, picketing is no longer necessary for the purpose for which it was originally permitted, namely, to warn men of the existence of a strike. He stated moreover, that at present it was impossible to obtain a conviction under the Act for intimidation in the form of the assemblage of a disorderly crowd (3). Another witness stated that there was no foundation for the claim made by trade union leaders that picketing should be allowed to go on without interference, on the ground that its sole purpose is to persuade men to refrain from work. On the contrary, the witness stated, pickets were not selected for their eloquence, but for their size and strength. The argument employed was a threat in nine cases out of ten, and when it was not a threat it was nearly always ineffectual. The witness therefore drew the conclusion that terrorism and not persuasion was the main principle on which picketing was conducted during a strike. He recommended that it should be made illegal for any person to loiter in the vicinity of works or shipping offices on the occasion of a strike. The police should have power to arrest and proceed summarily against persons so doing, and magistrates should have no option but to pass sentences of imprisonment on proved offenders. It would not be difficult, he stated, for innocent people to prove that they were unconnected with the strike, but men concerned in it would be called upon to show their reason for hanging about a place where they had refused employment. It was urged that there would be no hardship in a law which would merely put a stop to the injustice of preventing men from accepting work rejected by others (4). Another witness proposed practically the same amendment in the law, by recommending the omission of the explanatory clause of Section 7 of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act. By two previous clauses it is illegal to "persistently follow" a person, or to "watch or beset" his house or place of business "with a view to compel him to abstain from doing . . . any act which such . . . person has a legal right to do," &c. But by the explanatory clause, "watching "or besetting" does not include "attending at or near the house . . , . . . &c., in order merely to obtain or communicate information." The phraseology of this clause, it is stated, makes conviction very difficult in certain cases where the fact of intimidation is evident.* The information intended by the framers of the Act was such as related to the circumstances of the dispute, but the information usually conveyed is, it is stated, equivalent to a threat, and intimidation of this kind has frequently been practised with impunity. It should be illegal, the witness contended in support of his suggestion, for men in numbers to beset the approaches to places where work is to be had, and by words or looks, or in any manner whatever, to give other men to understand that they will suffer through taking employment (1). Other witnesses were of opinion that the law as to picketing was too stringent, and that workmen had not sufficient power to protect their interests during a strike. Employers, it was stated, imported men without informing them of the circumstances of the case, and there was frequently no opportunity for the Union delegates to point out the facts to them. It was also maintained that under the Conspiracy Act convictions were too easily obtained against innocent persons, and that, so long as a man abstained from violence or threats, he ought not to be arrested for following another man and persuading him not to work. The term "intimidation" ought, it was pointed out, to be more clearly defined (2). With regard to the operation of the Act, it was stated that it frequently happened in the case of seamen, that no action could be brought under it, because the man assaulted or threatened had gone to sea and could not prosecute. It was suggested that magistrates should have power to convict on the evidence of other witnesses, and that the Board of Trade should prosecute. It was also stated that in Scotland, where prosecution under this Act rests with the procurator fiscal, there had been great remissness in giving effect to its provisions. The difficulty of obtaining evidence from intimidated persons was also referred to (3). [§ 229 (*d.*)]

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 71; G. A. Laws, 4965, 4968. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 71; H. C. Smith, 6357. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 131, 132, 133. (4) Digest, Vol II., pp. 131, 132.

* The following is Sir Frederick Pollock's interpretation of Section 7 :—"There is no doubt that the intention of this section was to draw the line between legitimate and illegitimate picketing. . . . The enactment is sufficiently clear, with one exception; and, subject to that exception, the difficulties that occur in its application are such difficulties in obtaining sufficient evidence against ascertained persons as cannot be abolished by the wisdom of any legislature or the skill of any draftsman. The exception lies in the word "intimidates." Must intimidation be a threat of something which, if executed, would be a criminal offence against person or tangible property? Or does it include the threat of doing that which would be civilly, though not criminally, wrongful? Or, lastly, can it include the announcement of an intent to do or cause to be done something which, without being in itself wrongful, is capable of putting moral compulsion on the person threatened? A specially constituted Court of the Queen's Bench Division, proceeding on the intention of Parliament as shown in the Trade Union Act of 1871, as well as in the Act of 1875, has pronounced the first of these interpretations to be the correct one."

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 132, 133. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 71. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 132.

GROUP B.

SUMMARY of the EVIDENCE, oral and written, received by GROUP B. of the ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

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NOTE.

IN accordance with a Resolution of the Commission, the Secretary was directed to prepare Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written) received by the Committees. This Evidence included :—

1. The Minutes of Evidence with Appendices.
2. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
3. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards.
4. The Rules of Accident, Sick, Insurance and Superannuation Funds handed in to the Commission.
5. Certain other Documents, handed in or forwarded to the Commission, but not printed with the above.

Under the head of "Transport by Land," these include:—

(i.) Detailed statements showing the Hours of Employment of, and Wages paid to, Mail Cart Drivers in the Service of the Post Office Contractors (McNamara & Co., Ltd., Jas. Allen, J. M. Birch, and C. Webster), supplied through Sir Michael Hicks-Beach.

(ii.) Return of Wages and Hours of Workpeople employed by the Caledonian Railway Company, received from the Board of Trade.

(iii.) Tables relating to the Wages of Persons in the employment of Railway Companies, received from the Board of Trade.

6. Further Correspondence on certain subjects.

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PART II.—TRANSPORT BY LAND.

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.*

1. WAGES.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF WAGES.

[§ 230.] TRANSPORT BY ROAD OTHER THAN BY RAILWAYS. Rates of wages.

230. Information with regard to the rates of wages of men employed in connection with omnibuses, tramways, hackney carriages, cars, drays, and lorries, has been obtained almost exclusively from the oral evidence given before the Commission. It appears from that evidence that in these industries there is considerable variation in rates of wages in different districts.

(a.) Omnibuses and tramways.

(*a.*) In the case of omnibus and tramway servants the wages of drivers are said to range between 3*s.* 9*d.* and 7*s.* 6*d.* a day, and those of conductors, between 2*s.* and 6*s.* The highest rates are paid in London, and the lowest in Sheffield and Nottingham. (1) With regard to London, the general statement was made by one witness that the wages of tramway men varied from 4*s.* to 6*s.*, and those of omnibus men from 3*s.* to 8*s.* a day. The former part of this statement is approximately confirmed by further and more detailed evidence, while the latter, if judged by the same standard, appears to furnish too low an estimate. The same witness expressed the opinion that the wages referred to were insufficient to meet necessary expenses, and that as a general principle an adequate subsistence wage (which in this case would be 2*l.* a week) should be paid in all industries not affected by foreign competition. (2) He stated that the wages of omnibus men had suffered from the introduction of long-distance penny fares by the London General Omnibus Company for the purpose of competition with the London Road Car Company, which had initiated certain reforms in omnibus traffic. The witness believed that the majority of the public would have no objection to the long-distance penny fares being increased to 2*d.* This would result in an increase of revenue which would enable the companies to raise wages without affecting dividends. (3) The secretary of the London General Omnibus Company was also of opinion that increased fares might to a limited extent add to the company's revenue. (4) The manager of the London Road Car Company, though convinced that the existing fares were too low, considered that the experiment of raising them would be one of extreme risk. (5) The wages paid by omnibus and tramway companies in London are adjusted on a sliding scale according to length of service. In the case of the London General Omnibus Company, the London Road Car Company, and the London Omnibus Carriage Company, an advance of 6*d.* a day is given after a year's service, and the London General Omnibus Company gives a further advance of 1*s.* after the second year's service. (6) The North Metropolitan Tramways Company gives an advance of 1*s.* 6*d.* in the course of a year, by successive steps, and the London, Deptford, and Greenwich Tramways Company gives an advance of 1*s.* to drivers after four years', and 9*d.* to conductors after three years' service. (7) It was stated by the general secretary of the Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union, that the men had objected to this sliding scale at the time of its introduction, and had protested against it in the strike of 1891, though without result. In his opinion the effect of the scale is that old servants are dismissed in favour of cheaper labour. (8) Another witness, the treasurer of the same organisation, supported this statement, and added that the men engaged to fill the places of the older servants were brought up by advertisement from the country. In his opinion, wages should in all cases be equal for an equal amount of labour. (1) The secretary of the London General Omnibus Company denied that it was the practice of that company to dismiss men in order to evade the increase of pay under the sliding scale. (2) The general statement was however reiterated by the president of the Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union. (3) Sunday work, at the ordinary rate of wages, is the rule rather than the exception on tramways and omnibuses in London, but the employés of the London General Omnibus Company have one Sunday off in six, and in all cases it appears that holidays can usually be obtained either on Sundays or week days, with loss of pay. (4) The North Metropolitan Tramways Company, it is stated, pay their men a shilling a day extra for three days at each of the public holiday times, when there is an increase of traffic. (5) With regard to the wages of omnibus and tramway servants in provincial towns, the evidence related chiefly to the district embraced by the Northern Counties Amalgamated Tramways and Hackney Carriage Employés Association, namely, East Lancashire and the greater part of Yorkshire, and Nottingham. The general statement was made that rates of wages differed in almost every town in the district, varying from 20*s.* to 32*s.* 8*d.* a week for drivers, and from 18*s.* to 28*s.* a week for conductors. (6) Special reference was made to the conditions of labour on the Huddersfield Corporation steam tramways, of which a further account is given below, under the head of State and Municipal Employment. In this case the wages for an eight hours' day are 4*s.* 4*d.* for drivers, and 3*s.* 6*d.* for conductors. The hourly rate for the latter is thus 5½*d.*, which has been compared with the average of 6*d.* an hour on the North Metropolitan Tramways. (7) It may be noted, however, that in the latter case, the hourly rate for drivers is also 6*d.*, while at Huddersfield it is 6½*d.* The difference between the total averages is thus only ½*d.* (8) It was pointed out by the manager of the Huddersfield Corporation tramways, that though the wages of tramway servants were certainly higher in London than in provincial towns, the comparison was unfair. In the case of Huddersfield they compared very favourably with the wages of similar classes of labour in the district. (9) In most cases there is Sunday work without extra payment, except at Huddersfield and Edinburgh, where there is no Sunday work at all. (10) The Birmingham Central Tramways Company pays overtime after 12 hours at the rate of time and a half. (11) With regard to the wages of persons other than drivers and conductors, employed by omnibus and tramway companies, it was stated that the usual wages of ticket inspectors in London were 2*l.* a week (12). The wages of horsekeepers in London are in most cases 4*s.* a day, but in the case of the North Metropolitan Tramways Company this was stated as the maximum, the minimum being 3*s.* 6*d.* (13) In Manchester and the north of England generally, horsekeepers are paid at a piece-work rate of 2*s.* 3*d.* a week per horse, earning from 18*s.* to 33*s.* 9*d.* a week. In a few instances, Sunday labour is paid at a penny a horse extra. (14) Washers are paid by the London Road Car Company at a piece-work rate of 4*s.* a week per car, but the wages of washers and track men employed by the North Metropolitan Tramways Company are the same as those of horsekeepers. (15) The rates of wages of drivers and conductors in different districts have been tabulated as follows:— [§ 230 (*a.*)]

* The few suggestions with regard to the publication of statistics, given in the oral and written evidence, have been dealt with in the Summary of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, under the head of "Labour Department."

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25, Jackson, 17,912. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 64. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 20. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 23, 25, 36. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 22. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXLV. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 67.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 69. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 20. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 30. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 21, 36. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 21. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 18. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 22. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 26. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 18, 19; Answers, &c., No. 329, p. 7. (11) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXLVIII. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (13) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 20, 22, 23. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 18. (15) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 22, 23.

[§ 230 (a.)]

TABLE showing the Rates of Wages of Omnibus and Tramway Servants in different Districts, arranged in Descending Order.*

[§ 230 (c.)]

Reference.	District, &c.	Class of Labour.				Remarks.
		Drivers.		Conductors.		
		Rate per Day.	Rate per Week.	Rate per Day.	Rate per Week.	
		s. d.	£ s. d.	s. d.	£ s. d.	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 25.	London Omnibus Carriage Company.	7 3	[2 10 9]†	5 9	[2 0 3]	The wages of drivers begin at 7s., and of conductors at 5s. 6d., both receiving an advance of 6d. after a year's service.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 20, 28, 29, 36.	London General Omnibus Company.	6 8	[2 6 8]	5 2	[1 16 2]	Wages are adjusted on a scale according to term of service. For drivers the scale begins at 6s., rising in two years to 6s. 6d. and 7s. 6d.; for conductors it begins at 4s. 6d., rising to 5s. and 6s. The arithmetic mean of these amounts has been taken.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 23.	London Road Car Company	6 3	[2 3 9]	4 9	[1 13 3]	The scale for drivers begins at 6s., rising in a year to 6s. 3d. and 6s. 6d. For conductors the scale begins at 4s. 6d. and rises to 5s. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 21, 22. R. L. Adamson, 18,258.	North Metropolitan Tramways Company.	5 8	[1 19 8]	5 5·41	[1 18 2]	The scale for drivers and conductors rises in a year from 4s. 6d. to 6s. The daily rates given are stated as averages in the evidence.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 18.	Burnley Tramways Company.	—	1 18 0	—	1 2 0	It is stated that the men have every fourth day as a holiday, with payment. The wages for an actual working day are thus about 7s. 2d. and 4s. 2d. respectively.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 32.	South Staffordshire Steam Tramways Company.	5 6	—	3 6	—	The rates given are stated as averages in the evidence.
App. 145 - -	London, Deptford, and Greenwich Tramways Company.	5 0	[1 15 0]	4 7½	[1 12 4½]	The scale of wages for drivers rises from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 6d. in four years, and for conductors from 4s. 3d. to 5s. in three years. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
G. T. Jackson, 17,912.	Rochdale Tramways -	5 0	[1 15 0]	[3 0]	1 1 0	In this case the rate of wages for drivers was stated to be "from 4s. 6d. to 5s. 6d. a day." The arithmetic mean has therefore been taken.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 32.	Croydon Tramways Company (horse).	4 6	—	3 7½	—	The scale for drivers begins at 4s. and rises to 5s.; for conductors it begins at 3s. and rises to 4s. 3d. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
G. T. Jackson, 7912.	Bury Tramways - -	4 6	[1 7 0]	[3 2]	0 19 0	The wages of drivers were stated to be "from 4s. to 5s. a day."
Digest, Vol. III., p. 18.	Manchester Carriage and Tramway Company (horse).	4 4	[1 10 4]	3 8½	[1 6 0]	The scale of wages rises in a year from 4s. to 4s. 8d. for drivers, and from 3s. 6d. to 3s. 8d. and 4s. for conductors. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
G. T. Jackson, 17,926.	Liverpool Tramway Company.	4 4	[1 10 4]	3 8½	[1 6 0]	It was stated that a few men in Liverpool obtained 5s. a day, but that for the most part wages were the same as in Manchester.
App. 148 - -	Birmingham Central Tramways Company—					
	Omnibuses and Cable Trams.	—	—	3 9	—	Rates of pay for drivers are not stated,
	Steam and Electric Trams.	—	—	3 6	—	
G. T. Jackson, 17,912.	Sheffield (omnibuses) -	4 4	[1 6 0]	[2 4]	0 14 0‡	The rate of wages of drivers was stated to be "from 4s. 2d. to 4s. 6d. a day."
G. T. Jackson, 17,910.	Huddersfield Corporation Tramways (steam).	4 4	[1 6 0]	3 6	[1 1 0]	An eight hours' day is worked, six days a week.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. G. T. Jackson, 17,912.	Bolton (tramways) - -	[4 0¾]	[1 8 5¼]	[3 0]	1 1 0	The wages of conductors are stated to be 21s. a week, which is said to be equivalent to 2¾d. an hour, working 13 hours a day, *i.e.*, 3s. a day. This gives the number of days worked in the week, and thus the wages of drivers are obtained from the hourly rate stated in the evidence, namely 3¾d.
Answers, &c., No. 329, p. 7.	Edinburgh Street Tramway Company.	[4 0]	1 4 0	[3 4]	1 0 0	The wages of drivers were stated to range from 21s. to 27s., and of conductors from 15s. to 25s. a week, but with very few at the highest rate in each case. There is no Sunday work.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 34. App. 184.	Dublin United Tramways Company.	3 9	[1 6 3]	3 3	[1 2 9]	The average wages of drivers, calculated for the week ending July 27th, 1892, were stated to be 26s. 1½d., and of conductors 22s. 10¾d., thus differing very slightly from the estimate here obtained from the daily wages.
G. T. Jackson, 17,912.	Nottingham (tramways) -	[3 11]	1 3 6	[2 6]	0 15 0	It was stated that the "average wage" of drivers was from 21s. to 26s., and of conductors from 12s. to 18s. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
G. T. Jackson, 17,912.	Sheffield (tramways) -	3 9	[1 2 6]	[2 4]	0 14 0	The wages of drivers were said to be "from 3s. 6d. to 4s. a day," and of conductors from 10s. to 18s. a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken.

* The descending order is strictly followed in the case of the daily wages of drivers only.

† The figures not enclosed in brackets are those stated in the evidence; the figures enclosed in brackets are not stated in the evidence, but have been obtained from the data which it supplies, and inserted for purposes of comparison.

‡ In a letter received July 26th, 1893, Mr. Jackson stated that the wages of omnibus conductors in Sheffield were the same as those of tramway conductors, namely, from 10s. to 18s. a week. The figures enclosed in brackets, relating to the rates of wages in Bury, Sheffield, and Nottingham are based on the statement in the same letter that the week's work in these cases consists of six days.

(b.) Hackney carriages.

(*b.*) The difference between the terms of employment of cab-drivers in London and in provincial towns prevents any exact comparison of the conditions of labour. In London the cab-driver is not a servant in receipt of wages, but a lessee who pays a certain price daily to the proprietor for the hire of the cab, and reserves the remainder of his earnings. (1) Thus it is impossible to specify any "standard wage" for the London cab trade. A man may sometimes work at an actual loss, and sometimes earn 4*l.* net in a day. (2) Earnings vary according to the kind and quality of vehicle, place of stabling, season, and other conditions. The average net weekly earnings of the 13,000 men holding drivers' licenses within the metropolitan police district (excluding proprietors of cabs) were estimated by the secretary of the London Cabdrivers' Society at 30*s.* (1) Another witness expressed the opinion that not more than 5 per cent. of London cabdrivers could be considered solvent. (2) In suburban districts a few drivers receive wages, some 20*s.* to 25*s.* a week, others 10*s.* with a commission on their earnings. (3) In the south-eastern suburbs cab-owners allow their drivers 3*s.* a day out of their takings, with luggage money at 2*d.* a package as a perquisite. It was estimated by a witness representing a firm of owners that the average weekly earnings of the men were 19*s.* 6*d.*, but with luggage money 25*s.* or 30*s.* might

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 70. (2) Dyke, 16,599, 16,608-9.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 37. (2) Dyke, 16,613. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 37.

[§ 230 (b.)] sometimes be earned (1) The wages of washers and horsekeepers in London are 32*s.* a week, and of painters 30*s.* a week. (2) In many provincial towns cab-drivers are paid weekly wages, and in some cases wages and a commission. The secretary of the London Cab-drivers' Society stated that the latter system prevailed in Manchester, and was found to work very well, the earnings amounting to about 32*s.* a week. (3) On the other hand, it was stated by a witness representing the Northern Counties Amalgamated Tramways and Hackney Carriage Employés Association, that cab-drivers in Manchester were paid weekly wages only, at an average rate of 15*s.*, but in a few cases amounting to 21*s.* They depend on the public to make up their wages, and sometimes earn altogether 30*s.*, 35*s.*, or 2*l.* a week, but the witness considered the system extremely unjust. (4) The average wages at Bolton were stated to be 14*s.* a week, and at Nottingham 18*s* (5) Horsekeepers in cab yards in this district are paid on the same terms as those in omnibus and tram yards, at 2*s.* 3*d.* a week per horse. (6)

(c.) Cars, drays, and lorries.

(*c.*) The wages of carmen, draymen, and lorrymen were stated to be extremely low on the whole, owing to the fact of the trade being entirely open. The evidence shows, however, that the variation in rates of wages in different districts and under different employers is very considerable. The secretary of the London Carmen's Trade Union stated that the average weekly wages of general carmen in London were from 24*s.* to 24*s.* 6*d.* By "general carmen" he understood those who drive heavy traffic as distinguished from light vans. For job work they are paid 4*d.* or 4½*d.* an hour, or 3*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.* a day, and 2*s.* 6*d.* a night. These rates of wages are below the standard of the Carmen's Union, which aims at establishing a minimum of 28*s.* a week for one horse, 30*s.* for two horses, and 32*s.* for three horses, with overtime at 9*d.* an hour. These terms, it was stated, had been conceded by a few private firms. (7) Wages were said to be lowest in the case of newly imported country labour, which was paid by some firms at the rate of 18*s.* to 20*s.* a week, and in the case of carmen employed by the Post Office contractors, who paid them from 16*s.* to 21*s.* a week. Of these contractors it was stated that Mr. Webster's firm paid the lowest wages, partly through employing a large proportion of boys. (1) On the other hand, details were furnished as to the wages paid by these contractors, in certain returns and summaries supplied by the Post Office. From these statements it appears that the lowest wages paid are 18*s.* a week, and the highest 3*l.*, the average being 23*s.* 4*d.* a week. Only four men are employed at 18*s.*, and only one at 3*l.* One of these contractors pays a minimum wage of 25*s.* It was pointed out that the wages paid by Mr. Webster were rather lower than those paid by the other contractors, and that his contract with the Department was also lower for the same class of work. (2) The secretary of the National Municipal and Incorporated Vestry Employés Labour Union stated that the carmen employed by vestries and local boards in London were divided into two classes, general and dust carmen, the former being paid weekly and the latter by the piece. Weekly wages vary under the vestries from 24*s.* to 29*s.* 3*d.*, and under the local boards from 18*s.* to 26*s.* It will be observed that the former are the highest and the latter about the lowest wages paid to carmen in London. It was stated that higher wages were frequently paid by poor than by rich parishes. On piece-work, under contractors, the men receive about 10*s.* or 15*s.* a week or less, and supplement their wages by tips and perquisites. In some cases the union has succeeded in substituting a weekly wage for this system, and also in obtaining an extra rate of 6*d.* an hour for overtime. (3) In provincial towns the wages of carmen and draymen vary from 18*s.* to 20*s.* at Bradford (under the contractors employed by the corporation) to 28*s.* in Manchester (the maximum wages of railway lorrymen). Some firms in Manchester were said to pay as low a wage as 16*s.* for coal carting, but this appears to be exceptional, the standard rate being 24*s.* Overtime after 60 hours a week is paid at a slightly advanced rate by the Midland and London and North-Western Railway Companies in Manchester, but the system of "playing off" overtime, adopted by the firm of Messrs. Thompson, McKay, and Co., is said to be preferred by the majority of the men. (4) The rates of wages of carmen, draymen, and lorrymen in different districts, have been tabulated as follows, London being taken separately, and other districts in descending order. [§ 230 (c.)]

TABLE showing the Rates of Wages of Carmen, Draymen, &c., in different Districts and Employments arranged in Descending Order.

Reference.	District.	Employers.	Weekly Wages. Minimum.	Maximum.	Mean.	Remarks.
	LONDON:		*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 46.		Vestries	24 0	29 3	26 7½	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 45.		General Contractors	24 0	24 6	24 3	
Memorandum received from the Post Office Ballard, 17,811*a*.		Post Office Contractors:—				
		Mr. J. Allen	25 0	30 0	[27 6]	Average.* 25*s.* 3*d.* — General average.
		Messrs. McNamara & Co.	21 0	60 0	[40 6]	23*s.* 6*d.* — 23*s.* 4*d.*
		Mr. J. M. Birch	20 0	48 0	[34 0]	22*s.* 10*d.*
		Mr. C. Webster	18 0	30 0	[24 0]	20*s.* 5*d.*
Digest, Vol. III., p. 45.		Railway Companies	22 0	24 0	23 0	
		Messrs. Pickford & Co.	21 0	25 0	23 0	
		Messrs. Smither & Son	21 0	24 0	22 6	
		Messrs. Johnson & Sons	20 0	24 0	22 0	
		Mr. Finch	21 0	23 0	22 0	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 46.		Local Boards	18 0	26 0	22 0	
	MANCHESTER:	Railway Companies (2-horse lorries).	24 0	28 0	26 0†	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 47.	GLASGOW:	Cart Contractors	21 0	28 0	24 6	
J. Kelly, 18,622	MANCHESTER:	Railway Companies (1-horse lorries).	21 0	25 0	23 0†	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 47.	GREENOCK:	Cart Contractors	20 0	24 0	22 0	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 46.	MANCHESTER:	Colliery Companies and other employers of coal carters.	16 0	24 0‡	20 0	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 47.	BRADFORD:	Van contractors	18 0	20 0	19 0	

* It may be observed that the true average wage, in the only cases where it is stated, is considerably below the mean rate of wages.
† In these cases wages rise from the minimum to the maximum in the course of two years' service. In no other case is the principle of adjustment stated.
‡ This was stated to be "the standard rate of wages in Manchester for coal carting."

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 42. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 37. (4) Jackson, 17,908. (5) Jackson, 17,912. (6) Jackson, 17,908. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 44, 45. Appendix 122.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (2) Ballard, 17,811*a*. (Memorandum on Statements by Mr. Ballard.) (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 3. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47.

[§ 231.] Fluctuations of wages.

231. The evidence given with regard to fluctuations of wage in this industry related chiefly to the wages of omnibus and tramway servants. A witness who had been employed in London, Liverpool, Sheffield and Aberdeen, made the general statement that the wages of tramway men in London had considerably increased in the previous three or four years. (1) On the introduction of the ticket system in 1891 it is stated that the servants of the London General Omnibus Company received an advance of 1*s.* a day all round. After the strike in that year, however, the drivers' wages fell 6*d.* a day, and remained at 6*s.* 6*d.*, while the conductors' wages remained at 5*s.* (2) After this strike the London Road Car Company raised the wages of conductors from 4*s.* to 4*s.* 6*d.* for the first year of service, and those of horsekeepers from 3*s.* 5*d.* to 4*s.*, those of drivers remaining at 6*s.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* (3) The London Omnibus Carriage Company gave an advance of 1*s.* a day to drivers and conductors after the strike. (4) The average wages paid by the North Metropolitan Tramways Company rose gradually after the strike from about 5*s.* to about 5*s.* 8*d.* for drivers, and from about 4*s.* 8*d.* to 5*s.* 5½*d.* for conductors. (5) In 1888 the Huddersfield Corporation reduced the wages of the men employed on their steam tramways in consequence of a reduction of hours from 12 to 8 a day. The men, it is stated, willingly accepted the terms offered, involving a reduction from 32*s.* to 26*s.* a week for drivers and from 23*s.* to 21*s.* for conductors. After three years a demand was made by the drivers for a rise of wages, and the matter was compromised by the older drivers receiving an extra shilling an hour on the heaviest gradients. These terms came into force in April 1892. (6) An agitation in December 1887, among the servants of the Birmingham Central Tramways Company, resulted in an increase of conductors' wages from 3*s.* to 4*s.* in the case of those who had been two years in the service. (7) The South Staffordshire Tramways Company in 1891 forestalled agitation by certain concessions, raising the wages of drivers from an average of 4*s.* 11*d.* to an average of 5*s.* 6*d.* a day, and of conductors from 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* (8) With regard to fluctuations in the wages of carmen, very little evidence was given. It was stated that the National, Municipal, and Incorporated Vestry Employés Union had succeeded in raising the wages of carmen employed by vestries at Islington and Chelsea, a weekly wage of 24*s.* being now paid instead of 7*s.*, 10*s.*, or 15*s.*, which the men were supposed to supplement by tips and perquisites. (9)

Method of calculating wages.

232. The wages of tramway and omnibus men are in nearly all cases calculated by the day, though generally paid weekly. Horsekeepers, however, in Manchester and other towns in the North of England, are paid at piece-work rates. (10) It was stated that the practice of paying weekly wages to carmen in private employment was less usual than formerly in London, and that in most instances the men were engaged for the day, and paid by the day or hour according to the length of the job. The reason for the change was said to be the fact that the Carmen's Union had sometimes succeeded in recovering wages in the county court in cases of dismissal without notice. (11) With regard to carmen employed by vestries and local boards, it was stated that "general carmen" were paid weekly, and dust carmen by the piece, but that it was becoming the practice to pay weekly wages to the latter also. (12) Certain colliery companies in Manchester are said to pay their coal carters on a trip system, but the usual method in that district is to calculate wages by the week. (13)

Method of payment.

233. The only references in the evidence to the payment of wages through a contractor were in connection with the carmen employed by vestries and local boards in London, and by the Bradford Corporation. It was stated that of 26 vestries, 19 employed carmen directly, and seven through contractors; while of 15 local boards, about six employed directly, and nine through contractors. It had been estimated in 1890 that about 15,000 men were in the direct employment of the vestries, and 10,000 were under contractors, but it was stated that a change had since taken place through the growing tendency on the part of the vestries to discourage the contract system. The abolition of this system is among the objects of the Vestry Employés Labour Union, and it has succeeded in some cases in effecting it, and in others the vestry has been induced to insist on the contractor paying fair wages. It was stated that the conditions of labour both in respect of wages and hours were worse where the contract system prevailed (1). It was stated that the terms of employment under the horse and cart contractors employed by the Bradford Corporation were very disadvantageous to the men. (2) [§ 233.]

Allowances and deductions.

234. A report from the Post Office mail cart supervisor, forwarded to the Commission by that Department, stated that the mail cart contractors made small allowances to the drivers in addition to wages, for extra trips performed during rest hours, and also in some cases gave good conduct bonuses. Mail cart drivers are also, it was stated, supplied annually by the Department with uniform clothing. (3) Several witnesses representing omnibus and tramway servants referred to the subject of deductions from wages. It was stated that the London General Omnibus Company obliged their men to contribute 1*s.* a week to a fund for the repair of omnibuses in cases of accident. One witness stated from professional knowledge that the practice was a violation of the Truck Act. (4) The general secretary of the Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union confirmed the statement that the fund was maintained out of the men's wages, and added that they had no control over it and derived no benefit from it. The company did not contribute to the fund, and the men had no knowledge of the amount accumulated. (5) The secretary of the London General Omnibus Company denied, however, that any hardship existed in connection with it. An omnibus proprietor, he stated, is legally liable to the extent of 10*l.* for damages caused by the carelessness of a driver, who may be compelled to refund the sum. The subscription to the accident fund covers that liability. (6) It was further stated by a witness who had been for 20 years a driver in the service of the company, that the subscription was not stopped out of wages, but that the men paid it themselves, and the majority of them were convinced that the system prevented recklessness. The subscription is 1*s.* a week for drivers, and 6*d.* for conductors. The fund is managed, the witness stated, by the road director, who issues a quarterly statement of accounts. Two drivers and two conductors are on the committee of management, and see all the bills for accidents. The balance of the fund, or part of it, is divided among the men at the end of the year. The witness stated that he had never had deductions made from his wages on any pretext. (7) It was stated that on one line of omnibuses belonging to the London Omnibus Carriage Company, the men were fined 6*d.* if the earnings for the day were below 2*l.* The general manager of the company stated, however, that on the contrary a bonus of 6*d.* was paid whenever the earnings reached 2*l.*, which is the lowest return that yields any profit to the company. (8) It was stated by two witnesses that until very recently a practice of excessive and unjustifiable fining was carried on by certain tramway companies. Nothing, it was stated, had contributed more than this system to driving the men into organisation. In 1889 the efforts of a union which then existed brought about its practical abolition. (9) These statements were denied so far as they applied to the North Metropolitan Tramways Company, who, it was stated, had not inflicted fines on their servants for many years past. (10) In this case, however, deductions are made from wages for loss and damage of equipment through negligence on the part of the men; and also if money paid in is below the right amount through errors in the conductor's casting up. These errors, it is stated, amount to 2*l.* or 3*l.* on a gross receipt of 7,000*l.* or 8,000*l.* A report on them is presented to the general manager by the inspector or district superintendent, and the men have the option of challenging any debit. (11) It was stated that certain tramway companies in Lancashire and Yorkshire had a practice of inflicting fines of from 1*s.* to 10*s.* for such offences as being late on duty, or failing to notice an intending passenger. In Manchester these fines are not levied, but it is complained that the men are unjustly held liable for damage to the company's vehicles, and are dismissed if they fail to pay for it. To protect themselves they pay a weekly

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 68. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 20. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 21. Adamson, 18238–60. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 25, 26. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65; Digest, Vol. III., p. 18. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. Ballard, 17,811a. (Memorandum.) (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 67. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 28. (8) Sutherst, 15,756. Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 65, 68. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 21. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 22.

[§ 234.] sum to cover any damage that may have occurred. (1) It was stated that in the majority of Manchester breweries fines were imposed on draymen for neglect of duty. In the case of one firm the amount of fine imposed was said to vary from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 4*s.*, and it was stated that any man whose case was taken into court was instantly dismissed. Horse and cart contractors at Bradford, it was stated, deduct 6*d.* a week from wages in payment for chopped hay for the horses. (2)

RAILWAYS. Sources of information.

235. Evidence with regard to rates of wages on railways was given before the Select Committee on Railway Servants (Hours of Labour), and both in an oral and written form before the Commission. Owing, however, to the want of uniformity and completeness in these statements, it was found advisable to adopt as the basis of the following table certain information supplied by the Board of Trade. That information is in the form of a tabulated statement of the number of men employed in the specified grades of railway service by the principal companies in the United Kingdom, grouped in ten districts, the men being classed according to the weekly rates of wages, which rates were stated as ranging between specified limits. Thus the wages of porters on the Great Northern and Great Eastern Railways were stated in the following manner:— [§ 235.]

Limits of rates of wages:—

	Men.
Over 25*s.* and up to 30*s.*	4
Over 20*s.* and up to 25*s.*	66
Over 15*s.* and up to 20*s.*	2,165
Total	2,235

Method of dealing with information.

236. In making use of these tables for the present purpose the arithmetic mean of the maximum and minimum rates for each class was taken as the average, and that sum, multiplied by the number of men specified, as the aggregate wages for each class. From the total number of men and the total aggregate wages, an approximate average wage for the whole grade was then obtained. The same method was pursued throughout. In the following table the wages of engine-drivers, the most highly paid section of the staff below the grade of stationmasters, are arranged in descending order, which order is disregarded in the case of the remaining grades.

TABLE showing the Weekly Rates of Wages paid in 1891 to the under-mentioned Grades in the Service of the Principal Railway Companies, grouped according to Districts.

	Locomotive Department.		Coaching Department.							Goods Department.	
	Engine Drivers.	Firemen.	Foremen.	Porters.	Shunters.	Passenger Guards.	Goods Guards and Brakesmen.	Ticket Collectors and Examiners.	Signalmen.	Porters.	Shunters.
	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*	*s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *d.*	£ *s.* *s.*	£ *s.* *d.*
North London, Metropolitan, and Metropolitan District Railways.	2 8 9¼	1 8 8½	1 2 9½	17 8¾	1 2 4½	1 6 9½	1 5 5½	1 1 2¼	1 5 6¾	1 0 6	—
North Eastern, Lancashire and Yorkshire, and Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railways.	2 0 6¾	1 3 10¾	1 2 3¾	17 8½	1 1 2	1 5 10½	1 6 7¾	1 1 0¾	1 3 0	0 19 8	1 1 2
London and South Western, London and Brighton, South Eastern, and Chatham and Dover Railways.	2 0 6	1 3 7	1 3 9½	17 9¾	0 19 11	1 5 0½	1 4 6¾	1 1 4¾	1 2 4½	1 0 0	1 2 6
London and North Western and Midland Railways.	2 0 5	1 3 10	1 5 7½	17 11	1 0 2¾	1 7 1	—	1 2 3¾	1 3 9	0 19 5½	1 2 1¾
Great Northern and Great Eastern Railways.	2 0 4	1 3 10	1 3 6¾	17 8	1 1 2½	1 4 10½	—	1 1 0	1 1 9¾	0 18 4½	1 2 0
Great Western and Taff Vale Railways.	1 19 10	1 2. 7¾	1 5 9	18 4¾	1 0 9	1 5 8½	—	1 0 2½	1 2 5	1 0 2¾	1 1 7½
Midland Great Western, Great Southern and Western, Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford, and Waterford and Central Ireland Railways.	1 18 7½	1 0 2	0 18 8½	14 9½	0 18 9½	1 1 2½	1 1 5¾	0 18 4½	0 19 0½	0 15 9¾	0 18 8½
Great Northern of Ireland, Belfast and Northern Counties, and Belfast and County Down Railways.	1 18 2	0 19 8½	0 18 1½	12 8¼	0 16 4½	1 1 3	1 1 0	0 15 5	0 17 1	0 15 5¾	0 19 1
Caledonian, Great North of Scotland, and Highland Railways.	1 14 5½	1 1 0	1 2 0	17 10½	1 5 8½	1 4 7	1 5 1¾	0 19 11½	1 0 9½	0 19 10¾	1 0 10¼
North British, and Glasgow and South Western Railways.	1 13 5	1 0 6	1 3 1¾	17 8½	1 5 5½	1 7 2	1 5 5	0 19 0½	1 1 7¼	0 18 9¾	1 1 8½

Rates of wages.

237. The evidence given on the subject of wages before the Select Committee and the Commission was not sufficiently complete or systematic to admit of comparison point by point with the statements summarised in the above table, but so far as it goes it corroborates that information with remarkable closeness. (3) The evidence on both occasions with regard to the comparative lowness of wages on Irish railways is seen to be borne out here, but in this connection it was stated before the Commission by the representative of an Irish railway company, that the wages of their staff were from 10 to 50 per cent. in excess of the local rates. (4) A few of the details given before the Commission by the secretary of the Irish branch of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants may be compared with the tabulated statement. The wages of foremen were said to range from 17*s.* 6*d.* to 31*s.* 6*d.*, those of porters from 7*s.* or 8*s.*, for juniors, to 17*s.* 6*d.*, those of shunters from 13*s.* to 23*s.*, passenger guards from 18*s.* to 25*s.*, goods guards and brakesmen from 17*s.* 6*d.* to 25*s.* 6*d.*, signalmen from 14*s.* to 23*s.* 6*d.*, goods porters from 13*s.* to 18*s.*, engine-drivers from 3*s.* a day (on one line only) to 7*s.* 6*d.*, and firemen from 1*s.* 8*d.* (on one line only) to 4*s.* (1) It was pointed out by another witness that since this statement did not include the numbers paid at each rate, it failed to convey an idea of the true average. (2) The lowness of wages in railway workshops and in the permanent-way department on Scotch railways was said to be a great cause of complaint. With regard to railway wages generally it was stated that they were above the usual standard, but that the style of living was also higher than in most employments. (3) The general manager of the London and North Western Railway was of opinion that railway labour was on the whole adequately remunerated, in view of the financial position of some of the companies, and the fact that men usually enter the service as unskilled workmen. (4) A statement handed in by this witness, of the average rates of wages paid to the principal grades on the London and North Western Railway in the years 1881 and 1891, showed in nearly every case a higher, though for the most part only slightly higher, rate for 1891 than the average given in the above table for that railway and the Midland together. Thus the wages of engine-drivers were 2*l.* 0*s.* 11*d.* a week, of firemen 1*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*, of porters 17*s.* 10*d.*, of passenger shunters 1*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.*, of passenger guards 1*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.*, of ticket

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 497-501; Digest, Vol. III., p. 79; Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 355, p. 17. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 498; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 80, 86.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 86. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 49. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 53.

[§ 237.] collectors 1*l.* 2*s.* 11*d.*, of signalmen 1*l.* 7*s.* 5*d.* (including bonuses and extra payments), of goods porters 1*l.* 0*s.* 8*d.*, and of goods shunters 1*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* (1).

Fluctuations of wages.

238. There was little evidence with regard to fluctuations of wages on railways, and it was stated before the Select Committee by the general manager of the London and North Western Railway, that no reduction of wages had taken place on that line within his memory. References were made to recent advances in the wages of shunters and engine-drivers on the Great Western, of platelayers and spare guards on the North Eastern (on the occasion of the Newcastle settlement of 1890), of guards, brakesmen, and shunters on the Caledonian, and of locomotive men on the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway. In Ireland advances had also been granted to passenger and goods guards on the Midland Great Western Railway, and to all grades on the Great Southern and Western Railway, in consequence of a strike. (2) Evidence was given before the Commission as to recent advances in wages on the London and North Western, the Caledonian, the North British, the Great Northern of Ireland, and Irish railways generally. On the London and North Western Railway it was stated that agitations and strikes had taken place in the goods department in London and Liverpool, in 1871 and 1872, after which advances of wages were given which caused permanent satisfaction. The general manager stated further that between 1888 and 1891 the increase in wages was approximately 200,000*l.*, and that if it continued at the same rate, the effect must ultimately be felt by the public. (3) From the statement already referred to, showing the average rates of wages on this railway in 1881 and 1891, it appeared that an increase had taken place in the wages of all grades employed in the working of the traffic, varying from 4 to 9 per cent., with the exception of an increase of about 1 per cent. in the case of goods porters, and 18 per cent. in the case of pointsmen and signalmen. (4) On the Caledonian and North British Railways, concessions in wages were made at the time of the agitations in 1883 and 1890, but it was stated that great dissatisfaction was caused by this policy, which was regarded as an evasion of the question of reduction of hours. (5)

Method of calculating wages.

239. In the majority of cases the wages of railway servants are calculated by the week, but in the locomotive department various methods prevail. Day work was said to be usual on the Great Eastern and North Eastern, and other railways, and very general in Ireland. (6) The trip system exists on the London and North Western, the Lancashire and Yorkshire, and the Midland Railways, and in some cases in Scotland. Evidence was given before the Select Committee with regard to the effect of this system on earnings, and several witnesses objected to it on the ground that the time allowed for the trip was frequently insufficient to work the trains, and that overtime was thus necessarily worked without extra pay, while on the other hand deductions were made if the trains ran within the booked time (7). It was stated, however, by the general manager of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, to which the evidence on this point chiefly referred, that the trip payment was based on a calculation of the average actual time of working, that the full amount was always paid, and that any applications for extra pay on account of unavoidable detention were complied with in the very large majority of cases. It was further stated both on the part of this company and the London and North Western, that a comparison of the wages earned on the trip system with those which would have been paid for the actual time worked, showed a difference in favour of the men. The trip system was said to be popular with drivers, and a great incentive to keeping good time. (8) It was stated before the Commission by witnesses representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, that engine drivers and firemen on the Caledonian and North British Railways were paid by the hour, a system which resulted in short payment for a fortnight's work if the aggregate hours were below the standard. (9) On the other hand it was stated by a witness in the service of the Caledonian Railway Company that neither payment by the hour nor short payment for less than full work existed on that line, and the general manager of the North British Railway Company pointed out that short payment occurred only when traffic was slack, the alternative being to discharge a portion of the staff. (1)

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLXIV. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 498-501. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 53, 54. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLXIV. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 60, 66. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 498, 499, 501. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 497. (8) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 498, 500. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 59, 68.

[§ 239.]

Deductions and allowances.

240. Complaints were made by several witnesses representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, with regard to deductions from wages in the form of fines, which, it was stated, were frequently excessive or unjustly imposed. They are exacted on the ground of negligence, unpunctuality, and so forth. It was stated that a number of porters at New Street Station, Birmingham, were on one occasion fined 2*s.* each for being 15 minutes late on duty, and that guards and brakesmen employed by the London and North Western Railway Company were habitually fined for slight offences with the object of depriving them of leave of absence. (2) It was also stated that on Irish railways, and on the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway, engine-drivers were fined as much as 5*l.* for such an offence as running into a buffer-stop. Though this is a serious piece of negligence, it was pointed out that under a system of fines an employer might oblige a man to work for nothing. There was also said to be a rule laid down by some Irish companies, by which they claim the right to deduct from the wages of a man leaving the service a sum representing any damage done to property which he has held as a workman of the company. (3) With regard to these complaints, it was stated on the part of the companies that no fines were ever inflicted without sufficient reason, and that the statement as to fining for the purpose of depriving men of leave of absence was incorrect. (4) In a letter received from the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway Company, it was contended that the fine referred to was not regarded as excessive in the case of grave negligence on the part of a highly responsible and well-paid workman, and as the only alternative to dismissal. (5) The practice of different companies varies slightly with regard to the bonuses and other allowances granted to the staff, but in most cases uniform is provided, and houses are let at moderate rents to station-masters, signalmen, and others, whose duties require them to reside where accommodation is not easily to be had. Special facilities for travelling are generally granted to the servants of a company and to their families. (6) On the Caledonian Railway, yearly premiums of from 3*l.* to 5*l.* are granted to engine-drivers, firemen, signalmen, pointsmen, station-masters, and others, for freedom from accidents. These payments amount altogether to 12,000*l.* a year. (7) Bonuses for good conduct and freedom from accident are also granted to signalmen on the London and North Western Railway, and the Great Southern and Western Railway of Ireland. (8) On the Midland Great Western Railway a premium is allowed to locomotive men for economy and good conduct, but it was stated that the system was not a very satisfactory one. (9)

(ii.) PROFIT-SHARING AND CO-OPERATION.*

Profit-sharing.

241. Profit-sharing was only twice mentioned in connection with this group of industries. In both cases it was spoken of favourably, as tending to give workmen that interest in their work which a "pure wage" could not possibly supply. (10) It was stated, however, that in the case of the London, Deptford, and Greenwich Tramways, the chairman of the company had in 1889 drawn up a scheme which provided that the men should receive a percentage of the profits of the company, but that after it had been in operation for a certain time opposition came from the men themselves. The reason given was that they "thought it was too long to wait for the distribution of profits till the end of the financial year." (11) It may be noted that it was not at all anticipated that profit-sharing would check unionism, but, on the contrary, that trade unions would under this system become more important and influential. (12)

Co-operation.

242. It appears from the evidence that co-operation is also regarded with approval. It was held by one witness that the "condition of the cab trade all round"

*It appeared convenient to deal with the subjects of co-operation and profit-sharing at this stage, inasmuch as they are methods of industrial remuneration.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 71, 74. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 51. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 81. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp 56, 87; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CCII. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CC. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 502, 503, 505; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 54, 68, 75, 77, 88. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, pp. 497, 499; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 74, 77. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 54, 80. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 80. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32; Digest, Vol. II., p. 66. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 66; Sutherst, 15, 899-900.

[§ 242.] would be improved by extension of the system; and he was of opinion, moreover, that it could be introduced by a settlement of price and a partial limitation of licenses, from which it would necessarily follow. (1) These industries do not however lend themselves easily to the establishment of the system, on account of the extent of competition and of the "migratory" character of the men engaged in them, and hence evidence was given of only two instances. The "Workers' Co-operative Omnibus Society" started with a capital of 800*l*. It paid no dividend and no interest on money invested, in order "that the profits that accrue from "its working shall be continually used until the busi- "ness is sufficiently extended to employ the workers." It was stated that the London General Omnibus Company had attempted to cause the failure of the scheme by competition. The witness stated that the society would be willing to hand their undertaking over to the municipality "at a fair valuation without any goodwill or compensation," if the municipality would work with the same object in view, pay the same rate of wages, and adopt an eight hours' day. (2) By October 1892 it was stated, however, that the Co-operative Society had been sold up. (3) The Hyde Park Co-operative Cab Company was stated to be a "struggling concern," but to be "making headway." It was formed under the Limited Liabilities Act in 1882; only 100 cabmen have shares in it, and only one dividend of 5 per cent. has been paid during 10 years. This want of success was said to have been due to the fact that there was little capital subscribed, and they started in debt; and thus the interest on borrowed capital absorbed what would otherwise have been capital. The profit is now being applied to increasing the stock. It was stated that special hindrances had been put in the way of the company. "All the world was against "it, the horse-dealers and the corn merchants . . . "They had to pay extraordinarily high prices (4)." The system by which certain privileged cabs only are employed at the chief London stations was also said to have seriously affected it. (5)

(iii.) SUPERANNUATION AND SICK FUNDS.

Superannuation and sick funds.

(a.) History and extent.

243. (*a.*) The evidence with regard to superannuation and sick funds referred almost exclusively to railway employment, except in the case of the North Staffordshire Tramways Sick and Mutual Benefit Society, the Croydon Tramways Sick and Benefit Society, the Birmingham Central Tramways Mutual Benefit Society, and a provident society established by the North Metropolitan Tramways Company, to which it was stated that the companies respectively contributed. (6) Evidence was given with regard to several provident funds in connection with English, Scotch, and Irish railway companies. The Midland Railway Superannuation Fund Association, of which the rules have been furnished to the Commission, was constituted under the Midland Railway Additional Powers Act, 1867, with the object of providing superannuation and retiring allowances for the clerks and other salaried officers of the Midland Railway Company. In 1885 the actuaries pronounced the fund insolvent, and the rules were consequently revised, and the scale of contribution was raised for a certain class of members, with the result that the prosperity of the fund was restored. In January 1892 the number of its members was 5,561. (7) The London and North Western Railway Company established in 1874 a provident society for securing to the staff allowances in case of illness, and a payment to their representatives in case of death. In 1883 a pension fund was established by the same company, and after a time the two societies were amalgamated. The combined provident and pension society has, it is stated, 30,000 or 40,000 members, and an income of 40,000*l*. a year. A pension fund formerly existed in connection with the locomotive department at Crewe, but after going on satisfactorily for five years, it was dissolved by a vote of the men, and the balance in hand was returned to the company and the staff according to contribution. (8) Reference was made to a friendly society established by the Caledonian Railway Company, it was not specified at what date, called the Caledonian Servants' Friendly Society. It provides sick benefits, and certain payments on the death of a member or member's wife. It was stated that the numbers of members for the half year ending June 1892 was 2,941. (1) On most of the railways in Ireland there are provident and sick funds. In the case of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway, the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway, and the Great Southern and Western Railway, the rules of these funds have been furnished to the Commission. The Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society was established in 1861, for securing sick benefits to the members, and a payment to their representatives in case of death. (2) The Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway Friendly Society was established for the same purpose in 1863. The secretary of the company stated that the society had always been prosperous, though the directors do not guarantee its solvency. (3) The Great Southern and Western Railway Sick Fund was established in 1884. A friendly society, it was stated, had formerly existed on that line, which was managed by a committee of the members, and of which membership was not compulsory in all departments of the service. In the year 1882 the society became insolvent, and the accounts were found to be in a state of hopeless confusion. It consequently broke up, with great loss to the contributors. The existing fund was instituted under rules prepared by competent actuaries, and has always been solvent. In the interest of the members, the company assumed the management, and membership was made compulsory in every case. (4) There is also a superannuation fund on this railway for engine drivers and firemen. (5) Similar funds on the Great Northern of Ireland and the Midland Great Western Railways were mentioned, but no reference was made to their history. (6) Evidence was given before the Select Committee on Railway Servants, with regard to the Engine Drivers' and Firemen's Insurance Society on the Great Western Railway, which provides sick and superannuation benefits, and pensions for widows; the Midland Railway Friendly Society, which provides sick and superannuation benefits, and payments on the death of members; and a provident society and pension fund on the Great Eastern Railway. It was also stated that the Midland Great Western Railway Company had a superannuation fund as well as a sick fund. (7)

[§ 243 (*a.*)]

(b.) Management.

(*b.*) The most usual form of management adopted for these funds is that of a committee appointed jointly by the members and the company. The Midland Railway Superannuation Fund is administered by a committee of six, of whom three are appointed by the members and three by the directors. Under the Act constituting the fund, one of the nominees of the directors must act as chairman, with a casting vote when required, and thus of seven available votes, four are in the hands of the company. Complaint was made in evidence that the members had practically no power to control the administration of the fund, and were afraid to offer suggestions lest they should appear to be attacking their employers. A fund established and controlled by Government, entirely apart from the employer, was proposed as a preferable arrangement. (8) In the case of the London and North Western Railway, the provident society is managed by a committee of twelve delegates of the men, with three nominees of the company, and the regulations are subject to the approval of the directors. It is stated that this plan is found to work perfectly well. (9) The Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society is managed by a committee and officers appointed at the general meeting, 13 of the members of the committee being elected by a majority vote, and three appointed by the directors. (10) In the case of the Midland Great Western Railway Fund, it was merely stated that the members were represented on the committee of management. (11) In three cases, those of the friendly societies on the Caledonian, the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford, and the Great Eastern Railways, the management is entirely in the hands of the members, who elect the committee and officers. (12) In the case of the Great Northern of Ireland Railway Company's sick fund, and that of the Great Southern and Western Railway Company, the management is entirely in the hands of the directors, who alter the rules at their discretion. The

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 71. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 66; Digest, Vol. III., p. 30. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29; note. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 71; Digest, Vol. III., p. 37. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 40, 43. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 22, 32; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendices CXLVI., CXLVII., CXLVIII. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. (8) Digest Vol. III., p. 54.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 75 (2) Rules of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society. (3) Rules of the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway Friendly Society; Digest, Vol. III., p. 88. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 87. (5) Colhoun, 27,297 (footnote). (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 81. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 503, 505. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 56, 57; Rules of the Midland Railway Superannuation Fund. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. (10) Rules of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 81. (12) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 75, 83; Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 505.

[§ 243 (b.)] former company have a rule pointing out that continuance in the service will be taken as an assent on the part of the men to any such alteration in the rules. It was stated by the secretary of the Irish branch of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants that great dissatisfaction was caused in these cases by the exclusion of the members from any share in the selection of medical officers or the administration of benefits. (1) With regard to the Great Southern and Western Railway Sick Fund, it was stated by the company's traffic manager that experience of the opposite system had justified the constitution of the fund in its present form, and that the statement that any strong objection was felt by the members on that score was incorrect. (2).

(c.) Rules and general operation.

(c.) With regard to the rules and general operation of these funds, complaints were made by witnesses representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants and the General Railway Workers' Union, that the railway companies, as a rule, made membership of these societies a condition of employment, and that contributions were compulsorily deducted from wages. It was stated that men entering the service had no definite notice of these deductions beforehand. It was pointed out that if this objection were removed other causes of complaint would have less force, though even then practical compulsion might be brought to bear. (3) It was stated, however, that membership was not compulsory in the case of the Caledonian Servants' Friendly Society, or the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway Friendly Society, and the traffic manager of the Great Southern and Western Railway explained that membership of the present sick fund was made compulsory, only because it had been found in the case of the former society that those for whom it was optional did not generally avail themselves of it. (4) It was represented as a still more serious objection that men leaving the company's service were expelled from the sick fund without receiving an equivalent for their contributions. (5) In the case of the Midland Railway Superannuation Fund it was stated that according to the preamble of the Act it was established to provide retiring allowances as well as superannuation benefits, but that under the rules, any member dismissed the service for dishonesty, or retiring to avoid such dismissal, forfeits the whole of his contributions. It is contended that the penalty incurred under the common law is sufficient in such a case. Again, a man leaving the service for no reason discreditable to himself, receives, if dismissed, the amount of his contributions with 4 per cent. simple interest, and if leaving voluntarily, the amount of his contributions without interest. It is contended, however, that the whole sum standing to his credit should be paid to him, including the company's contribution, with compound interest for the time of membership. (6) With regard to the funds in connection with Irish railways, a similar complaint was made, but in a general form, as to the rules affecting dismissal and resignation. It was represented that after contributing for many years a man might be compelled to leave the society at a period of life when no other society would admit him, and that it was not easy to contribute to another while in the service, partly on account of the rule made by some companies that members of the sick fund shall not belong to another friendly society if the benefits from both exceed their weekly wages. It was contended that the companies should be prohibited by law from leaving such cases unprovided for, and that the partial refunding of contributions did not meet the case. (7) In reply to this evidence, the chairman of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Company furnished a written statement, which contained the remark that it was impossible to expect railway companies to adopt the suggestion that men should continue members of provident or sick funds in connection with the companies after leaving their service. It was further pointed out in this statement that according to the rules of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society, any member of six months' standing who leaves the service, unless dismissed for fraud or criminal misconduct, receives on application the amount of his contributions, less any benefits paid or subscriptions due, and with a certain further deduction for expenses and risk. (8) A rule to the same effect was said to exist in the case of the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway Friendly Society, and the Great Southern and Western Railway Sick Fund. It was pointed out on the part of the latter company that servants of long standing were not discharged except for very serious offences and after repeated warnings. (1) Evidence was also given on certain points peculiar to the Midland Railway Superannuation Fund. The change in the rules made in 1885, in order to remedy the insolvency of the fund, was objected to as an infringement of the Act under which the fund was constituted. It consisted in an increase in the scale of payment for new members over 28 years of age. The extra contribution entitles such members to the scale of allowance provided when the fund was established, while the ordinary contribution, which is alone compulsory, entitles them only to an allowance under a new and considerably lower scale. It is objected in the first place that the increased contribution exceeds the limit fixed by the Act; and in the second place that whereas the same Act provides that the company shall contribute to the fund a sum equal to the total amount of the members' contributions, the company's contribution under the new rules has always been less than that sum, the difference increasing every year. It was also pointed out that the revised rules pressed unfairly on new members over 28 years of age, and gave undue preference to those who were already contributing. In the opinion of the witness who dealt with this subject, the fund as at present established had the effect of reducing the salaries of the members. It was stated that the actuaries' reports showed a decrease in the salaries of clerks over 18 and under 50 years of age, between the years 1880 and 1890, and at the same time an increase in the salaries of boy clerks and of those over 50. It was inferred from these facts that the fund had been used as a controlling force, the salaries having been reduced as soon as the company had a hold on the clerks through their contributions to the fund. It was stated that the salaries of the older clerks had been raised on account of a reduction of expenditure in their departments, which reduction had come out of the salaries of those under them, and that the company had also made a net profit on the whole transaction. These facts the witness regarded as a proof that the fund is detrimental to the interests of the members, who, however, have no power to put an end to it, since the Act under which it is constituted makes no provision for the manner of its abolition (2).

[§ 243 (c.)]

(d.) Contributions and benefits.

(d.) Evidence was given with regard to the contributions payable and benefits granted in connection with these societies. It was stated in every case that an annual contribution was made by the company, but in some cases this contribution was regarded by the witnesses as too small in proportion to that of the company's servants. (3) In the case of the Midland Railway Superannuation Fund the company's contribution in 1890 was stated to be 11,183*l.* (4) The London and North Western Railway Company's contribution to the provident and pension society fluctuates according to membership, but in 1891 amounted, it is stated, to nearly 7,000*l.*, and the surplus from the company's contribution of 15,000*l.* to the insurance society is also available for the pension fund. (5) In the case of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society, the company, it is stated, contributes one-fourth of the amount subscribed by the members. In the case of the societies on the Great Southern and Western, the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford, and the Midland Great Western Railways, the companies contribute a fixed annual sum, of 300*l.*, 100*l.*, and 200*l.* respectively. This last sum was stated to be about one-fifth of the members' contribution. (6) In the three cases previously mentioned, it is stated in the rules of the societies that all fines imposed on the company's servants are to be added to the funds. (7) It was stated before the Select Committee on Railway Servants, that the contribution of the Great Western Railway Company to the Engine Drivers' and Firemen's Insurance Society was over 2,000*l.* a year, and that of the Midland Railway Company to the Friendly Society 11,000*l.* a year, while the Great Eastern Railway Company contributes 2,500*l.* a year to the provident society, and half the income of the pension fund. (8) The different scales of contribution and benefit applying to ordinary members are somewhat various. In the

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 81. Rules of the Great Southern and Western Railway Sick Fund. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 87. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 81. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 75, 87, 88. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 81. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 57. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 81. (8) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CCII.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 87, 88. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 56, 57. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 54, 56, 75, 81, 87, 88. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 57. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. (6) Digest, Vol., III. pp. 81, 87, 88. (7) Rules of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society, the Great Southern and Western Railway Sick Fund, and the Dublin, Wicklow and Wexford Railway Friendly Society. (8) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 503, 505.

[§ 243 (d.)] case of the Midland Railway Superannuation Fund the subscription of members is limited under the Act to 2½ per cent. on their respective salaries. The higher scale of benefit begins at an allowance of 25 per cent. on average salary, after 10 years of contribution to the fund, and rises year by year, reaching a percentage of 67 after 45 years' membership. The lower scale begins at 6·4 per cent. on average salary, but after 34 years it coincides with the higher scale. (1) On the London and North Western Railway, the pensions vary from 7*s.* to 12*s.* a week. (2) In the case of the Caledonian Servants' Friendly Society, the weekly contribution is 3*d.*, 4*d.*, or 6*d.*, and the corresponding weekly benefit in illness, 8*s.*, 12*s.*, or 16*s.* (3) In the case of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society, and the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway Friendly Society, the entrance fee is about one-tenth of the members' weekly wages, and the subscription, which is monthly in the former case and fortnightly in the latter, is approximately one-twentieth of the same sum. The weekly sick allowance varies in accordance with the scale of contribution from 5*s.* to 10*s.* on the Belfast and Northern Counties, and from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 1*l.* on the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway. In the case of the Great Southern and Western Railway Sick Fund, the weekly contribution varies from 2*d.* for members whose wages are 10*s.* or under, to 8*d.* for members receiving more than 25*s.* The weekly sick allowance for the first six months is 24 times the amount of subscription, thus varying from 4*s.* to 16*s.*, and for the second six months half these sums. The weekly subscription to the superannuation fund in the locomotive department is 2*s.* for engine drivers, and 1*s.* or 2*s.* for firemen according to choice. A member leaving the company's service from whatever cause after less than 10 years' service is paid the amount of his subscriptions with 2½ per cent. compound interest, but a member leaving the service creditably after 10 years is paid the amount of his subscriptions with 4 per cent. compound interest. After 25 years' service a member has the option of receiving the sum due to him or the annuity which that sum will purchase. The rules provide for considerably increased payments to members or their representative in the case of death or disablement in the discharge of duty. (4) In the case of the Midland Great Western Railway Sick Fund the subscriptions vary from 6¾*d.* to 1*s.* 1½*d.* The scale of benefit was not fully specified, but it was stated that on the whole the benefits balanced the subscriptions. (5) It was stated before the Select Committee on Railway Servants that the weekly subscription to the Great Western Railway Engine Drivers' and Firemen's Insurance Society was 1*s.* 9*d.* for drivers and 1*s.* 2*d.* for firemen, the benefits being a pension of 10*s.* 3*d.* a week, with a bonus at the age of 60, which varies from 70*l.* to 100*l.* In the case of the Great Eastern Railway provident society the subscriptions vary from 5*d.* to 9*d.* a week, and the sick benefits from 8*s.* to 16*s.* a week for 20 weeks. Members of the pension fund contribute from 2*d.* to 5*d.* a week, and at 65 years of age, after 30 years of membership, are entitled to pensions for life of 10*l.* to 25*l.* a year, and to proportionate pensions if incapacitated between the ages of 55 and 65. The Midland Great Western Railway superannuation fund provides, for members who have not served less than five years, and are incapacitated through accident, infirmity, or age, a gratuity of 1*l.* on resignation for each year of continuous service. (6)

2. HOURS.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF HOURS.

ROAD TRANSPORT:

Nature of information.

244. Oral and written evidence has been received both from employers and employed on the subject of the hours of labour in employments connected with omnibuses and tramways, hackney carriages, cars, drays and lorries. This evidence chiefly related to London and to the district embraced by the Northern Counties Amalgamated Tramways and Hackney Carriage Employés Association.

Hours worked on omnibuses and tramways.

245. With regard to men employed on omnibuses and tramways it was stated that they were universally overworked, except at Huddersfield, where the hours were reasonable. (7) With this exception the hours [§ 245.] worked in provincial towns appear to be longer on the whole than those worked in London. The former in most cases exceed 12 a day, and occasionally reach 15 or more, while in London a very usual method is to obtain an average 12 hours' day by working 9 and 15 hours on alternate days. This system was introduced by the London Road Car Company, and adopted by others, after the strike of 1891, in response to the demand for a 12 hours' day, but it was stated that in many cases it had never come into force, the men having been persuaded to accept longer hours with higher pay.(1) It was stated, however, on the part of the London Road Car Company, that the 12 hours' day had never been departed from since the strike, and on the part of the London General Omnibus Company, that though a very large proportion of the men had petitioned to be allowed to return to the system prevailing before the strike, namely, an average day of about 14½ hours, with higher pay, the directors had not complied with this request, except in three instances, in which the omnibuses are out for 13 or 13½ hours.(2) This statement is at variance with the detailed evidence given by a former witness with regard to the hours worked on the different lines owned by the General Omnibus Company, according to which there were two instances of an average 15 hours' day, and three of an average 16 hours' day. Since, however, no detailed contradiction was offered on these points, except in two cases, this evidence in its corrected form has been used for the purpose of calculating the average hours of the staff of the London General Omnibus Company. (3) The system of working alternate days of 9 and 15 hours has the advantage of giving the relief men a full day's work, which is not possible with an actual 12 hours' day.(4) In the case of the London Omnibus Carriage Company the average 12 hours' day was introduced in 1891, but at the request of 90 per cent. of the men, the previous hours were restored, with an increase in wages of 1*s.* a day. A similar course had been taken in 1890, when a reduction of hours to about 13½ was recalled on a petition from the men, who believed their interests to be endangered by the stress of competition.(5) It was stated, however, that in general the desire of the men was for reasonable leisure rather than high wages, and that it was far from being the case, as was sometimes contended, that long hours of work in the open air were conducive to health. On the contrary, the exposure was extremely hurtful.(6) The same consideration was urged in connection with the hours worked by omnibus and tramway men in Manchester, which show a much higher average than in London. It was also stated that in this case the excessive length of hours deprives the men almost entirely of opportunities of seeing their families, and causes a state of exhaustion which is likely to lead to accidents.(7) Another point of difference between London and some provincial towns is that stated mealtimes are usually allowed by the London omnibus companies, with a certain interval of rest between the journeys, ranging from 10 to 45 minutes, while the statement was frequently made with regard to omnibus and tramway men in Manchester and other northern towns, that they had either very little time allowed for meals, or none at all, in which latter case it was the practice of the men to have their food brought to them while at work.(8) In the following table, showing the hours of labour in different districts, the gross hours are stated, including meal times and other intervals. Such intervals are stated separately in all cases in which they are mentioned in the evidence. The general statement was made, though certain exceptions to it were pointed out, that all London tramway companies allowed an interval of two or three hours in the middle of the day, but it was contended that the men were at the disposal of the companies during that time, and could not be considered wholly off duty.(9) Most of the figures stated in the following table are taken directly from the evidence. In the case of Manchester, and of the different tramway and omnibus companies in London, an attempt has been made to obtain an average from the various detailed statements made in the evidence, but the method of calculation varies with the nature of the evidence supplied. In the case of Manchester, a table was handed

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. Rules of the Midland Railway Superannuation Fund. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 75. (4) Rules of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Provident Society, the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway Friendly Society, the Great Southern and Western Railway Sick Fund, and the Great Southern and Western Railway Superannuation Fund for Enginemen and Firemen. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 81. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 503, 505. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 64, 66, 67. (2) Digest, Vol. III. p. 20. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 29, 35, 36. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix, CXXXV. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 20. (5) Digest, Vol. III, pp. 24, 25. (6) Digest, Vol. II. p. 66. Sutherst, 15,766. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 20, 28, 36. (9) Sutherst 15,756.

[§ 245.] in to the Commission which furnished means for obtaining the true average number of hours worked, by stating the number of men employed on each route. (1) In the case of the London omnibus and tramway companies an average has been obtained for each company by combining the statements of hours worked on each route, but, the number of men employed not being stated, the true average could not be obtained. [§ 245.]

TABLE showing HOURS WORKED by OMNIBUS and TRAMWAY SERVANTS in different DISTRICTS and EMPLOYMENTS, arranged in descending order.

Reference.	District or Employer.	Gross Daily Hours, inclusive of Intervals.	Mealtimes and other Intervals.	
		Hrs. Min.	Hrs.	Min.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Sheffield	15 30	—	30 to 40
Sutherst, 15,749	Hull	15 0	—	—
Digest, Vol. II., p. 65	London Omnibus Carriage Company	14 40	—	*
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19, App. 123	Manchester and Salford	14 30	None	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Bury	14 0	None	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 32	Croydon Tramways Company	14 0	1†	—
Sutherst, 15,756	London Street Tramways Company	13 40	2	—
Digest, Vol. II., p. 65; Digest, Vol. III., p. 35, App. 135.	London General Omnibus Company	13 12	—	‡
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Bolton	13 0	None	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Rochdale	13 0	—	10
Digest, Vol. II., p. 66	South London Tramway Company	12 37	2 to 3	—
Digest, Vol. II p. 66; Sutherst, 15,756.	North Metropolitan Tramway Company	12 22	2 to 3	—
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 34, 35; App. 184.	Dublin United Tramways Company	12 12	2 to 3	—
Digest, Vol. II., p. 65	London Road Car Company	12 8	—	§
Digest, Vol. III., p. 32	North Staffordshire Tramways	12 0	—	—
Digest, Vol. III., p. 32	South Staffordshire Tramways	12 0	—	‖
Digest, Vol. III., p. 32; App. 148	Birmingham Central Tramways	12 0	—	—
Digest, Vol. II., p. 66	London Tramway Company	11 22	—	¶
Answers &c., No. 329, p. 9	Edinburgh	10 25	—	
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 25, 26	Huddersfield	8 0	None	

* On one of this company's lines, the interval was stated as 10 minutes at the end of each journey, and on another it was said to be a single interval of 45 minutes. In the case of the third it was not specified.
† Also 10 minutes at the end of each journey.
‡ In most cases there is an interval of 15 to 30 minutes at the end of each journey.
§ In some cases there is an interval of 20 minutes at the end of each journey.
‖ An interval of 30 minutes at the end of each double journey.
¶ It was stated that there were intervals, but their length was not specified.
NOTE.—The hours of horsekeepers appear to average 14 or 15 a day in London, with certain intervals, and 12 a day in Manchester, Bury, Rochdale, Sheffield, and Nottingham. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 65, 66; Digest, Vol. III., p. 19.

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246. The general statement was made that hours in this industry were now less excessive than formerly, and in some cases details were given with regard to recent concessions made by employers in this direction.(2) The reduction in 1891 of the hours of men employed by some of the principal London omnibus companies from an average of 14 or 15 to an average of 12 a day, has been already referred to. It was stated that in Manchester the demand of the organised workmen for a 12 hours' day, inclusive of meal times, had been unsuccessful. The tramway companies first granted one day's holiday in a fortnight, in lieu of a reduction of hours, but this concession, it was stated, was tampered with in some cases by giving the men extra journeys on working days. The original demand was renewed in April 1891, but the directors of the Manchester Carriage and Tramway Company attributed the agitation to the Union, and maintained that the men were not in favour of a reduction of hours. A general meeting of 700 or 800 servants of the company supported a resolution in favour of a 12 hours' day, but the company refused their request on the evidence of a small deputation who represented that the reduction was not required. A weekly holiday was then conceded, with an increase of wages in one district. It was stated that this concession in its turn had been tampered with in various ways, and that the men were greatly dissatisfied. On the matter being laid before the company, they stated that no reduction of hours could be made without a reduction of wages.(3) In the case of the Birmingham Central Tramways Company, unsuccessful agitations for a reduction of hours from 12 to 10 a day took place in 1889 and 1890. The matter was compromised by concessions in the form of allowances, good conduct pay, and holidays.(4) The most conspicuous instance of a recent reduction in hours is that in connection with the Huddersfield Corporation Tramways. Before 1888 the hours were 14 a day, including two hours' meal time, but notwithstanding their dissatisfaction with that arrangement, the men, it is stated, made no attempt to alter it. The Corporation at the same time wished to increase the hours of running the services, without increasing the hours of the men. They therefore proposed to introduce a double eight-hour shift at reduced wages, and asked the men to vote by ballot on the question. A unanimous assent was given to the new arrangement, which was found to work satisfactorily.(1) Since the formation of the Dublin and District Tramway Union it is stated that some reduction has taken place in the hours of the men. It was stated by the manager of the Dublin United Tramways Company that many years ago the hours were 14 or 15 a day, but had been reduced before any application was made by the Union. The first application was received in May 1891, and after negotiations, in the course of which the company declined to admit the claim of the Union to represent the men, a deputation of unionists and non-unionists was received. At their request the company conceded an average 12 hours' day, including meal times, and a holiday every twelfth day with full pay. It was stated by the secretary of the Dublin and District Tramway Union, that the reduction of hours was arranged by giving two or three hours' relief in the middle of the day, a system which suited the management but was inconvenient to the men.(2)

247. With regard to Sunday labour, it was stated on the one hand that omnibus and tramway men in London usually worked on Sunday, which was in fact the hardest day in the week, and that Sundays off were not always granted on application.(3) On the other hand it was stated by the secretary of the London General Omnibus Company that the company's staff had no difficulty in obtaining a day's rest when required, beside the regular Sunday off once in six weeks. A certain number of Sunday labour.

(1) Appendix CXXIII. The witness who handed in this table appears to have misquoted it in his evidence. (2) Digest Vol. III., p. 33. (3) Digest Vol. III., p. 19. Jackson 17,893. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32. Minute of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXLVIII.

(1) Digest, Vol III., pp. 25, 26. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 34, 35. Anderson 28, 174. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 66, 69.

[§ 247.] omnibuses are stopped every Sunday (in 1891 the average number was 110) and extra men are employed for the purpose of relieving the regular drivers and conductors on due notice being given.(1) Witnesses representing the men employed by this company in two different districts confirmed this statement that Sunday relief could always be obtained with loss of pay. Most drivers, it was stated, applied for relief every alternate Sunday.(2) The general manager of the North Metropolitan Tramways Company stated that the company's servants could always obtain leave on Sunday, but that as a rule they preferred to take a holiday in the week.(3) It was stated that Sunday work was usual with tramway servants in Manchester and other towns in the north, with the exception of Huddersfield and Edinburgh, where there is none.(4) In the case of the Dublin United Tramways Company complaint was made that there was no extra payment for Sunday work, and no opportunity, except for Roman Catholics, of attending a place of worship.(5)

Hours worked by hackney carriage drivers.

248. There is some variation in the hours worked by cab-drivers in London, partly owing to the peculiar terms of employment. The limit is practically fixed on the one hand by the necessity of earning the hire of the cab, with a sufficient profit, and on the other by the objection of proprietors to employing men who overwork their horses. The general average was variously stated as 13, 15, and 15 to 18 hours a day for men working two horses, and about 9 to 10 for men working one horse.(6) With the Improved Cab Company the average hours were stated to be 13 hours 21 minutes for hansom drivers and 14 hours 5 minutes for four-wheel drivers, the former working 5½ days, and the latter 5 days a week.(7) It was stated that the drivers employed by one large proprietor worked on an average 72 hours a week, resting on Sundays and in many cases on one other day in the week.(8) A witness representing the Metropolitan Cab Drivers' Trade Union complained of the excessive hours which were necessary in order to earn the required sum, but a witness representing the various associations of cab proprietors was of opinion that a man could "do well" on 11 hours' work a day.(9) It was stated that Sunday work had increased in recent years, through an arrangement made by some of the proprietors' associations that their cabs should work every alternate Sunday. In some cases a driver who refused to do so would be discharged. It was estimated that about half the total number of cabs were worked on Sundays.(10) The evidence with regard to hours of labour in different districts has been tabulated as follows:

TABLE showing the HOURS of LABOUR of CAB-DRIVERS in different DISTRICTS, arranged in descending order.

Reference.	District or Employer.	Daily Hours of Labour.	
		Hrs.	Min.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Rochdale	16	0
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Bury	16	0
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Sheffield	15	0
Digest, Vol. III., p. 42	London (Improved Cab Company)	13	43
Digest, Vol. III., p. 19	Bolton	13	0
Answers, &c., p. 6	Edinburgh	13	0
Digest, Vol. III., p. 42	London, S.E.	12	30
Digest, Vol. III., p. 40	London (one proprietor)	12	0
Digest, Vol. III., p. 37	Newcastle	12	0

Hours worked in employments connected with cars, drays, and lorries.

249. The excessive hours of general carmen in London were represented as a great cause of complaint. The secretary of the London Carmen's Trade Union stated that the pressure of competition in the labour market had prevented the Union from effecting any improvement in this respect. It aims, however, at establishing a 60 hours' week, so divided as to enable the men to leave work at 2 p.m. on Saturday.(11) It was stated that the average hours of general carmen, that is, of two-thirds of the carmen in London, were from 16 to 18 a day. They begin work at 5 or 6 a.m., and go on till late at night. The hours of boys also are frequently 18 to 19 out of the 24. They are behind the vans all day, and, after resting from 7 to 12 p.m., [§ 249.] they are employed for the rest of the night in taking loads of meat from the railway stations to Smithfield. This, it was stated, occurred on three or four nights a week. The hours of men employed by private firms are said to be shorter than those of general carmen. It was stated that the carmen employed by the Post Office contractors worked on an average 18 hours a day, including a break of an hour and a half in the middle of the day for changing horses.(1) On the other hand, it appeared from certain detailed returns furnished by the Post Office that the average hours worked by mail cart drivers were 13½ a day, of which time only 6¼ hours were occupied in actual driving. A copy of a report by the mail cart supervisor included a table showing the number of men employed for each specified number of hours. The minimum is from 9 to 10 hours, worked by three drivers, and the maximum from 17 to 18, worked by three drivers. The very great majority of the men are employed for periods ranging from 10 to 16 hours. With regard to Sunday labour, it was stated in the same returns that out of 362 drivers employed by the Post Office contractors, 122 were employed on Sunday for periods varying from an hour to two hours and 20 minutes. One of these contractors gives no extra payment for such work; another pays at the ordinary rate of wages; and another pays in some cases a fixed sum of 2s., and in other cases allows time off duty on Monday morning.(2) General carmen, it is stated, are frequently obliged to work in the stables for the whole of Sunday, owing to the insufficient supply of stablemen, and the demand for light vans to be let out for pleasure on Sunday afternoons. Railway carmen and boys are not employed on Sundays.(3) The hours of carmen employed by vestries and local boards in London are said to vary from 60 to 72 hours a week, the only exception being in the case of Bethnal Green, where a 48-hours week is worked in the winter. In a few cases the Vestry Employés Labour Union has obtained a reduction of hours. Overtime is regulated by the vestries, and does not prevail to the same extent as formerly, owing to the introduction by the Union of a system of overtime payment.(4) Excessive hours were said to be worked by some of the carters' and brewers' draymen in Manchester. The average hours of the latter were stated to be 90 a week, while "some of the aerated water carters" work as many as 114 hours a week in summer. In a few cases, the Lorrymen and Carters' Union has succeeded in obtaining a 60 hours' week for railway lorrymen, with either overtime payment or a system of "playing off," which is preferred to the former. On this system a day's holiday is allowed when 10 hours' overtime has been worked. Two witnesses representing the National Scottish Horsemen's Union made a special complaint with regard to the hours of carters in Glasgow and Greenock. Where the Union is powerful, the hours have been reduced from an average of 17 a day to an average of 13, including two hours for meals. This reduction was the indirect result of a strike. On the other hand, where the Union is not strong, some of the contractors take advantage of the fact to lengthen hours and reduce wages. On the whole, trade union effort in this direction is considered by the witnesses to have been a failure.(5) The evidence with regard to hours of labour in this industry has been tabulated as follows:—

TABLE showing the HOURS of LABOUR of CARMEN, DRAYMEN, &c., in different DISTRICTS, arranged in descending order.

Reference.	District.	Daily Hours of Labour.	
		Hrs.	Min.
Answers &c., p. 6	London	18	0
Digest, Vol. III., p. 44	London (general contractors)	17	0
Digest, Vol. III., p. 47	Glasgow	17	0
	Bradford (Corporation contractors)	16	40*
	Manchester (brewers)	15	0†
Digest, Vol. III., p. 45	London (Post Office contractors)	13	30
Digest, Vol. III., p. 47	Manchester (coal carters)	13	0‡
	Manchester (railway contractors)	13	0‡
	Greenock	13	0
Digest, Vo III., p. 46	London (vestries and local boards).	10 to 12§	

* It was stated that "some of the men work 100 hours a week." Six days to the week have been calculated.
† Stated as an average of 90 hours a week.
‡ Stated as an average of 75 to 80 hours a week.
§ Stated as 60 to 72 hours a week.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 29, 36. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 21. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 26. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 329, p. 7. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 34. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37, 39, 42. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 42. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 39, 42. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 37. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXXII.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. Ballard, 17,614, 17,668. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45; Ballard, 17,811a (Memorandum). (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (4) Digest, Vol III., p. 46. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47.

§ 250.] ILWAYS: rces of ormation.

250. Information with regard to hours of labour on railways has been obtained from the oral and written evidence received by the Commission, and also from the evidence given before the Select Committee on Railway Servants (Hours of Labour). For the present purpose, the précis of that evidence, appended to Vol. III. of the Minutes of Evidence taken before Group B., has been consulted, and is referred to as Appendix to Minutes, Vol. III. A return with regard to wages and hours, submitted to the Board of Trade by the Caledonian Railway Company, and supplied to the Commission by the Board of Trade, has also been made use of. Though not strictly typical of the systems of hours prevailing on railways generally, the following extract from that return may be taken as a starting-point, the arrangements applying to other companies being noticed where they differ.

TABLE showing WEEKLY HOURS and RATES of OVERTIME PAYMENT of SERVANTS of the CALEDONIAN RAILWAY COMPANY.

Department.	Weekly Hours.	Overtime Payment.
Coaching:—		
Foremen	72	None.
Porters	72	None.
Shunters	72	None.
Passenger guards	60 to 72	None.
Goods guards	66 to 72	Ordinary rate.
Ticket collectors	72	None.
Signalmen	48 to 72	None.
Pointsmen	72	None.
Goods:—		
Shunters	60	Ordinary rate.
Porters	60	Ordinary rate.
Locomotive:—		
Engine drivers	72	Rate of 10 hours a day.
Firemen	72	Rate of 10 hours a day.
Cleaners	60	Actual time.
Engine shunters	54	Time and a quarter.
Carriage examiners	60	Actual time.
Engineers:—		
Foremen	51 to 60	Time and a quarter or time and a half.
Platelayers	57½ to 59	Time and a quarter or time and a half.

From the evidence before the Select Committee it appeared that the system of hours on the North British Railway is very similar to that on the Caledonian.(1) In the case of English railways it is not always clear whether there is a daily or a weekly standard of hours, but in most cases it appears that overtime payment for the running staff is calculated on the week's work, while the booked time, and as far as possible the working, is kept also within a prescribed daily maximum. The standard week's work on the Great Western Railway for engine-drivers, firemen, and guards is 66 hours, with a usual daily maximum of 12 hours, and the same rule prevails on the Great Eastern Railway in the case of guards, but engine-drivers have a standard 10 hours' day, each day standing by itself.(2) The latter system was said to apply also to the locomotive staff on the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway, the Great Southern and Western Railway of Ireland, the Midland, and the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railways, except where the trip system is in operation, in the two latter cases.(3) On the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway the 10 hours' day applies also to guards, but on the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway the hours of the latter grade are calculated by the week, and on the Midland Railway it is only stated that the booked time is uniformly within 12 hours a day.(4) On the London and North Western, the North Staffordshire, the North Eastern, and the Irish Great Northern Railways, the standard hours of the running staff are 60 hours a week, except in the case of the mineral service on the North Eastern Railway.(5) On most railways the hours of signalmen are 8, 10, or 12 a day according to class, each day standing by itself, and different railways vary only as to the proportion of signal boxes assigned to each class. The same classification exists in the case of shunters, but the eight hours' system is much less general. In the majority of cases the hours of both shunters and porters are 12 a day, with intervals of an hour or two for meals.

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 487. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, pp. 478, 488, 497. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, pp. 475, 482, 485, 487. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 475, 497, 492. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, pp. 476, 483, 491, 499, 501.

[§ 250.]

Attitude of representatives of railway companies and of railway servants towards present hours of labour.

251. The general statement was made by witnesses representing railway servants or their organisations before both the Select Committee and the Commission, that the length of the present hours of labour was a cause of great dissatisfaction on the majority of English and Scotch railways, but that on Irish railways excessive hours were decidedly less prevalent, though improvements might still be made in that respect.(1) The view expressed by witnesses representing the railway companies amounted in substance to an entire condemnation of any system of working involving excessive hours, together with a statement of certain conditions under which such hours are unavoidable or otherwise defensible.(2) The grievances of railway servants in connection with hours of labour appear for the most part, though not rigidly classified, to relate to three subjects:—the length of the regular hours of work, the prevalence of overtime, and the different methods of calculating or regulating hours, including such arrangements as the relief system, the "link" system, and the weekly aggregation of hours.

Complaints with regard to the regular hours. (a.) *The staff at fixed posts of duty.* (i.) *Signalmen.*

252. (*a.*) It is chiefly in the case of signalmen that the regular hours have been represented as excessive, and in this connection great stress has been laid on the importance of their duties, and the physical and mental strain which the work involves. It was maintained by several witnesses before the Select Committee that the classification of signal-boxes into those on shifts of 8, 10, and 12 hours was not in all cases carried out in such a way as to meet the requirements. The difference in the laboriousness and responsibility of different posts is such that while in many signal-boxes the work is literally incessant, and eight hours' employment is a heavy and even excessive strain, there are others where the traffic is inconsiderable, and 12 hours' duty represents for the most part mere attendance. Several witnesses, including an inspector of railways for the Board of Trade, pointed out that all important signal-boxes should be on an eight hours' shift, and that in view of the changes in the requirements of the traffic, more frequent re-classification should be carried out. It was recognised, however, that no general rule could supply an exact definition of an "important" or "busy" signal-box, and that it was necessary to consider each case on its merits.(3) It was also stated on the part of the railway companies that this question received their continuous attention, and that re-classification proceeded according to the increase in traffic.(4) The evidence showed, however, that in some cases a reduction of hours had only been made on representations from the staff, and that cause of complaint was still considered to exist.(5) Several witnesses before the Select Committee referred to the prevalence of 12-hour shifts in busy shunting yards, where the work is continuous as well as heavy and dangerous. Special instances were mentioned in the case of the Lancashire and Yorkshire and Cambrian Railways. It is one of the demands of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants on behalf of the men that an eight hours' shift should be adopted in all busy shunting yards.(6) With regard to the hours of goods and passenger porters, cases were mentioned in which the nature of the work was thought to require a shorter shift than 12 hours, or in which the work was light but the hours exceeded 12.(7) It was pointed out by a witness before the Commission, representing the porters on the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, that at some stations 10 or 12 hours' work was enough to cause complete exhaustion, and that the maximum hours of porters should in all cases be 10 a day for six days a week. He gave details of his own work, stating that his average hours were 79 a week, including 14½ hours continuous work every alternate Sunday.(8) Similar cases were mentioned before the Select Committee. With regard to the cases in which the regular hours of porters exceed 12 a day, it was pointed out on the part of the companies that such cases existed only at small stations where the work is light and intermittent, and

(ii.) *Shunters.*

(iii.) *Porters.*

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 465–75. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 476–96. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 465, 467, 468, 470–5, 496. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 476, 484, 485, 487, 489, 492, 493. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 468, 469, 478, 481, 486, 492. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 468, 469, 473, 474. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 472, 473. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 52.

[§ 252 (a.)] the hours could only be reduced by diminishing the service of trains, or by putting on additional men, for whom there would be insufficient occupation. It was not maintained, except by witnesses who advocated a general 10 hours' day, that these were instances of overwork.(1)

(b.) Running staff.

(b.) With regard to the running staff, *i.e.*, the drivers, firemen, and guards of goods and passenger trains, a large amount of evidence was given, throughout the course of which nothing was more apparent than the peculiar difficulties attending the regulation of hours in this department, and the divergence of opinion with regard to the system which should be adopted. While the difficulty of adhering to the booked time is less serious with passenger than with goods traffic on account of the precedence given to the former, the difficulty of adjusting the booked time in accordance with any given standard of a fair day's work would appear to be greater in the case of passenger traffic, on account of the variety in the nature of the work. It was stated that express drivers were seldom booked on duty more than 9 or 10 hours a day, of which the running time was probably five or six hours, but that the physical and mental strain made this a harder day's work than that of running slow trains on short journeys for 12 and 13 hours.(2) Another difficulty in the way of laying down any general rule in the matter appears in the numerous cases where the booked time on duty reaches 12 or 14 hours, but includes an interval, often of four or five hours, between the outward and return journey. It was very strongly represented by locomotive men in their evidence before the Select Committee that this interval gave an opportunity for necessary rest, and that they preferred working the return journey to lodging away from home at night.(3) The majority of complaints of excessive hours have arisen, not in connection with such cases as these, but where the journeys are arranged on a system which gives each set of men in turn a stretch of work amounting to 13 or 14 hours, with insufficient intervals of rest, but alternating with a shorter day. This system appears to apply principally to guards, and a considerable amount of evidence was given as to the overwork which it was said to involve.(4) With regard to goods and mineral traffic, it was the opinion of numerous witnesses that the booked times were almost uniformly excessive, in view of the unavoidable delays incidental to the working of the trains. It was stated that on the North British, the Manchester, Sheffield and Lincolnshire, the Midland, the North Staffordshire, the Great Northern of Ireland, and the Midland Great Western (Ireland) Railways, the booked time of the engine-drivers frequently exceeded 12 a day, so that any detention, such as might easily occur, caused excessive hours to be worked. A statement was handed in by a witness before the Select Committee, showing the whole of the hours worked by a North British engine-driver in the years 1889 and 1890. With few instances of very excessive hours, the average day's work in 1889 was 13 hours 40 minutes, and in 1890, 13 hours, and with three exceptions the day's work was never under 12 hours.(5) It was also stated before the Select Committee, with special reference to the Lancashire and Yorkshire, the Great Western, and the Midland Railways, that the booked hours of goods guards were in many cases excessive, and that the intervals between the arrival and departure of trains were usually too short and too fully occupied to be considered intervals of rest.(6)

Overtime.

253. On the subject of overtime evidence was given in great detail both before the Select Committee and the Commission.

(a.) The staff at fixed posts of duty.

(a.) The greater number of complaints of excessive overtime applied to the running staff rather than to the staff at fixed posts of duty. It did not appear that much overtime was worked by signalmen, though such cases had occurred under exceptional circumstances. The limit of 12 hours, which it was agreed by numerous witnesses should be the maximum length of a shift, is seldom exceeded, except in cases where the men arrange to divide the night and day shifts unequally. Overtime, however, may occur through unforeseen emergencies, such as the failure of the relief system. It is apparent from recent improvements on certain lines that the question of provision for such emergencies, as well as of the reduction of regular hours, is, in the case of this department, mainly a question of addition to the staff.(1) [§ 253 (a.)] Overtime was stated to be frequently worked in the case of shunters, and of goods and passenger porters. The chief cause of overtime in the case of porters appears to be occasional press of traffic at busy stations, and also the practice on some lines of employing porters as extra guards or signalmen after their regular hours. Evidence was given on this subject both before the Select Committee and the Commission, and while it was pointed out on the part of the companies that such employment is a step to promotion, and a convenient method of training porters in the work of higher grades, it was evident that it involves excessive hours of work, and it was therefore suggested by one witness that the hours of porters should be included in the returns to the Board of Trade.(2) It was stated before the Select Committee that platelayers were frequently required to work excessive hours in cases of emergency, particularly when employed in fog signalling. In cases of sudden and prolonged fog, it frequently happens that the staff is found insufficient, or that relief men cannot be brought to the spot at the time they are required. The manager of the London and North Western Railway, which has a staff of nearly 4,000 trained fogmen, admitted that additional provision for emergencies was desirable, and that other grades than that of platelayers might with advantage be trained to the work.(3)

(b.) Running staff.

(b.) In the case of the running staff, the evidence showed that the regulation of hours was attended with considerable and peculiar difficulty, and that there was often a large amount of work in excess of the standard of 12 hours a day, which, according to most of the witnesses, should be the maximum in all cases. It was admitted, however, by every witness who dealt with the subject, that a certain amount of overtime is unavoidable. Railway traffic is always liable to be delayed by accidents or by stress of weather, and a single obstruction in the working of the line affects the whole system. This difficulty is far more serious in the case of goods and mineral traffic than of passenger traffic, on account of the precedence given to the latter. Under exceptional conditions of weather, such as continuous fog, it may be barely possible to work the passenger traffic, while the goods traffic is thrown entirely out of gear. The system of relief which now exists to some extent on all railways, partially meets the case, but it is useless under exceptional conditions. An instance was mentioned by the manager of the London and North Western Railway, in which the whole traffic was delayed by dense and continuous fog, and to carry out the relief system would have required during four days an enormous additional staff, who would have no employment for the rest of the year.(4)

Extent of overtime worked on different railways.

254. With regard to the extent of overtime worked on different railways, the evidence, especially before the Select Committee, was extremely copious and detailed, consisting chiefly of statements of the hours actually worked during certain days or weeks. The force of this evidence obviously consists in the detail itself, and cannot be estimated from any general statement. In the great majority of cases replies were furnished by the companies to the statements made in evidence with regard to the hours of their servants. The evidence on this point referred to almost every railway in the United Kingdom, but the greatest number of instances of excessive hours were quoted in connection with the Lancashire and Yorkshire, the North British, and the Caledonian Railways.(5) In commenting on this evidence, it was denied on the part of several companies, including the London and North Western and Great Eastern Railways and the Great Southern and Western Railway of Ireland, that the working arrangements were such as to cause any hardship to the staff, and it was stated that the duty and expediency of keeping the hours of labour within reasonable limits were fully recognised by the management.(6) On the other hand, on the part of the Lancashire and Yorkshire, the North Staffordshire, the Midland, the Great Western, the North Eastern, the North British, and the Caledonian Railways, it was admitted in varying degrees that excessive hours had prevailed in the past to

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 476, 484, 488. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 477, 478, 483, 488, 490. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 474, 483. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 470, 475. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 466, 468, 470–1, 474–5, 491. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp, 469–71.

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 468, 472, 483, 487. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 468, 472–4, 482. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 52, 80. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 473, 477. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 467–8, 471, 477–8, 480, 484–7, 489–91. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 465–8, 470, 473. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 476, 488, 495. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 53–4, 88.

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a greater extent than was desirable, but it was stated that they were due either to unforeseen contingencies which would now be provided against, or to the special conditions attending the working of traffic on those lines.(1) In many cases it was pointed out that the instances of overtime given in evidence referred to the winter of 1890–1, when the exceptionally severe weather, accompanied by fog, caused unavoidable detention to trains, while the closing of canals by frost threw extra traffic on the railways.(2) It was stated that the relief system universally in use was not an adequate method of meeting such contingencies, and that the only effectual remedy for habitual or occasional congestion of traffic was the construction of additional relief lines and sidings, and that improvements in this direction were proceeding, but required some time for their completion.(3) In the case of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, which shows a very high record of hours in the Board of Trade returns, it was stated before the Select Committee that notwithstanding an expenditure of 12,000,000*l.* on relief lines in 10 years, it had been found impossible to keep pace with the increase of traffic.(4) The irregularity of mineral traffic was mentioned as a cause of long hours on the North Eastern, North British, and Caledonian Railways, and it was pointed out in the first case that the fluctuation was so considerable that it would be impossible to dispense altogether with overtime, without either considerably overmanning the line for ordinary traffic, or resorting to the undesirable expedient of casual labour. In the case of the North British and Caledonian Railways it was pointed out that most of the instances of long hours quoted in the evidence occurred in the winter of 1890–91, when, in addition to the increase of traffic caused by the opening of the Forth Bridge, and the exceptional state of the weather, the traffic was totally disorganised in consequence of the strike.(5) In every case it was stated that great improvements in the working arrangements had been effected in recent years, partly through the pressure of public opinion, and the institution of the Board of Trade returns of overtime.(6) With regard to one railway recently constructed, the Midland and South Western Junction Railway, evidence was given by Major Marindin, Inspector of Railways for the Board of Trade, to the effect that, owing to special difficulties in the working of that line, the hours had been in many cases excessive, but that after an inquiry by the Board of Trade, and on a strong recommendation from that department, the company had revised the working of the traffic, so as to bring the hours of labour within reasonable limits without making any addition to the staff.(7) With regard to Irish railways, it was stated that in general the work was less heavy and continuous than on English railways, but that, in some cases, the absence of a definite standard of hours with payment for overtime beyond that limit, together with the fluctuating nature of the cattle traffic, which is worked by special trains, was a cause of overwork. On the part of the companies it was stated that no complaints of excessive hours had been received from their staff, and that in many cases the work was light and the intervals were long.(8)

vertime ayment.

255. It is the demand of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants and of the General Railway Workers' Union that overtime should be paid at a rate 25 or 50 per cent. higher than the ordinary wages. This practice is followed on many railways, especially in the case of the locomotive staff, but with other grades it is by no means universal, and where overtime is paid it is generally at the ordinary rate of wages.(9)

unday ork.

256. It was stated before the Select Committee that Sunday work was more usual with signalmen than with other classes of railway servants, and Major Marindin therefore suggested that more frequent leave of absence should be given them in consideration of the strain of continuous work of such a kind.(10) It was stated that on the London and North Western Railway most signalmen have every alternate Sunday off, an arrangement which is effected by means of a relief system, and by switching off many of the boxes. The same method is adopted on other railways, but a more

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 478–81, 484–7, 489–93. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 69–71, 75–6. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 479, 489–92. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, pp. 478–9, 485–7, 492–4. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 72, 76. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, p. 490. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 484–7. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 72, 75, 76. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 476, 482, 485–6, 488, 492, 495. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 71–2. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 496. (8) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 475, 493–6. Digest, Vol. III., p. 80. (9) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 469, 497–501. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 59. (10) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 496.

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usual proportion of working Sundays appears to be two out of three.(1) Passenger guards, engine-drivers, and firemen are on duty a varying number of Sundays, sometimes one in four.(2) On several railways, such as the North Eastern, the Great Eastern, the North Staffordshire, and the Great Southern and Western of Ireland, the goods and mineral staff have little or no Sunday work, but a complaint was made before the Commission as to the amount of Sunday work performed by goods guards on the Great Western Railway.(3) It appears to be usual for passenger porters to work on alternate Sundays.(4) It is one of the requirements of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants that Sunday work should be paid at the rate of time and a half, but the General Railway Workers' Union demands a double rate of pay, which is that prevailing in the artizan grade.(5) In many cases an advanced rate is paid for Sunday work, but this is chiefly the case with the running staff, and applies more especially to engine-drivers and firemen.(6) It was stated before the Commission that the practice of including Sunday in the week's work for the purpose of calculating wages had recently been modified to a great extent, and that in the grades of engine-drivers, firemen, guards, shunters, and signalmen, the week was now usually calculated as six days.(7)

Aggregation of hours and the "link system."

257. Among the methods adopted on different railways for the regulation of hours, that which was chiefly brought into prominence in the evidence was the system of aggregating the hours for the week or fortnight, so that excessive hours are sometimes worked on individual days, without overtime payment being earned on the whole period. This system, it was stated, is almost universal on Scotch railways in the case of the running staff, and is very usual on English and Irish railways. It is frequently combined with the link system, by which runs of different lengths are taken in turn by a certain number of engine-drivers, firemen, and guards. In this case long days are balanced by short days, so that no overtime is made on the week's work. Where the link system is not in use, the same effect is produced by booking off the men on certain days when long hours have been worked on other days. In the evidence before the Select Committee, there was a conflict of opinions among the representatives of railway servants as to the advantages of this plan, but a very general preference was expressed for a day's rest in the course of the week, even with somewhat long hours on working days. The extreme importance of preventing excessive hours from being worked on any one day was, however, unanimously emphasised, and on this ground it was claimed by representatives of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants and of the employed generally, and was also strongly recommended by the Board of Trade Inspectors of Railways, that the day's work should in all cases "stand by itself."(8) It was stated also before the Commission that the system of working long and short days was very much disliked, and that the fortnightly aggregation of hours, as practised in Scotland, was "iniquitous" and dangerous in its results.(9)

Relief system.

258. The relief system, which is adopted to a varying extent on all railways, for the purpose of preventing long hours, also occasioned some comment on the part of witnesses. It is the rule, where this system is in force, that an engine-driver, fireman, or guard who has been detained from unforeseen causes, and is therefore likely to be on duty for excessive hours, must apply for relief at the nearest locomotive station. The limit of hours for this purpose is usually 12. It was stated by numerous witnesses before the Select Committee, including representatives both of the companies and their staff, that the chief desire of the men was to be able to reach home at the end of their day's work, and that they preferred working a reasonable amount of overtime in order to do so, to being booked off at a specified moment and obliged to lodge away from home.(10) In some cases, as on the North Eastern and Great Eastern Railways, recent reductions in hours o labour have been much regretted by the men on this account, and the Great Western Railway Company, from the same consideration, have preferred in many cases to reduce the hours by dividing the journeys into

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 476, 488, 494. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 484. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 484, 488, 491, 495. Digest, Vol. III. p. 51. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 473, 488. Digest, Vol. III., p. 52. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 469. Digest, Vol. III., p. 49. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 497–501. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 59, 80. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 54, 79. (8) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 467–70, 477, 486–7, 491, 493, 495. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 51, 58. (10) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp., 468, 471–2, 474, 477–81, 483–6, 490, 492.

[§ 258.] several shorter runs. Another alternative adopted on some railways is to relieve the men and send them home as passengers.(1) The relief system has been more elaborately worked out on the London and North Western than on any other railway. At all principal centres there are extra men at command, and also lodging-houses for men unable to reach home. A man failing to apply for relief when necessary, is called to account, and the company do not countenance the practice of working overtime in order to finish the journey.(2) It was stated before the Commission by a representative of the Birmingham branch of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants that the relief system was popular with the men, and that the staff of the Great Western Railway, especially the goods guards, desired to have it more extensively adopted on that line.(3)

Booking off. 259. A practice of which some complaint was made before the Commission, especially in connection with Scotch railways, is that of booking off locomotive men during certain intervals in the day's work, and deducting that time from the day's work for the purposes of payment and of official returns, while holding the men at the disposal of the company. It was stated that this system had been adopted in Scotland since the strike of 1890, and was becoming very general.(4) On the part of the North British Railway Company it was stated that the system of booking off applied only to the case of excursion and other special trains, when there is a long interval between the outward and the return journey; that the men were not booked off unless the interval exceeded three hours; and moreover, that they were always paid a full day's wages, besides lodging expenses, and were at liberty to rest.(5) On the part of the Caledonian Railway Company it was stated that the practice of booking off existed only in the passenger locomotive department, and that the men were not booked off unless the interval exceeded two hours. During such an interval they are entirely at liberty, and though this time is not included in the returns to the Board of Trade, it is calculated in the payment of wages.(6)

The Hours Movement. 260. Evidence was given both before the Select Committee and the Commission, with regard to recent organised movements in the direction of a reduction of hours. In 1883 the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants began a series of agitations on behalf of the servants of the North Eastern Railway Company, the ultimate result being the Newcastle Settlement of 1890. The demand made was for a maximum 10 hours' day for all grades, or a shorter day in certain specified cases, a minimum interval of eight hours' rest between any two days' work, and extra payment at advanced rates for overtime and Sunday work. The reply made by the directors from time to time was substantially that the programme could not be conceded as a whole, involving as it did the establishment of uniform conditions in relation to services quite dissimilar in character, and that the points brought forward resolved themselves for the most part into questions of detail affecting the working of the several departments, and relating rather to wages than hours. The company accordingly dealt with the matter from this point of view, and made considerable concessions to various grades. On their refusal to submit the question as a whole to arbitration, the Amalgamated Society took a ballot on the question of a general strike, but the proposal was defeated. The agitation, considered as a general ten-hours movement, had thus failed. The Newcastle settlement was of local character, and referred, as was pointed out by a representative of the North Eastern Company, almost entirely to wages. He added that the agitation itself had by no means been conducted on the single issue of reduction of hours.(7) At the annual general meeting of the Amalgamated Society at Hull, in October 1889, a programme was adopted which embodied all the principal demands made in the course of the North Eastern Railway hours movement, and which was thenceforth known as the National Programme. The terms of the Programme which related to hours were as follows:—"1. That the maximum hours "of duty be 10 per day, excepting for platelayers, whose "hours shall be nine per day. For shunters in busy "goods yards, signalmen at important signal boxes and "boxes always open, eight hours shall be the maximum. "In every case each day's duty to stand by itself, "and not be counted as part of the week's labour. [§ 260.]
"2. That overtime be paid for at the rate of time and "a quarter, and Sunday duty at time and a half." A circular requesting the concession of these demands was addressed to the directors of every railway company in the kingdom. Very few replies were received, and in most of these it was intimated that the companies preferred to deal directly with the men in their employment.(1) The secretary of the Irish branch handed in a pamphlet containing particulars of the improvements brought about in the conditions of labour on Irish railways since the introduction of the Amalgamated Society in 1885. The movements on the Great Northern and the Midland Great Western Railway in 1890, and on the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway in 1891, were specially successful, and considerable concessions relating to hours, wages, and overtime payment were obtained by negotiation, without a strike. On the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway the terms of the National Programme were almost literally adopted. On the Great Southern and Western Railway and the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway, however, where the movement was carried on by means of strikes, the result was not considered satisfactory. On the whole, however, it was stated that a great deal had been effected, though in many cases there was need of further improvement.(2) It was stated that in Scotland the efforts of the Amalgamated Society in the direction of a reduction of hours were at first only sectional, owing to imperfect organisation. A ten hours' day was obtained for the mineral engine-drivers, firemen, and guards on the Caledonian Railway, and was maintained till after the strike on that line in 1883, when a 12 hours' day was again introduced. In the year 1889 a general movement began, and a circular stating the demands of the Amalgamated Society on behalf of the men was sent to all the Scotch railway companies. Its terms were practically the same as those of the National Programme.(3) The organising secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland referred to the result of the whole movement as a total failure, but it was stated on the part of the North British and Caledonian Companies that a considerable improvement in the hours of labour had been made since the strike, and the returns to the Board of Trade for 1892 were quoted in support of this assertion.(4)

(ii.) LIMITATION OF HOURS, BY LAW OR OTHERWISE.

ROAD TRANSPO

General principle limitation of hours.

261. It is chiefly in connection with omnibuses and tramways that the question has been raised of the application of a restriction of hours to this industry. It was stated by several representatives of the employed that an eight hours' day was advocated by the majority of the men.(5)

Argumen in favour limitation of hours.

(a.) Non economic.

(i.) The physical and mora benefit of the worke

262. (*a.*) The chief consideration which was urged in favour of this scheme was that of the physical and general benefit of the workers, who under the present system are deprived, it is stated, of health and leisure. The injury to health which almost necessarily results from continuous and prolonged exposure to the weather was pointed out by witnesses on behalf of omnibus and tramway men both in London and Manchester. The great desirability of reasonable leisure was also urged from a social and educational point of view.(6) It was further stated that the reduction of hours would remove the principal cause of disputes between employers and employed in this industry.(7)

(ii.) The preventio of trade disputes

(b.) Eco nomic.

(i.) The employme of addi tional labour.

(*b.*) The employment of additional labour was advanced as a somewhat secondary consideration. It was stated that the Edinburgh Tramway Servants Association was endeavouring to obtain an eight hours' day with this object.(8) With regard to the practicability of the proposed change, it was the opinion of several witnesses that the extra cost to omnibus and tramway companies would be little or nothing. The employment of a double shift of men would enable an extra journey to be run, the profits of which would recoup the companies for the outlay in wages. A double shift would not in any case involve double wages, since a lower rate would be considered sufficient for an eight hours' day. It was stated that the concessions hitherto granted had in all cases increased the revenue of the companies.(9) One witness who

(ii.) The financial practica bility of change.

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 468, 474, 479, 484, 485, 489. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 477. Digest, Vol. III., p. 53. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 51. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 58, 59. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 71. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 76. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 469, 484; Digest, Vol. III., p. 94.

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 469. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 79, 84. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLXVII. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 60, 65, 66. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 69, 71, 72, 77, 78. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 66, 69. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 66; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 31. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 69. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 31; Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 329, p. 64. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 69; Digest, Vol. III., p. 27.

[§ 262 (b.)] advocated an eight hours' day in all industries anticipated that the whole industrial system would adjust itself to the altered state of things. In some trades production would be unaffected, and even where it was lessened, he maintained that profits would bear the strain, and that where this was not the case, an industry should cease to be carried on rather than be conducted by means of long hours. It might be necessary to reduce wages, but their regulation might be left to the trade unions.(1) Another witness believed that a reduction of hours would result in a rise of wages.(2)

Arguments against limitation of hours. (a) Economic. (i.) *The financial impracticability of the change, except through a reduction of wages.*

263 (a.) On the other hand, it was maintained by representatives both of employers and employed that a reduction of hours must involve a reduction of wages, which would be unacceptable to the men. It was stated on behalf of a large number of the staff of the London General Omnibus Company that they were on that account entirely opposed to an eight hours' day. A reduction of wages or an increase in fares would alike be effected at the expense of the working classes. With regard to the question of giving employment to further labour, it was stated that omnibus men were "not in a position to be philanthropic."(3) The manager of the London General Omnibus Company and the President of the Tramways Institute also pointed out that the financial difficulties of the scheme were practically insuperable. An eight hours' day at the present rates of wages would drive the companies into bankruptcy, since any increase of fares would lead to a diminution of profits. The manager of the North Metropolitan Tramways Company stated that an eight hours' day at the present rate of wages would cause a reduction of profits by 5 per cent. on capital.(4) It was stated both in the case of this industry and that of the employment of carmen and draymen, that the immediate application of an eight hours' day would be too violent a departure from the present system.(5).

Method of applying a limitation of hours.

264. The only method which it was proposed to adopt in the working of an eight hours' day was that of a double shift extending over 16 hours. Owing to the practical difficulties attending so considerable a reduction of hours as from 14 or 16 to 8, it was proposed by one witness to enforce a 12 hours' day with two hours' relief, for omnibus and tramway men. The manager of the North Metropolitan Tramways Company stated, however, that such an arrangement was an absolute impossibility, and that the only alternatives were an average day resulting from alternate long and short days, or an eight hours' day with two shifts.(6)

Method of bringing about a limitation of hours. (a) *By the voluntary action of trade unions.* (b) *By legislation.* (i.) *A universal eight hours' day.*

265. (a.) The reduction of hours by voluntary methods was not largely advocated, but two witnesses representing omnibus and tramway men were in favour of it, in preference to legislation. One of these was of opinion that "any Eight Hours' Bill would "be a gross interference with the liberty of the "subject."(7)

(b.) One witness, representing the Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union, proposed the enactment of an eight hours' day for all industries, not excepting seasonal trades. Owing to foreign competition he believed that to be thoroughly successful the measure should be international, but in some trades the experiment could be made independently. He added that further education was necessary to secure a majority in favour of the change. The reason for advocating legislation was that trade unions were convinced by experience that strikes on the hours question were useless, since concessions thus obtained were not permanent.(8) The same argument was used by those who proposed legislation applying specially to tramway and omnibus workers. It was stated that the majority of the employed were in favour of it on that ground. Special difficulties in organising the members of this industry were said to arise from the very fact of their want of leisure under the present system.(9) With regard to the probable effect on wages of a compulsory limitation of hours, it was stated that the regulation of wages might safely be left to organisation if the hours question were once disposed of.(10) It was proposed by one witness that the maximum hours of cabmen should be fixed by law.(11) On the part of the National Municipal and Incorporated Vestry Employés Labour Union a legal eight hours' day was advocated on account of the urgency of the "unemployed question." It was not however a universal eight hours' day which was proposed, but one which should be compulsory for all Government and municipal workmen, and subject in other trades to the option of a two-thirds majority.(1) It was proposed that an Eight Hours' Act should be enforced by penalties on both sides, such as a fine for a first offence and imprisonment for a second offence, but without hard labour. It was pointed out by one witness that there would be some hardship in a very rigid application of the law.(2)

(ii.) *An eight hours' day for omnibuses and tramways only.*

(iii.) *An eight hours' day subject to trade option.*

[§ 265 (b.)]

(iv.) *Penalties under an Act.*

RAILWAYS: General principle of limitation of hours.

266. The question of the reduction of hours in railway labour, whether by law or otherwise, was dealt with in evidence before both the Select Committee on Railway Servants and the Commission. It appeared from that evidence that a decided majority of the employed, as well as many employers, were in favour of the general principle of reduction without rigid limitation of hours.

Arguments in favour of: (a.) *Non-economic.* (i.) *The physical and general benefit of the workers.*

267. (a.) The main argument in favour of this view is substantially comprised in the words of a petition handed in by a witness before the Select Committee, in which the opinion was expressed that "the present "system of excessive hours of labour," especially in the case of men employed in responsible and dangerous duties, was seriously detrimental to the health and well-being of railway servants, prejudicial to the true interests of the railway companies themselves, and a source of positive danger to the general public.(3) This argument was repeated in various forms by numerous witnesses. It was also stated that the demand of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for a 10 hours' day was a fair representation of the state of opinion on the subject among railway men in general, especially in Scotland.(4)

(ii.) *The favourable opinion of the majority of railway men.*

(b.) From the economic point of view it was argued that it would not only be practicable, as a matter of arrangement, to adopt 10 hours as the maximum day in all ordinary cases, but that it would be financially possible to effect the change without a reduction of wages.(5) A witness representing the General Railway Workers' Union before the Select Committee, was of opinion that the adoption of an eight hours' day would lead to an improvement in the speed and efficiency of the work performed. A witness representing the same organisation before the Commission, believed that nearly all railway companies made a sufficient margin of profit to meet the expense of the change, and suggested in the case of others a solution of the difficulty by means of an increase in passenger fares, an expedient which he thought likely to succeed because the majority of passengers were persons compelled to travel. The argument was also used that the reduction of hours would give employment to additional labour, especially since it would be necessary for railway companies to make a large increase in their staff in view of occasional extra traffic and other emergencies. It was proposed that this surplus staff should be permanently employed, and that in slack times a further reduction of hours should be made in preference to discharging any of the men.(6)

(b.) *Economic.* (i.) *The practicability of the change.* (ii.) *Its probable financial success.*

(iii.) *Employment of additional labour.*

Arguments against a limitation of hours. (a.) *Non-economic.* (i.) *The contentment felt with the present system.* (ii.) *Objection to methods of reducing hours, which are or might be adopted.*

268. (a.) On the other hand, objections to a reduction of hours were pointed out by numerous representatives of the employed. Some were of opinion that the existing hours of labour were satisfactory, and that occasional overtime, which is the principal cause of long hours, was unavoidable, although undesirable, and should be paid for at an advanced rate, but not otherwise restricted. It was strongly urged by numerous witnesses that any reduction of hours so effected as to oblige locomotive men to remain away from home at night, would be extremely unpopular with that section of the staff, and several witnesses were of opinion that a 10 hours' day could not be arranged on any other plan. Even stronger representations were made to the effect that the curtailment of a day's work, which now includes an interval between two journeys, might involve the loss of necessary rest.(7) It was stated before the Select Committee by representatives of the Great Western Railway Company that memorials had been received from the staff at a large number of locomotive stations, expressing satisfaction with the existing methods of working and confidence in the company. It was further pointed out that a uniform limit of hours for all railway servants would be very unfair

(iii.) *The unjust operation of a uniform limit.*

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 31. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 34. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 29, 36. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 22, 23. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 66. Digest, Vol. III., p. 48. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 66, 68, 69. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 21. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 29, 34. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 31. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 69. (10) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 66, 69. Digest, Vol. III., p. 31. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 38.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 316, p. 60. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 69. Digest, Vol. III., p. 31. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 507. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 489, 506-9. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 54, 62, 85. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 505. Digest, Vol. III., p. 62. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence Vol. III., p. 508. Digest, Vol. III., p. 48. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 472, 474, 481-3, 485, 486.

[§ 268 (a.)] in its operation on account of the dissimilarity of their duties.(1)

(b.) Economic. (i.) That it would result in a reduction of wages.

(b.) It was stated before the Commission by witnesses in the service of the Caledonian Railway Company that a 10 hours' day would certainly involve a reduction in wages, owing partly to the vast expenditure on recent improvements on that line.(2)

Method of applying a limitation of hours.

(i.) An eight hours' day or 48 hours' week.

269. The evidence was somewhat at variance as to the extent of reduction of hours to be attempted, and the method to be pursued in bringing it about. Representatives of the Railway Workers' Union advocated an eight hours' day, or a 48 hours' week, with double payments for overtime on a day's work.(3) Other witnesses proposed an eight hours' maximum in the case of signalmen only, in main-line boxes always open. The great preponderance of the evidence was in favour of a ten hours' day for all railway servants, with the exception already mentioned. In the programme of the Amalgamated Society, further exceptions to the rule are stipulated for in the case of shunters in busy goods yards, and platelayers, whose hours are to be eight and nine a day respectively.(4) The necessity for a daily rather than a weekly limit of hours was pointed out by representatives of the Amalgamated Society and of various sections of railway servants. It was maintained that on no other plan could the occurrence of excessive stretches of work be guarded against, but at the same time it was allowed that a literal adherence to any daily maximum was impossible, and therefore it was proposed to recognise the necessity for overtime in emergencies, by instituting payment for it in all cases at an advanced rate.(5) It was explained that the ten hours' day was intended to exclude meal times if the men were off duty during those periods, but not otherwise.(6) Altogether nine witnesses representing the employed before the Select Committee, and nine before the Commission, were in favour of a 10 hours' day.

(ii.) A ten hours' day, each day standing by itself

(ii.) A twelve hours' day.

A 12 hours' day, applying only to drivers, signalmen, and head guards, was advocated by Major-General Hutchinson, Inspector of Railways for the Board of Trade.(7)

Evidence in favour of legislation.

(a.) For all industries.

270. (a.) The General Railway Workers' Union has pledged itself to the principle of a legal eight hours' day, or 48 hours' week, not only for railway labour but for all industries. A witness representing it stated before the Select Committee that he spoke for 20,000 men who were in favour of this movement. The London branches of the Railway Workers' Union concurred in the resolution passed at Hyde Park in May 1891, advocating an international eight hours' day for all workers, by legislative enactment. According to the proposed law, overtime should be permitted in exceptional cases, but as a rule the eight hours' maximum should be universal, without reference to the character of the employment or the amount of strain involved. All remunerative work in excess of the limit should be prohibited. The Railway Workers' Union has not, it was stated, embodied this scheme in any actual Bill.(8)

(b.) For railways.

(b.) A petition, already referred to, was handed in by a witness before the Select Committee, to the effect that, in the opinion of the petitioners, there was immediate necessity for legislative regulation of the hours of railway servants, especially of those employed in responsible and dangerous duties. Another witness, representing the Irish branch of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, had drafted a Bill providing that in the case of railway servants concerned with the working of traffic the maximum day's work should be 10 hours. It was stated before both the Select Committee and the Commission, by witnesses representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, that in view of the total failure of Scotch railway men to attain their object by combination, it was their general desire that the Legislature should intervene. Unanimous resolutions in favour of a Ten Hours' Bill had been passed at numerous centres. It was suggested before the Commission that such a bill should be framed on the lines of the evidence laid before the Select Committee.(9)

(c.) Extension of the powers of the Board of Trade, subject to local option.

(c.) A third plan, which was discussed in greater detail than the two former, was a proposal to give further Parliamentary powers to the Board of Trade, [§ 270 (c.)] enabling that Department to regulate the hours of labour on railways under certain specified conditions. This scheme was unanimously advocated before the Select Committee by representatives of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants. It was pointed out that the direct limitation of hours by Act of Parliament was neither necessary nor desirable, and that in view of the unavoidable contingencies of railway working, the discretionary power of the Board of Trade would be more conveniently applicable through its comparative elasticity. This opinion was supported by representatives of locomotive men and guards who objected strongly to any direct statutory limitation of hours. The details of the scheme to some extent followed the lines of the Railway Servants (Hours of Labour) Bill, introduced in 1891. It was proposed that on the application of a certain proportion of the staff of any railway company, the Board of Trade should hold an inquiry into the hours of labour on that line, and should then, if necessary, impose and enforce any limit which they thought desirable. The accountability of the Board of Trade to Parliament would be a sufficient safeguard.(1) The secretary for Ireland of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants laid before the Commission a similar scheme in the form of a draft Bill, which, however, left nothing to the discretion of the Board of Trade except the enforcement or non-enforcement of a 10 hours' day and other definite regulations, to the same effect as those contained in the draft Bill laid by the same witness before the Select Committee. The powers of the Board of Trade were by this plan to be set in motion on the application of a majority of the men employed in handling the traffic, in the service or in any one grade of the service of any railway company. The witness argued in support of his proposal, that if hours were compulsorily reduced the railway companies might retaliate by reducing wages, but on the optional system the reduction would not be applied for unless the men were sufficiently organised to preserve the existing rates of wages. He stated that he had formerly been much opposed to legislation in this matter as a substitute for the action of trade unions, but further attention to the subject had convinced him that the latter alternative involved continual disputes with employers, and was unlikely to be permanently effectual. The question had not, he stated, been much discussed by Irish railway men.(2) The schemes laid before the Select Committee and the Commission thus differ from the Railway Servants (Hours of Labour) Bill, already referred to, in the extent of the powers to be granted to the Board of Trade, the latter providing that the Department should impose regulations only after the company in question had been asked to frame a satisfactory system of hours, and had failed to do so.(3)

Evidence against legislation.

271. Thirty-one witnesses before the Select Committee, including representatives both of employers and employed, were opposed to any direct statutory regulation of hours of labour on railways. A number of memorials were handed in, protesting against it on behalf of men, chiefly of the grade of engine-drivers, firemen, and guards, employed on various railways.(4) The main ground of objection, besides those already mentioned in connection with the general principle of limitation of hours, was the consideration which the witnesses urged as men of practical experience, that the working of trains, dependent as it is on fluctuations of traffic, on the state of the weather, and other contingencies, is a matter which cannot be reduced to a certainty, and that the attempt to impose a limit which could not be enforced, would prove unfortunate for all concerned.(5) Witnesses representing the railway companies unanimously protested against direct legislation, partly on the ground of impracticability and increased expense, and also because in their opinion any interference by the State with the internal economy and discipline of a railway would affect the whole management of the undertaking, impair the responsibility of the company, and could only be justified by State acquisition of the entire railway system, which would inevitably be its ultimate result.(6) Sir H. Calcraft, the Permanent Secretary to the Board of Trade, and Major Marindin, Inspector of Railways, pointed out further objections to a statutory limitation, as unnecessary and inexpedient.

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 509. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 75. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 508; Digest, Vol. III., p. 48. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 468, 469, 472; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 52, 85. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 467, 469, 489, 506-8; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 69, 85. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 507-8. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 506. (8) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 507-8; Digest, Vol. III., p. 48. (9) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 507; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 62, 63, 69.

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 507-8. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 85. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 511. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 474, 481, 483, 485 9, 494, 508-11. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p, 509. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 508-16.

[§ 271.] It is unnecessary because the force of public opinion, and motives of true economy, will deter railway companies from overworking their servants in future, and inexpedient because the difficulty of conforming to an absolute rule would cause either constant breaches of the law, or, under certain circumstances, a total paralysis of traffic. It was added that the effect of a uniform maximum might be in some cases to aggravate rather than diminish the length of hours.(1) It was also stated before the Commission, by witnesses in the service of the Caledonian Railway Company, that it was the general opinion of those whom they represented that a reduction of hours could be obtained more satisfactorily by negotiation with the company than by legislation, and that the intervention of any third party between employers and employed was a mistaken proceeding.(2) It was represented further by witnesses on behalf of the companies, that any further legislative regulation of railways had been rendered unnecessary by the recommendations of the Select Committee, which the companies would spontaneously follow.(3) The objections to a statutory limitation were considered by several witnesses before the Select Committee to apply equally to the proposal for extending the powers of the Board of Trade. Witnesses representing the railway companies unanimously opposed the scheme. They pointed out in the first place that the Board of Trade would under such a provision be required to perform an impossibility. The working of a railway, it was stated, is a matter for detailed consideration determined by constantly varying circumstances, and no experience could suggest, or forethought construct, any abstract regulation which would be useful and equitable in practice. It was objected further, that the power of the Board of Trade to intervene between employers and employed would amount to the constitution of a court of appeal over the heads of the management, and would thus be entirely subversive of the discipline of the railway staff. Moreover, the control of hours of labour implies the control of capital expenditure, and touches the independent administration of a railway to such an extent as to affect the final responsibility of the company for its safe working and commercial success. A business placed in so anomalous a position must ultimately be taken over by the State for want of private capital. It was added, that the issue by the Board of Trade of a mere recommendation would be open to no such objections, and would exercise a certain moral influence.(4) Similar considerations were urged by representatives of the Board of Trade, who were of opinion that a general control of the practical administration of railways would involve that Department in a much heavier responsibility than is advisable, and would lead to an amount of interference which might alienate public sympathy.(5)

Practical difficulties. (a.) Avoidance of overtime.

272. (*a.*) It was recognised by every witness who recommended direct legislation on hours of labour, that the exigencies of railway traffic demanded some provision for cases of unavoidable detention and consequent overtime.(6) It was contended on the one hand that such exceptions would, and on the other hand that they would not, be so numerous as to render the law inoperative.(7) No definite scheme, however, was framed to meet the difficulty of allowing, in an Act of Parliament, for "unavoidable" infringements of its provisions, except in the case of the draft Bill laid before the Select Committee by a representative of the Amalgamated Society, which expressly sanctioned overtime to the extent of two hours, and made the original limitation entirely nugatory. According to other witnesses, overtime should be permitted only when unavoidable, and then at an advanced rate of payment, but the question of discrimination between different cases was left unsolved. Several witnesses recommended the appointment of a board of arbitration to deal with such matters, but failed to define its province in conjunction with an Hours of Labour Act. A witness representing the General Railway Workers' Union proposed that a Board of Trade Inspector should decide in each case between avoidable and unavoidable overtime. Major General Hutchinson was of opinion that the law should refer only to the booked time, and that returns should be called for, enumerating cases of overtime, and the causes to which they were due.(8)

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 510, 511. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 75. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 55, 79. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 508–10. (5) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 511. (6) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 507–9. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 48, 69, 85. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 510. Digest, Vol. III., p. 69. (8) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 506–8.

[§ 272 (*b.*)] *(b.) Penalties under an Act.*

(*b.*) The question of penalties for overtime under an Hours of Labour Act was to a great extent left untouched. A witness before the Select Committee, representing the General Railway Workers' Union, proposed that the employer should be punished for all avoidable overtime.(1) In the amended draft of his proposed Bill, laid before the Commission by the secretary of the Irish branch of the Amalgamated Society, it was provided that all cases of work exceeding 12 hours should be investigated by the Board of Trade, who, unless they found the cause of the overtime to have been beyond the control of the responsible officers of the railway company, should have power to impose a penalty on the company for the offence. For overtime on the proposed 10 hours' day the only penalty should be the enforcement of an advanced rate of payment.(2)

3. STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT.

ROAD TRANSPORT. *Ownership of tramways by municipal authorities.*

273. In the industries under consideration the bulk of the evidence on this subject relates to the ownership of tramways by municipal authorities. In the case of Birmingham, Glasgow, and Manchester, the tramways are owned by the Corporation, but leased to a company. The only instance in which the municipality both owns and works them is that of the Huddersfield Corporation Tramways. The history of this undertaking was given by the manager. The tramways, it was stated, were constructed in 1880. In 1882 the Corporation, being unable to lease the lines to a company, obtained powers to work the trams themselves. It was then the opinion of experts, that owing to the severity of the gradients (1 in 17 and upwards) and the sparse population, the undertaking could not be made profitable. The powers of the Corporation are conditional. It is provided that every seven years the tramways shall be advertised to let, and that, upon an offer being made which is satisfactory to the Board of Trade, and subject to their discretion, the powers of the Corporation shall cease. The Corporation would then lease the lines and sell the rolling stock. No attempt has been made to obtain the removal of this condition, the Corporation not being in immediate expectation of losing the control of the tramways. The witness considered, however, that the prospect of a private company seeking to acquire the business was by no means remote, since the Corporation were extending and renewing the lines, and the business had been developing for the last four or five years. Seventeen miles of line are now in working order, and the extensions in progress will add about three miles. The tramcars are all propelled by steam. Twelve run daily, with some additions on Tuesdays and Saturdays, but there is no Sunday traffic. Before May 1888, the services extended over 14 hours a day, and the working hours of drivers and conductors were 12. At that date it was thought advisable to lengthen the hours of running the services, but in the opinion of the Corporation the hours of the men were already excessive, and it was out of the question to increase them. A system was therefore introduced of two eight-hour shifts daily, with a double set of men. At the same time a reduction in wages was made, from 32*s.* to 26*s.* for drivers, and from 23*s.* to 21*s.* for conductors. The proposed arrangement was ballotted on by the men, and obtained their unanimous assent. The change gave general satisfaction, and no dispute or trouble has since arisen with the Corporation's tramway servants. The cost of doubling the staff was balanced by the increase in the running hours of the trams, without any increase of fares. The witness attributed any deficit appearing on the balance sheet to causes quite independent of this change of system. In 1889, 1890, and 1891, there has been an increasing loss on the undertaking, that is, the witness explained, "a "deficiency short of paying the financial charges, "including the sinking fund set apart for the re-"demption of capital." Part of the increased deficiency in 1891 was due to extensions, renewals, and large expenditure for maintenance of ways, together with the increase at that date of the charge for depreciation, from 2 to 3½ per cent on capital. The witness maintained that the loss was more apparent than real, since the amount set apart for the sinking fund should be regarded as a profit. The receipts per running mile are 16½*d.* There is no record of the income per mile of line, but it is estimated that in 1891 it was under 1,500*l.* The witness did not regard the

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 507. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 85.

[§ 273.] difference between the receipts per mile on the Huddersfield and other tramways as implying any defect in the Huddersfield system. The small proportion of trams to mileage should be taken into consideration, and moreover, it is the same peculiarity which causes the maintenance of lines and paving to be so serious a burden on the tramway department. It was stated that the Corporation takes a broad view of the matter, and can afford to look to the future. In the meantime, the loss does not trouble those whom it concerns, and there is no desire on the part of the Corporation or of the ratepayers to lease the undertaking to a company. If there were Sunday traffic the tramways would, in the opinion of the manager, be a financial success, but those who are in favour of this are in the minority. The wages paid by the Corporation compare very favourably, it is stated, with those of similar classes of labour in the district, but do not exceed the fair market rate.(1) A witness representing the drivers and conductors in the service of the Corporation, stated that they were very well satisfied with their conditions of labour, and that it was an undoubted advantage to the employed that such undertakings should be worked by the local authorities rather than by a company. The employment is very exhausting, but the pay is considered sufficient for the number of hours worked. The men have no desire for longer hours and higher wages.(2) The system of control of tramways by the municipality, as at Huddersfield, was advocated by the president and secretary of the Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union. The former stated that the plan of leasing to a company had "no support in any class of "labour." He was in favour of State regulation of labour, and was of opinion that capital should receive no interest. It was stated that the members of the Union generally were in favour of the municipalisation of tramways and omnibuses.(3) A witness representing the Northern Counties Amalgamated Tramways and Hackney Carriage Employés Association was of opinion that local authorities owning tramways should be prohibited by law from leasing them to companies. The local authorities would be satisfied with a lower dividend, and would thus be able to reduce the hours of labour.(4) On the other hand, the general manager of the North Metropolitan Tramways Company, and the President of the Tramways Institute of Great Britain and Ireland, opposed the principle of direct control by a municipality, the latter stating that he was entirely in favour of municipal ownership, provided the tramways were leased to companies, a plan which has been successful at Birmingham, Glasgow, and Manchester. He alluded to Huddersfield in support of the view that corporations yield more readily than companies to the demands of agitators, and have not the same interest in keeping down expenses and leakages.(5) The general manager of the North Metropolitan Tramways Company shared the opinion that the balance sheet of the Huddersfield Corporation Tramways committee showed the experiment of municipal control to be a failure. He stated that the receipts per running mile were 3*d.* more in the case of Huddersfield than in the case of his company, although the former showed a loss, while the latter earned an average dividend of a little over 8½ per cent., notwithstanding the comparatively disadvantageous position of a private company in respect of Parliamentary and other initial expenses. The witness also pointed out that the wages paid by the Huddersfield Corporation were only a little more than half the amount of those of the servants of the North Metropolitan Tramways Company, the hours of the latter being of course longer.(6) An instance of a tramway system owned by a corporation and leased to a company is afforded, as already stated, by the Glasgow Corporation Tramways. The chairman of the tramways committee of the Town Council stated that the lines, extending to about 31 miles of double rails, were laid by the Corporation at a cost of about 360,000*l.*, and leased to a company for a period of 24 years. The lease expires on the 30th of June 1894, and the Corporation have finally decided that they will then work the tramways themselves, and have obtained the necessary Parliamentary powers. It is considered that the Corporation incurs no risk whatever by this step, since the company have been making a very considerable profit for many years. In accordance with the original conditions, negotiations were entered into in 1889, five years before the termination of the lease, with a view to agreeing, if possible, on the terms of a new lease, to run for five years, but the ideas of the company and the Corporation were so strongly opposed that no arrangement could be made. At that time there was a great deal of dissatisfaction among the tramway men with regard to hours of labour and other grievances, and since it was also found that the existing conditions were not such as to attract a desirable class of men, the town council determined to insert a proviso, fixing the week's work at 60 hours, in any new lease that might be agreed on between the company and the Corporation. The company objected to this, and to almost every condition that the Corporation laid down, and no lease was effected. The company's profits for a number of years have been, it is stated, about 15 per cent., and the tramways carry about a million passengers weekly. The employment of the population is favourable to the use of tramcars, and the gradients, as a rule, are very moderate.(1) A witness (Mr. Sutherst) who had been concerned in the hours movement among the omnibus and tramway men in London, proposed a scheme for the municipalisation of tramways and omnibuses, and handed in a copy of a letter in which he had represented his views to the London County Council. He contended that under this scheme a remedy would be found for such evils as the present overcrowding of the streets, the want of connection between different lines, and the overwork and underpayment of the men employed; all of which conditions he attributed to the existence of competing companies, whose sole object is to earn a dividend at the expense of the public and the employed. The existing businesses should be bought up, with or without the rolling and live stock, at a fair and reasonable rate. The capital required would be from 3½ to 4½ millions sterling. The property should then be leased to a company at a rental equal to 3½ per cent. on the cost of purchase. The County Council and the workmen should be represented on the board of management. Interest on capital should be fixed by the conditions of the lease at a maximum of 3½ per cent., and all profits in excess, after providing for an adequate depreciation fund, should be divided in the proportion of one half to the County Council, one-fourth to the company, and one-fourth to the workmen. The lease should also contain conditions providing that the men should not work more than 12 hours a day, including two hours for meals, and that a fair subsistence wage should be paid, which the witness estimated at 2*l.* a week. The witness maintained that no loss could be anticipated, except through bad management, and that if there were any loss, the fares should be raised, on the principle that the passengers ought to pay a sufficient sum to work the business on fair and reasonable lines, and that unless this is possible, the undertaking ought not to be continued. He was convinced that the public would be found willing to pay increased fares for the benefit of public servants, and he did not admit the possibility of the business disappearing altogether. The municipality should have power to decide whether they would permit competition or not. If they had a monopoly, they would be more likely than a private company to act in the interest of the ratepayers.(2) The treasurer of the Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union entirely approved of the proposed scheme of municipalisation. Under the municipal authorities the tramway men could secure reduced hours at the present rate of wages, and a pension fund could be established, to which both the municipality and the men should contribute. Under the present system the great majority of the men have no means of providing for the future.(3) The manager of the London Road Car Company stated that that company would be prepared to discuss a proposal for disposing of their undertaking to the municipality.(4) The secretary of the London Cab Drivers' Society proposed that cabs should be owned and worked by the municipality, and believed that this state of things would ultimately prevail. In the meantime, the municipality should regulate the price of cabs.(5) The conditions of labour of the carmen employed by vestries, and local boards in London have already been referred to. It was stated that direct employment by these authorities was much more advantageous to the men than employment through a contractor, and that there was a growing tendency to abolish the contract system. The vestry elections afford a means of bringing pressure to

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 25, 26, 27. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXXXI. (2) Digest, Vol. III. p. 25. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 68. Digest, Vol. III., p. 31. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 33. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 21, 22.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 27, 28. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 66, 67, Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix CX. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 68. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 38.

[§ 273.] bear on the employers.(1) It was stated that the Bradford Corporation employed horse and cart contractors at 5*s*. 9*d*. a day, who paid their carters 18*s*. or 20*s*. a week for 100 hours' work.(2) The evidence with regard to State employment was confined to certain statements with regard to the carmen in the employment of the Post Office mail cart contractors. The secretary of the London Carmen's Trade Union stated that these carmen were underpaid and overworked to a greater extent than any others in London; that they were not paid for loss of time while being examined for employment and supplied with uniform; that the contractors refused to employ unionists, or discharged them at a minute's notice, and that they employed a large number of boys, sometimes in the place of old hands.(3) A member of the Metropolitan Cabdrivers' Trade Union stated that cabdrivers who had forfeited their licenses through some offence, were frequently employed as mail cart drivers.(4) A memorandum supplied by the Post Office contained a detailed reply to these statements. The facts with regard to the hours and wages of mail cart drivers appeared from this memorandum to differ considerably from the conditions described by the secretary of the Carmen's Trade Union. On each of the remaining points of his statement this document furnished a substantial contradiction, except on that of the non-employment of unionists. It was stated that one of the contractors refused to employ union men, but that men were never discharged at a minute's notice, except for gross negligence or misbehaviour. The Secretary of the General Post Office, in forwarding this information, pointed out that the mail cart drivers were not the servants of the Post Office, but that their conditions of employment were regulated entirely by the contractors.(5)

4. INSPECTION AND REGISTRATION, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

ROAD TRANSPORT.

Government regulation of road transport relates to traffic rather than to workers.

274. Properly speaking, there is no Government regulation of the conditions of labour in these industries, inasmuch as the body of law on the subject relates to the relations between the trade and the public rather than to interference between the employing and the working class. In the case of cabs, indeed, it is more than doubtful whether between proprietor and driver the relation is not one of bailor and bailee rather than of master and servant, and it is certain that a person driving his own cab is subject to precisely the same set of regulations as a person in charge of a vehicle belonging to another. At all events, the law relates rather to the traffic than to the persons conducting it.

Regulations: (*a*.) *Respecting drivers and conductors.*

275. (*a*.) Certain regulations, however, are personal to the drivers and conductors of public conveyances. Such are the rules laid down in section 8 of the Metropolitan Public Carriage Act, 1869, to the effect that "no hackney carriage shall ply for hire within the "limits of this Act unless under the charge of a driver "having a license from the Secretary of State, and no "stage carriage shall ply for hire within the limits of "this Act unless the conductor and drivers of such "carriage have respectively licenses from the said "Secretary of State," the rule to the effect that the Secretary of State may delegate the duty of issuing licenses to the Commissioners of Police, the rule to the effect that such licenses are to be in force for a year unless revoked or suspended, the rule detailing the conditions under which such licenses are granted, and the rule limiting the liability of the driver to the proprietor for damage to his property to 3*l*. In connection with these regulations, several witnesses representing those employed in this industry proposed to limit the issue of licenses in accordance with the requirements of the traffic and the state of the labour market, while Mr. T. Crabbe, a non-unionist driver, objected to the proposal.(6) It was also proposed by the secretary of the United Cab Proprietors' Protection Association to substitute the issue of provisional licenses for three months as a third alternative to either giving a full license or refusing the application altogether. The same witness desired to raise the liability of drivers in respect to damage to the proprietors' property to 10*l*., and to reduce the fees charged for licenses.(7) It was further proposed by the secretary of the London Improved Cab Company, and by representatives of the London Cabdrivers' Society and the Metropolitan Cabdrivers' Union, to regulate by law the price paid by drivers to proprietors in the same way as the fares paid by the public to the drivers, but it was the opinion of witnesses representing various associations of cab proprietors that the adoption of such a proposal would be injurious to the interests of the trade and the public alike.(1) The secretary of the London Cabdrivers' Society considered that the examiners of drivers in respect of efficiency should themselves be subjected to a similar practical examination, and that the licensing authority should fix the maximum hours of labour.(2) A witness representing the Metropolitan Cabdrivers' Union, wished to prohibit men deprived of their licenses from acting as "watermen."(3) [§ 275 (*a*.)]

(*b*.) Other proposals concerning the regulations affecting the control of the traffic were to municipalise all public conveyances, to provide more and better stand accommodation for cabs, to abolish the privilege accorded by railway companies to certain cabs, to enable cabmen to proceed against fraudulent customers elsewhere than in county courts, and to abolish the distinction of fares between cabs hired within and cabs hired outside the radius. It was further proposed to make special provision for the summary conviction of cab stealers, to limit a proprietor's at present unlimited liability for lost luggage, to deprive the police of their power of summoning a proprietor to produce an offending driver, to prohibit the practice of carrying bogus fares, to collect statistics of cab accidents, to relax the law relating to plying for hire off cab-stands, in favour of the drivers, and, finally, to consolidate and revise the whole body of the law dealing with the subject.(4) Mr. Ballard, organising secretary of the London Carmen's Trade Union, proposed that a system of licences should be established for carmen, with a view to prohibiting boy-labour and thus reducing the number of accidents, and also with a view to excluding incompetent or untrustworthy men from the trade.(5) (*b*.) *Respecting traffic.*

RAILWAYS.

The Railway Regulation Act, 1871

276. The subjects dealt with under this head, with reference to railways, are three in number, viz., inquests, inspection, and the proposed issue of certificates of competency to engine-drivers.

(*a*.) *Inquests.*

(*a*.) Inquiries into the causes of accidents are provided for by section 7 of the Railway Regulation Act of 1871, which authorises the Board of Trade to institute an inquiry in the case of any accident of which notice is required to be sent to the said Board, that is, any accident, either attended with loss of life or personal injury to any person whomsoever, or arising from a collision between two or more trains, one of which is a passenger train, or due to a passenger train leaving the rails, or being of a character likely to cause loss of life or personal injury. This Act applies to Scotland as well as to England, but the law which provides for a compulsory and public inquiry into the causes of all accidents that prove fatal does not, and it was the opinion of a witness representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, that the law of Scotland should be assimilated on this point to the law of England. The witness cited two cases in support of his contention. The first was one where the guard of a mineral train was killed in a collision with a passenger train at Kirkcaldy in December 1891, and where the only means of gettting a public inquiry was to charge the driver of the passenger train with culpable homicide. The second was one where a shunter on the Caledonian Railway was thrown from the footboard of an engine by contact with the balance balls of a signal, and killed on the spot, and where an inquiry would have shown that he had been on duty an excessive time, and that the signal was in a very dangerous position, where, in fact, it still remains.(6) It was stated however, by the manager of the Caledonian Railway, that the latter accident occurred through the man leaping from the engine while in motion, and that it could not be ascertained whether he fell or was knocked down by the balance lever of the signal arm. The signal post is at the required distance from the rails, and its position was fixed in the usual manner by the officers of the company and the Board of Trade Inspector.(7) It was said to be the practice in Ireland also to arrest any railway servant concerned in an accident, whether there is or is not any evidence to show that he is responsible for it. The secretary of the Amalgamated

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 43. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 44, 45. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 38. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 45, 46. Ballard, 17,811*a* (Memorandum). (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 67-70. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37, 38, 44. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 40, 41.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37-9, 41-3. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 38. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 39. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 67-9. Vol. III., pp. 37-41, 43-4. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 63 (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79.

[§ 276 (a).] Society of Railway Servants for Ireland, and the Chairman of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway Company, both referred to the injustice of this practice, and stated that the police authorities had been communicated with on the subject.(1)

(b.) *Inspection.* (b.) Inspection is provided for by section 3 of the Railway Regulation Act, 1871, which gives the Board of Trade power to appoint inspectors as occasion requires, to examine any railway and to make inquiries with a view to enabling the Board to administer the various Acts of Parliament relating to railways. But, except in the event of a serious accident, the visits of the Board of Trade Inspectors are ordinarily reserved for newly constructed lines and for new stations about to be opened. There is no regular periodical inspection of railway stations and workshops, such as takes place under the Factory Acts. It was the opinion of representatives of the General Railway Workers' Union, and of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, as well as of some of the witnesses examined before the Select Committee on Railway Servants (Hours of Labour), that such periodical inspection should be provided for by the appointment of working men as sub-inspectors to inquire into defects and issue reports to the Board of Trade.(2) On the other hand, the late Sir G. Findlay, general manager of the London and North-Western Railway, Mr. J. Thompson, general manager of the Caledonian Railway, in their evidence before the Commission and the representatives both of the railway companies and of the Board of Trade, examined before the Select Committee, objected to the adoption of such a scheme on the ground that it would be subversive of discipline, and would have the effect of transferring the responsibility for the safe working of the lines from the companies to a Government Department, thereby introducing State control into every branch of railway administration.(3)

(c.) *Engine-drivers' certificates.* (c.) It was further proposed by Mr A. Ballantyne, representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, that it should be made compulsory for engine-drivers to pass an examination and obtain certificates of competency from the Board of Trade. It is necessary, he contended, in the interests of the travelling public, that all drivers of locomotive engines should be thoroughly efficient. At present, the only judge of their fitness is the locomotive superintendent of the line. An engine-driver, moreover, cannot show any proof of his qualification when seeking a fresh situation, and therefore loses his standing in the railway service on changing from one employer to another, and has to serve a second apprenticeship, for railway companies do not give certificates of character, but expect the men to refer their future employer to them, and the men do not know the result of the inquiry.(4) On the other hand, the general manager of the Caledonian Railway contended that the suggestion preferred by Mr. Ballantyne was superfluous. All engine-drivers, he explained, go through the preliminary stages of cleaners and firemen, and thus have all the training required to make them thoroughly competent. A cleaner must have at least a year's experience as such before he can be examined as to his fitness for promotion to the grade of fireman, and a fireman must serve as such for five years before he can be promoted to the rank of engine driver.(5)

5. ACCIDENT FUNDS AND EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

OMNIBUSES AND TRAMWAYS. 277. The evidence with regard to accident funds and employers' liability referred almost exclusively to railway employment. It was merely stated with regard to omnibuses and tramways in the North of England, that accidents were very common, and that none of the companies gave voluntary compensation, even to men injured in "full attention" to duty.(6)

RAILWAYS. Extent and causes of accidents. 278. With regard to the extent and causes of accidents to railway servants, no definite statement was made, but it was pointed out by the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, in their answers to the Schedules of Questions, that the manipulation of traffic, especially shunting, was attended with great risk, which might be considerably diminished by the adoption of improved couplings and other appliances.(7) [§ 278.] It was stated by witnesses representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants that the danger of shunting had been much reduced in England and Scotland by the use of the coupling pole, which however had not long been introduced into Ireland, and was not much used, except on the Great Southern and Western Railway; and further, that except on that line, very few shunting yards in Ireland were properly lighted. Owing, however, to the comparative smallness of the traffic on Irish railways, accidents are less numerous than in England.(1) The insufficient lighting of station yards, and faulty construction of points, were mentioned by another witness as causes of personal accidents on the London and South Western Railway. It was stated that in several cases there were points which were unconnected with the signal-box, and had to be held in position while the engine passed over.(2)

Accident funds. (a.) *History.* 279. (a.) Evidence was given before the Select Committee on Railway Servants (Hours of Labour) and also before the Commission, on the subject of accident insurance funds in connection with railway employment. Among these the chief prominence was given to the London and North Western Assurance Society. It was stated before the Commission, by the general manager of the London and North Western Railway, that in 1871 another insurance fund existed, which provided for a payment of 35*l.* or 40*l.* to the representative of any man killed by accident in the discharge of his duty, and 25*l.* or 35*l.* for complete disablement, or in less serious cases, a sick allowance of 12*s.* to 18*s.* a week for six months. On the passing of the Employers' Liability Act, the London and North Western Company, regarding it as "a great misfortune" for the discipline of the staff that they should engage in litigation with the company, proposed to the men that an improved form of the insurance society should be substituted for the operation of the Act. With the exception of about 100 dissentients, all the men in the service accepted this suggestion, and the insurance society was reconstituted, with an increased scale of benefits. Membership was optional for those already in the service, but was made compulsory for those afterwards entering it. It was stated that the men were all perfectly satisfied with this arrangement. In 1892, at the time of giving evidence, the society was flourishing, and had a balance of 25,000*l.* in hand. The sum that had been paid in compensation for accidents since its first institution was 370,000*l.*(3) Similar societies exist on the Lancashire and Yorkshire, and the London, Brighton, and South Coast Railways. Membership of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Insurance Society was made compulsory on all the servants of that company and of the East Lancashire Railway Company, by an order of the united board of directors in November 1857.(4) It was stated that in the case of the London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway it was left optional, on the passing of the Employers' Liability Act, for the company's servants to remain under the Act or to join the company's insurance fund; but after full discussion at several meetings the men decided almost unanimously to accept the insurance scheme. The company then made it compulsory on men entering the service to join the fund, and contract out of the Act.(5) Evidence was given before the Select Committee, with regard to an accident fund on the Great Eastern Railway, which everyone entering the service, except as a clerk, is required to join. It does not appear that the members contract out of the Employers' Liability Act.(6) Two witnesses before the Commission referred to the hardship of compulsory membership of such societies, and the deduction of subscriptions from wages. One of these stated that on the reconstitution of the insurance society on the London and North Western Railway he was told that he must join it or leave the company's service. It was stated on the part of the company that this complaint was probably groundless, since membership was not compulsory on those already in the service, and several men, as a matter of fact, declined to sign the form of contract, though they afterwards voluntarily did so.(7) In some cases where there is a sick fund instituted by the company, cases of accident are treated as cases of illness, and relieved by the fund in the same manner. The Midland Railway Friendly Society gives allowances for accidents, and the Great Southern and Western Railway Superannuation Fund

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 82. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CII. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 51, 63, 82, 100. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 55, 79, 100. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 63. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 78. (6) Digest, Vol. III. p. 19. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 358, p. 38.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 81, 82. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. (3) Digest Vol. III., pp. 135-6. (4) Rules of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Insurance Society. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXCIX. (6) Appendix to Minutes, Vol. III. p. 505. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 51, 56.

279 (a.)] for enginemen and firemen specially provides an increased scale of pension in the case of disablement in the discharge of duty.(1)

) Management. (b.) No evidence was given with regard to the management of the insurance fund on the London, Brighton, and South Coast Railway. The three other societies mentioned divide among them the three available methods. The London and North Western Assurance Society is under the same management as the provident society on that line, namely, a committee of twelve delegates of the men and three nominees of the company.(2) The Lancashire and Yorkshire Insurance Society is managed entirely by the members, who elect a committee of 24, the committee then electing a chairman and vice-chairman from their own number.(3) The accident fund on the Great Eastern Railway is managed entirely by the company, the committee consisting of the chairman, the deputy-chairman, and one other director, the secretary, the general manager, and the solicitor of the company.(4)

) Contributions and benefits. The evidence with regard to the contributions payable and benefits granted in connection with these societies has been tabulated as follows:—

TABLE of CONTRIBUTIONS and BENEFITS in connection with ACCIDENT FUNDS.

—	London and North Western Assurance Society.(5)	Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Insurance Society.(6)	Great Eastern Railway Accident Fund.(7)
Contributions:—			
Company	15,000*l.* a year.	—	Half the annual contribution of the members, and a sum of 15*l.* or 30*l.* on the death of a member in the discharge of his duty.
Members	—	1*d.* to 4*d.* a week.	1*d.* or 2*d.* a week.
Benefits:—			
(1.) Temporary injury.	14*s.* or 21*s.* a week for a year.	5*s.* to 1*l.* a week, according to class, for 25 weeks.	10*s.* or 20*s.* a week for 25 weeks; afterwards at the discretion of the committee.
(2.) Fatal injury or	80*l.* or 100*l.*	12*l.* 10*s.* to 62*l.* 10*s.*	65*l.* or 130*l.* if notice is not given of intention to proceed under the Employers' Liability Act; 33*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* or 66*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, if such notice is given.
(3.) Permanent disablement.	80*l.* or 100*l.*	18*l.* 15*s.* to 50*l.*	

voluntary compensation by employers. 280. In the case of the North Eastern Railway it was stated before the Select Committee that voluntary compensation for accidents was given by the company.(8) In the answers to the Schedules of Questions received from Associated Employés, it was stated that compensation was seldom given voluntarily by railway companies.(9)

mployers' iability ct.) Operation. 281. (a.) With regard to the operation of the Employers' Liability Act of 1880, the chief ground of complaint was the effect of the doctrine of common employment, which was only modified and not abolished by the Act. Representatives of the General Railway Workers' Union and of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants were strongly of opinion that the doctrine of common employment should be abolished altogether, and that railway servants and passengers should be on the same footing with regard to compensation for injury. The companies, it was stated, would then adopt means to reduce accidents among their staff to a minimum.(10) On the other hand, it was stated by the general manager of the London and North Western Railway, that a law making railway companies liable for all accidents except those caused by the negligence of the injured man, and prohibiting the plea of common employment, together with contracting out of the Act, would be most unjust in its operation, and would probably involve the London and North Western Company in a much larger expenditure than the annual sum which they pay under the insurance scheme. In his opinion, however, the representatives of the workmen would not go so far as to insist on this demand.(1) It was pointed out by the secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Ireland, that certain classes of railway servants were unaffected by the Act, and came under the unqualified common employment doctrine. The clause by which the Act is made to apply specially to railway servants, refers only to those engaged in the working of the traffic, not to men employed on platforms or in goods warehouses.(2) [281 (a.)]

(b.) "Contracting out." (b.) The practice of contracting out of the Act was strongly condemned by witnesses representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland and Ireland respectively, who stated, however, that no Scotch or Irish railway company had adopted that course. It was contended that the purpose of the Act was defeated by the permission to contract out of its provisions, since it was intended as a protection for the lives of workmen, and not as a means of obtaining compensation. If employers of labour, it was urged, contract themselves out of the Act, and pay the same sum every year to an accident fund, they have no inducement to take any extra precaution against the occurrence of accidents. It was stated further by a witness formerly employed by the London and North Western Company, that the company's servants were practically coerced into contracting out of the Act.(3) On the other hand it was stated by the general manager of the London and North Western Railway, that since the Assurance Society had been formed, there had been no evidence, either by resolution or memorial on the part of the men, to show that they objected to contracting out of the Act. On the contrary, when the question came before Parliament, a memorial in favour of the present system was signed by thousands of the London and North Western Company's staff. Further, in 1886, when a Select Committee was sitting on a proposal to abolish contracting out, representatives of the staff gave evidence to the effect that they were perfectly satisfied, and the Committee ultimately reported in favour of the principle on which the North Western Assurance Society is conducted. The advantages of the Act, it was further pointed out, are merely contingent, while the insurance scheme secures compensation or sick allowance on a liberal scale for all injuries sustained in the company's service, independently of the negligence or otherwise of the company or the workman. It was stated that under the provisions of the Employers' Liability Act, the company would probably save 10,000*l.* or 12,000*l.* a year, but that they preferred to pay that amount to avoid litigation with their staff, and in order to secure to the men a certain instead of an uncertain advantage.(4)

(c.) Suggested amendments. (c.) Amendments were proposed in the sections of this Act relating to the limit of time for giving notice of a claim and for bringing the case into court, and to the limit in the amount of compensation. It was stated by representatives of the General Railway Workers' Union, and of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, that the limit of six weeks for giving notice of a claim was too short a period, and the latter witness proposed that it should be extended to at least six months. It was stated that in many cases of serious injury the injured man was unable to instruct a solicitor before the lapse of six weeks, or was readily deterred from lodging a claim by a promise of employment. Moreover, if the notice were delayed, the claim might be settled out of court. It was urged that in cases of fatal accident time should be given for the Board of Trade Inspector to report, before steps are taken to obtain compensation. It was also contended that a longer period than six months should be allowed before entering the case into court, though a certain limit of time was necessary. These witnesses, as well as the secretary of the Irish branch of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, were of opinion that the amount of compensation allowed under the Act, namely, three years' wages, was totally inadequate, and that the limit should be abolished altogether, and the amount left for the decision of the jury. The greater the negligence of the employers, the greater should be their responsibility, without reference to the wages earned by the workmen. It was contended that in the case of a youth earning 26*l.* or 30*l.* a year, the

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 505. Rules of the Great Southern and Western Railway Sick Fund. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. (3) Rules of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Insurance Society. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 505. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. (6) Rules of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway Insurance Society. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence. Vol. III., p. 595. (8) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 503. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, No. 358, p. 38. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 134-5.

(1) Digest III., pp. 136-7. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 135. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 134-5. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 135-7.

[§ 281 (c).] maximum amount obtainable under the Act would be quite inadequate compensation for permanent disablement.(1)

6. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

Subject matter dealt with.

282. Certain subjects with regard to the conditions of labour, to which reference was made in the evidence, remain to be noted. These relate mainly to the "ticket system" among omnibuses and tramways, the price of cabs and the "privilege system" among the hackney carriages, and the rules of railway service.

Omnibuses and Tramways. The ticket system.

283. It appears from the evidence given on the subject of the relative merits of the ticket system and the way-bill system that the more general adoption of the ticket check is regarded as an improvement from a moral point of view. Mr. Kingham, secretary to the London General Omnibus Company, stated that "the "introduction of the ticket system enabled us to detect "a great many men who were taking money which "otherwise we should not have been able to find out,"(2) and an omnibus driver of 20 years' standing was of opinion that it was "a great check on what used to go "on." "We have worked, I must admit, for many "years under a very dishonest system. It was not our "fault, but the fault of the system that has been in vogue "for 40 years or more now."(3) Two other witnesses, in the employment of the London General Omnibus Company, held that "the company did a grand thing "when they started the ticket system."(4) In addition to these statements of both employers and employed, indirect evidence of the extent of the peculations under the old system is supplied by the assertion that neither drivers nor conductors were satisfied with the advance of 1s. a day, given at the introduction of the ticket system by the London General Omnibus Company, and by the fact that the strike of June 1891 was attributed by several witnesses to the change of system, although the long hours were given as the ostensible reason.(5) The monetary advantage of the change would appear to be on the side of the companies, even taking into account the advance of wages rendered necessary.(6) The London Road Car Company, which, like the London Omnibus Carriage Company, had adopted the ticket system at the outset, has no doubt that by so doing it avoided considerable losses, and instances the experience of the London General Omnibus Company. "As to abolishing ticket inspectors," said Mr. Duff, "it can be successfully shown by figures that the Road "Car Company could not have existed but for the "system which renders those inspectors necessary."(7) Given, then, that the ticket system is better than the previous system of "way-bills," the further question that arises is whether it is perfect, or, failing that, the best system workable. That it is not regarded as perfect seems clear from several statements that were made. One witness pointed out that it was no safeguard in the case of collusion between passenger and conductor, and stated that this collusion sometimes existed; "the ticket system appeals to the honesty "of the public and of the conductor, but it is "not an absolute check, not with the most strin-"gent regulations."(8) The same opinion was even more emphatically advanced by Mr. Hammill, also representing the employed, who said, "I know that at "the present time there are men, even under the ticket "system, who are still paying horsekeepers and drivers "money; and I believe that the companies know it, "and if they do know it they certainly must know "that there is a system still being worked and prac-"tised which is not honest. Neither do I think that "the ticket system will ever work."(9). One witness, the President of the Tramways Institute of Great Britain and Ireland, who had had considerable experience in the management of tramways both at home and abroad, while admitting that the ticket system without the bell-punch "leaves a great deal to be desired," gave as his view that this system with the bell-punch "is not "absolutely perfect, but it is as near perfection as we "can get."(10) Mr. Hammill, on the other hand, urged the necessity of devising a system similar to that in practice in Paris, or to the railway system, *i.e.*, that on the routes there should be offices where tickets might be purchased by the dozen, so that "the men would "never be allowed to handle the money at all. I "believe," he added, "that by that course we should "be able to crush out a demoralising system, which is "so detrimental to the men.(1)

[§ 283.]

Hackney Carriages. Price of cabs.

284. Trade disputes in the hackney carriage business are chiefly concerned with the question of the price to be paid by the driver to the proprietor for the hire of a cab.(2) Under the existing system in London, the price varies with the season of the year, the number of horses let out with the cab (one, two, or sometimes three), and the quality of the "lot." There are, it appears, about four classes of cabs in the streets of London; the fares paid by the public are in each case identical, but it is worth while for a driver to pay a larger hire for a superior cab, because the public are "sufficiently discriminating" to give more custom to the better vehicle.(3) The hire money is paid every night, and the engagement is then terminable on either side. It is stated that where a proprietor belonged to an association, if a driver failed to pay the hire he could not get re-engagement with any member of the association so long as the debt was against his name. This, however, was denied to be the case in more than one or two societies: while in others, if short money is paid, the proprietor uses his discretion as to the re-letting of his cab. Much conflicting evidence was given on the subject of the profits of proprietors. They themselves assert that these profits are far from large, and that in view of the cost of cabs and the rate of depreciation, the prices charged are as low as they can afford.(4) The drivers, on the other hand, contend that the proprietor gets an unfair share of the returns of the business; it was, however, admitted by one of their own number that the men have generally taken an exaggerated view of the profits of the proprietors, partly through neglect of the item of depreciation, and partly through their persistence in "basing their arguments on the price charged for a "superior cab and the cost of an inferior one." Masters, on their side, according to the same witness, have exaggerated the earnings of the cabmen.(5) The discrepancy between the statements of masters and men is to a certain extent explained by the evidence given on the subject of yard money; under the system which prevails in most cab yards the driver has to pay numerous small sums to the men in the yards, in addition to the regular hire of his cab, and it is this which in the opinion of one witness, "leads to all the "complications. The drivers state that they pay "one thing and the proprietors represent that they "receive another, and it is this indefinite quantity, "this yard money, that comes between us, and we can "never find out what it really is."(6) Another point on which proprietors and drivers hold different views is the question as to which side bears the heaviest burden of liability. The extent of this difference of opinion is shown by the two following statements:— "The liability of the cab proprietor in the exercise of "his business is an unknown quantity, that of the cab "driver is practically nil." "We (the drivers) are "liable for all kinds of things, and they (the proprie-"tors) escape scot free. They have no responsibility "whatever to the public, except for accidents."(7) The demand of the drivers is for a fixed scale of prices for the different times of the year: they maintain that when the Hackney Carriages Act was framed it was anticipated that the proprietor would be the person to deal with the public, and that in the existing state of things, with the cabmen as middlemen, it is both unfair and unreasonable to fix the charges for the public and not those for the drivers.(8) The London Cab-drivers' Association, the Metropolitan Cab-drivers' Trade Union, and the London Improved Cab Company are all agreed in urging this claim.(9) One driver, however, who spoke on behalf of a large number of non-union cabmen, was of opinion that "there cannot be a uniform price"; and the proprietors maintain that, owing to the varying quality of cabs and the varying conditions of London life, it is quite impossible for them to agree to a fixed price or a fixed time for raising price.(10) One witness on behalf of the drivers, while condemning the present state of things, admitted that the price "could not very well be settled by outside "authority, simply because the value of the cab varies "at different seasons." He was of opinion, however, that friendly agreement between proprietors and

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 134–5. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 20. Kingham, 18,178. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 28. Pierce, 22,658, 22,661. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 36. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 30. Kingham, 18,178; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 23, 24, 30, 35. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 20. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. Duff, 18,381. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 68. Atkinson, 16,519. (9) Hammill, 22,916. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32. Wain, 23,250-2.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 31. Hammill, 22,916. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 70. Digest, Vol. III., p. 41. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 70. Vol. III., pp. 37, 38, 43. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 41. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 70. Dyke, 16,598. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 43. Scott, 19,272-3. Dyke, 16,608. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 43, 37. Scott, 19,265. Beasley, 17,515. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 37. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37, 39, App. 121. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 41, 43.

[§ 284.] cabmen might effect the desired regulation, and that periodical consultations between representatives of the two sides would succeed in keeping prices fairly adjusted.(1) This proposal received no support from the proprietors, and Mr. Chapman, representing various proprietors' associations, made the unequivocal statement, "We certainly are not prepared to meet the men "to arrange a scale of prices.(2)" An argument on which great stress was laid was that a fixed price would inevitably bring about a deterioration in cab property, since proprietors would have no inducement to vie with one another in running a good class of vehicles. "It "would be very detrimental not only to the cab "interest, but to the public.(3)" An alternative, suggested by one witness, was that London cabmen should be placed upon the same footing as those in the provinces, and should receive a definite wage.(4)

The Privilege System.

285. The complaint against the railway privilege system is one in which proprietors and drivers are agreed. "The majority of the cab trade," according to one proprietor, "have agitated for the past quarter of "century against the railway companies giving pre- "ference to certain proprietors to ply for hire at "railway stations, and excluding the rest."(5) It was stated that there are at present 9,500 unprivileged drivers, and 3,500 unprivileged proprietors, and that Waterloo and Vauxhall stations are the only "open" ones out of the 18 within the radius.(6) No extra conditions as to cleanliness or repair are imposed upon the privileged cabs,(7) and the system is complained of as injurious to the cab trade in general. It is urged that its abolition would be a great gain to the public "both cab-riding and non-cab-riding"; traffic would be facilitated, and the railways better supplied; under the present arrangement the railway companies could not be served at all times if it were not for the ordinary cabs.(8) The demands of the witnesses before the Commission were substantially a re-statement of those embodied in a petition presented to the House of Commons in 1887, and another to the Home Secretary in 1892.(9) They desired the abolition of the privilege system, and the creation at railway stations of cab standings under control of the usual authorities; failing this, the prohibition of privileged cabs to ply for hire elsewhere than at railway stations.(10) They maintain that the railway companies are acting illegally in creating cab standings elsewhere than where appointed by the Home Secretary or the Commissioner of Police. In 1891, however, Mr. Matthews stated that "in the absence "of stipulation to the contrary, the stations of railway "companies are not places at which cab-drivers have a "right to stand, and the excluded cab-drivers have no "cause for complaint in the absence of public incon- "venience."(11) Letters were written in 1890 by the cabmen to the managers of the chief railway companies in London, requesting that cabs bringing a fare to a station might be allowed to take one away; but the answers received were all to the effect that no alteration would be made in the existing arrangement.(12) Even if this compromise had not been rejected it would not have satisfied the petitioners, since the privileged cabs would still have the preference.(13) It was made clear by the witnesses that the cabmen were willing to pay the railway companies for admission to the premises. The arrangement at the London and South Western station, where all cabs alike pay 1*d.* on entering, was asserted to be most satisfactory; another suggestion was made that each should pay 4*d.* a week, and so provide the 10,000*l.* which the railway companies now receive. "The cabmen," Mr. Crabbe stated, "do not "care what they pay for the privilege, so long as they "have fair play."(14)

RAILWAYS. Rules of Railway Service. (*a.*) *Prohibition of railway servants from carrying on another employment.*

286. (*a.*) Protest was made against the rule of railway service whereby anyone employed on the line is prohibited from carrying on any other business either "directly or indirectly."(15) The wages of railway servants, it was asserted, are insufficient to support a family, and the men maintain that the companies have no right to control a man's actions when off duty.(16) To this the companies rejoin that they have every right if those actions are "interfering with the performance of his "duty to them next day."(17) The reasons given for the enforcement of the regulation are that a man's whole attention is required in the railway service, and that if he engages in other business and occupations in his hours of rest he will not be fit to do his work.(1) A representative of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Ireland objected to the regulation as unfair, on the ground that the companies, while they demand the exclusive use of a man's services, do not guarantee him a week's wages unless a week's work has been provided for him.(2) This statement was contradicted by a manager of the Great Southern and Western Railway of Ireland, who said, referring to the above complaint, "This is quite inaccurate so far as it "affects my line, and also, I believe, all the other "principal lines in Ireland,—every man is provided "with a week's work, or is paid for the full week."(3). [§ 286 (*a.*)]

(*b.*) Another grievance brought forward by the railway servants, especially those on Scotch lines, was with regard to the tenancy of cottages belonging to the railway companies. The evidence on this point was contradictory with regard to the reasons for the men's occupying these houses. Witnesses representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants spoke as if it were a condition of service on the Caledonian Railway, and stated that "the general feeling of "the men is that they would rather go elsewhere "for their houses," while a witness employed on the same line represented that not only was occupation of the company's houses not compulsory, but that there was great competition for them, sometimes a dozen applicants for one vacant cottage.(4) Corroboration of the last-mentioned evidence was received from railway managers in both England and Scotland, who spoke moreover of continual applications for the erection of more houses for the accommodation of the men on the lines.(5) The fact would seem to be that the companies' servants can get from the companies at a moderate rent superior houses, conveniently situated with regard to their work, but that in some cases these advantages are considered to be counterbalanced by the disadvantageous terms of occupancy.(6) These terms provide that the tenant shall occupy the house only during employment in the company's service, and this regulation is objected to as putting the railway servants entirely in the power of the companies; "the men are thus practically tied hand and foot "to their employers."(7) It was stated that the men "are prohibited from taking other and better situa- "tions on many occasions because of the necessity "to move from the house at other than the customary "removal terms, when houses are not to be had."(8) References, both condemnatory and explanatory, were made to the evictions at Motherwell during the strike of 1890–1.(9) It was admitted that under ordinary circumstances there was no hardship in the regulation, and that it was sometimes even an advantage for a man to get his house taken off his hands at once when removing to another district; but objection was taken to the companies enforcing the rule during strikes, "not to install a new tenant, but to defeat the move- "ment."(10) It was urged as desirable that the companies should let their houses from month to month, or according to one proposal, that there should be three months' notice necessary on either side, unless by mutual consent.(11). *(b.) Occupancy of the companies' houses.*

(*c.*) The inaccessibility of the railway directors to the grievances of the employed was made a cause of complaint in some cases, but upon this subject the evidence was of a conflicting nature. It would appear that all the companies recognise the right of the men to represent their wishes to the directors by deputation. In the case of a few of the smaller companies these deputations are allowed to consist of the official representatives of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, but the majority prefer to receive requests only from the persons directly concerned.(12) The chief dispute which has arisen in this matter of deputations was in connection with the refusal of the North British Company in 1890 to meet the men, except in separate grades; this was the immediate cause of the strike, since the Union deprecated any sectional action.(13) Individuals, again, have the right of appeal to the *(c.) Petitions from the staff to the directors.*

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 70. Dyke, 16,605, 16,717. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 41. Chapman, 19,198. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 41, 43. (4) Beasley, 17,481. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. Mills 18,641. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 43. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44. (8) Digest, Vol. III. pp. 43, 44. Mills 18,641. (9) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendices CXXXIX. CXL. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 38, 40. Crabbe, 22,988 sq. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 43. Crabbe, 22,980–5. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendices CXL., CXLII. (12) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXLI. (13) Crabbe, 23,022–5. (14) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 38, 44. Crabbe, 23,020. (15) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 50, 52. (16) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 51, 52. (17) Digest, Vol. III., p. 89. Maunsell, 27,355.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 89, 52. Smith, 24,422. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 81. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 88. Colhoun, 27,282. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 59, 69. Paisley, 26,591–6. Digest, Vol. III., p. 73. Melrose, 27,634. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 73, 78. Findlay, 25,960. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 54, 59, 68-9, 75, 78, 81. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 59, 69, 81; Ballantyne, 26,059. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 59. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 61, 62, 67, 78. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 75, 81. Foreman, 26,237. (11) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 59, 63. (12) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 87, 88, 98. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix, p. 502. (13) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 60, 98.

[§ 286 (c.)] directors, through the heads of departments. In the evidence taken before the Select Committee on Railway Servants this regulation was referred to with general approval, but a witness examined before the Commission spoke of the "exasperation" of the men at the companies' reiterated enunciation of this rule in 1890, and another was of opinion that the right of appeal under these conditions was practically valueless, since the subordinate officials could refuse to forward complaints. (1) It was stated that under such circumstances it would be open to the aggrieved person to apply directly to the manager or directors, but this does not appear to be always the case. (2) The efficacy of such an appeal, where the right does exist, was the subject of considerable difference of opinion, as was also the question as to whether the men are deterred from making complaints from fear of consequences. (1) [§ 286 (c.)

(d.) Attention was called by one witness to the unfair behaviour of the companies in requiring at least three characters from applicants for posts in their service, and yet refusing to give written certificates to their servants on leaving. (2) It was stated that it was the general practice of railway companies to tell a man to refer his future employer to them, and that sometimes the men failed to obtain employment, through having no written character ready to show. A case was mentioned of a man who had a Government certificate from a previous situation, and could not get it returned to him on leaving the railway service. (3) (d.) The granting of characters

B. ORGANISATIONS.

1. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS, ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED, AND JOINT BOARDS.

ROAD TRANSPORT. Organisations of employers. (a.) History

287. (a.) The only organisations of employers in connection with these industries, with regard to which any details were furnished, are the Improved Cabs Club, London, which was formed in 1882, and the Liverpool Cart-owners' Association, Limited, which was registered under the Companies Acts in 1891. Several organisations of cab proprietors in London were referred to, such as the Metropolitan Cab Proprietors' Strike Fund Association, and various others which are constituted into what is termed an Insurance Association. The rules of the two societies first-mentioned have alone been supplied to the Commission. (3)

(b.) Constitution and government.

(b.) The Improved Cabs Club is managed by a chairman, vice-chairman, and secretary. The Liverpool Cart-owners' Association is managed by a Committee which elects from its own number a president, vice-president, and treasurer. There are also four trustees who are members of the Committee, a secretary, and two auditors. General meetings are held in the former case monthly, and in the latter annually. All questions at a general meeting are decided by a majority of votes, the president having a casting vote in the case of the Liverpool Cart-owners Association. No change in the rules can be made without the approval of a general meeting. All disputes arising within the Cart-owners' Association are referred to an Arbitration Sub-Committee appointed annually by the Committee.

(c.) Entrance fees, conditions of membership, and control of funds.

(c.) Membership of the Improved Cabs Club is confined to proprietors "working at least six numbers," and there is an entrance fee equal to three months' subscription. Subscriptions are in both cases calculated on the extent of property worked by each member; in the Improved Cabs Club, on the number of cabs, and in the Liverpool Cart-owners' Association, on the number of horses. In both associations members who are a certain number of weeks in arrears are fined or suspended from benefits, and if still in arrears after a certain further period are excluded from the society. In the case of the Improved Cabs Club, no money may be voted away for any purpose except by a special meeting of the association. The expenditure of the funds of the Liverpool Cart-owners' Association is controlled by the Committee.

(d.) Dispute and other regulations.

(d.) The Improved Cabs Club has no regulations affecting disputes between employers and employed. The rules of the Liverpool Cart-owners' Association provide that in case of a strike or threatened strike, no member may concede the demands of the men without the consent of the Committee, who decide all questions arising out of such a situation. Both organisations have rules with regard to conditions of employment, and maximum wages or minimum cab-hire to be paid or charged by members. Members of the Improved Cabs Club are liable to a penalty for employing a driver whom they know to be a defaulter. They are also expected to notify to the owner the numbers of any cabs of a fellow member which are seen at any race meeting near London. Members of the Liverpool Cart-owners Association are prohibited from underselling fellow-members, or interfering with their employment, and from working for or employing non-members.

(e.) Objects

(e.) The object of the Improved Cabs Club is the mutual protection of proprietors and drivers. The associations of cab proprietors which form the Insurance Association are intended primarily to indemnify members for claims brought against them on account of personal injury or loss of luggage in the streets. They also take up questions affecting the trade, but do not combine to keep up the price of cab hire. (4) The objects of the Liverpool Cart-owners' Association are to protect and advance the common interests of tram-owners and cart-owners, particularly by procuring the promotion or repeal of legislation affecting those interests, and also by regulating rates of cartage, terms of hiring, and conditions of labour; and further, to secure the proper condition of the highways, to arrange for insurance of property, and to collect debts and obtain legal advice for members.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49. 62. 98. Ballantyne, 25,054. 25,932. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 502–3. Digest, Vol. III., p. 49. Clark, 23,654-6. (3) Tabulated Rules. Nos. 192, 193. Digest, III., p. 41. Chapman, 19,230. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 41.

288. The Cabdrivers' Association, Edinburgh and Leith, the London Carmen's Trade Union, the National Municipal and Incorporated Vestry Employés' Labour Union, the Amalgamated Carters' Society, Glasgow, and the National Scottish Horsemen's Union have supplied copies of their rules. Organisations of employed.

(a.) It was stated that until quite recently no effective organisation had been formed among the tramway and omnibus workers in London. All early attempts in the direction of unionism had been baulked by the direct and indirect opposition of the companies. The Tram and 'Bus Union, which was formed in 1889, lasted two years, and then collapsed, partly, it was stated, through the discharge of members by the companies, and partly through the incompetence of its officials. In 1891 it was succeeded by a far more efficient organisation, formed with the help of the London Trades Council, namely, the Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union. (1) This association, it was stated by the secretary, arose out of the strike in June 1891, and in 1893 its members numbered about 2,500, of whom four-fifths were metropolitan members, the estimated total of omnibus men in London being 7,000. The men, it was stated, had been deterred from joining the Union by the action of the companies, who had opposed its formation. It had a few members in provincial towns, such as Birmingham, Leeds, Bradford, and Keighley. (5) It was stated, however, by the manager of the London Omnibus Carriage Company, that the formation of the Union took place some considerable time before the strike of 1891, and was not in any way opposed by that company. In his opinion the object of the Union was at first merely the provision of out-of-work benefits, and many men joined it on that account. (6) Two other witnesses confirmed the statement that the Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union was formed before the strike, and added that by November 1892, the time of giving evidence, that organisation had ceased to exist, and that in their opinion there was no need for a union among the omnibus men in London. Another witness referred in a letter to the fact of the dissolution of the Union. (7) The Northern Counties Amalgamated Tramways and Hackney Carriage Employés Association has a membership of nearly 3,500. The headquarters of the association are at Manchester, and it includes also numerous towns in East Lancashire and Yorkshire. The date of its formation was not stated. The dismissal of representative delegates in Manchester had failed to crush the association. It was alleged that in Liverpool no organisation could even be formed, owing to the "intimidation" practised by the employers. (8) The Dublin and District Tramway Union was formed in June 1890, and at one time had 609 members, nearly the largest number available. In May 1892, 500 men were on the books, and of these 325 were paying members. The Union is connected with the Dublin Trades Council. It was stated by the secretary that the Union had conducted no strikes. (9) A non-unionist driver in the employment (a.) Histor

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 53. Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 502, 503, 505. Clark, 23,751. 23,543. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 49. Clark, 24,059–60. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 49. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 64, 68. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 67. Digest, Vol. III., p. 29. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29, (Footnote), p. 36. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 18. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp 53, 34.

[§ 288 (a.)] of the Dublin United Tramways Company stated that he and other non-unionists had been annoyed and intimidated by members of the society, to which the majority of the company's servants belonged. This witness did not approve of the object of the Union, which he believed was to encourage strikes, though he did not object to combination for the purpose of mutual protection. (1) The Edinburgh Tramway Servants' Association was referred to only in the Replies from Associations of Employés. The date of its formation was not stated. In 1891 it had 209 members out of 240 men employed by the Edinburgh Street Tramway Company. (2) The first organisation which is said to have existed among cabdrivers in London was the Amalgamated Cabdrivers' Society, which was formed about 1876. For some years it was very strong and had large funds, and during that time, it was stated, no dispute occurred, and the price of cabs was very reasonable. In 1882, however, the Union funds became low, and at the same time the price of cabs was raised. The Society conducted a strike, and was shortly afterwards dissolved. (3) In consequence of the strike of 1883 another organisation was formed, called the Society of Cabdrivers, which lasted about two years. (4) Before the strike of 1891, though the precise dates are not stated, two Unions were formed which are still in existence—the London Cabdrivers' Society and the Metropolitan Cabdrivers' Trade Union. In 1892 the London Cabdrivers' Society had between 1,000 and 2,000 members out of an estimated total of 13,000 licensed drivers. There had been no serious difficulty between unionists and non-unionists. (5) The Cabdrivers' Association, Edinburgh and Leith, was referred to in the written evidence only. It was formed in 1885, and in 1891 had about 350 members out of an available total of about 720. (6) The London Carmen's Trade Union was formed in 1889. Its membership was stated in 1891 to be about 8,000 out of 40,000 men employed in the trade in London, and in 1892, 5,000 to 6,000 out of 30,000 to 40,000. Though not federated with any dockers' union, it took a sympathetic part in the Hay's Wharf strike in 1890, and about 30 of its members came out. The Union in 1892 was in course of forming a federation with other "vehicular traffic" unions. (7) The National Municipal and Incorporated Vestry Employés Labour Union was formed in 1890. It was stated in 1892 that the membership was about 4,000, and was continually increasing. Rather less than one-fourth of the members were carmen, the total number of carmen employed by public bodies in London being estimated as 1,800 or 2,000. The members reside chiefly in the metropolitan district. The organisation does not wish to encourage strikes, and aims at enforcing its requirements through the vestry elections. (8) The Manchester and Salford and District Lorrymen and Carters' Union was formed in 1890, and in 1892 had about 1,400 members, including coal carters, railway lorrymen, brewers' draymen, and others. There are about five unions in the district which admit horsemen, and their total membership is about 3,700 out of an available total calculated at 14,700. There is, it was stated, a great deal of jealousy between the different organisations. The Lorrymen and Carters' Union has a working agreement with the Northern Counties Tramway Employés Association, and works harmoniously with the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, but not with the General Railway Workers' Union or the Gas Workers' and General Labourers' Union. (1) The Amalgamated Carters' Society, Glasgow, was formed in 1873, and in 1891 had 710 members. In 1889 it conducted a partially successful strike for an advance of wages and reduction of hours. In 1892 it was stated that this organisation was federated with the National Scottish Horsemen's Union and was about to be amalgamated with it. Their united membership was said to amount to 2,000 out of 6,000 carters in Glasgow. The National Scottish Horsemen's Union was formed in 1889. In 1892 it had branches at Glasgow, Greenock, Port Glasgow, and Ayr. There had been branches in several other towns, but they had been dissolved, owing, it was stated, to the existence of a condition of things unfavourable to organisation. (2) [§ 288 (a.)]

(b.) Constitution and government.

(b.) Each of the societies which have forwarded copies of rules is governed by an Executive Council or Committee, consisting of a president, and in some cases a vice-president, a general secretary, treasurer, and three trustees, with other members. The Vestry Employés' Union, the London Carmen's Trade Union, and the National Scottish Horsemen's Union have a delegate meeting, which takes place annually, or quarterly in the case of the Vestry Employés' Union. The Amalgamated Carters' Society, Glasgow, and the Cabdrivers' Association, Edinburgh and Leith, hold a general meeting, in the former case quarterly, and in the latter half-yearly. In the Amalgamated Carters' Society, Glasgow, and the National Scottish Horsemen's Union, the president has a deliberative and also a casting vote, apparently both at Executive and other meetings. The chairman of the Vestry Employés Union has a casting vote only. Rules may be added or altered only with the consent of a majority of members present at a general or delegate meeting. Branches are governed, generally speaking, by a body of officials similar to those of the central organisation; but in the Vestry Employés Union, by a chairman, secretary, and treasurer only. This society and the London Carmen's Trade Union elect annually an Arbitration Committee to hear appeals and settle disputed points.

(c.) Income and expenditure.

(c.) The entrance fee varies from 6*d.* in the case of the London Carmen's Trade Union, to 3*s.* in the case of the Amalgamated Carters' Society, Glasgow. In all cases where there are sick benefits, an extra entrance fee or contribution is required to entitle members to receive them. In the case of the Cabdrivers' Association and the National Scottish Horsemen's Union, no member may join the sick fund, or in the latter case any of the benefit funds, when over 50 years of age. The Vestry Employés' Union admits all who are in the employment of municipal bodies. The other societies admit as members all persons employed in the trades which they represent, subject to certain limits of age. The subscriptions vary from 2*d.* to 6*d.* a week. Members who are a certain number of weeks in arrears are suspended from benefit or fined, and if still in arrears after a certain further period, are excluded from membership. Of these societies the London Carmen's Trade Union grants funeral benefit only, the Vestry Employés' Union grants dispute and funeral benefits only, while in the remaining cases sick benefits are granted in addition, with either accident, distress, or superannuation benefit.

TABLE of ENTRANCE FEES and CONTRIBUTIONS in ASSOCIATIONS of EMPLOYED.
Tabulated Rules, Nos. 143, 152–155.

Entrance Fee and Contribution.	National, Municipal, and Incorporated Vestry Employés' Labour Union. No. 143.	London Carmen's Trade Union. No. 152.	Amalgamated Carters' Society, Glasgow. No. 153.	Cabdrivers' Association, Edinburgh and Leith. No. 154.	National Scottish Horsemen's Union. No. 155.
Entrance fee	1*s.*	6*d.*	3*s.*	1*s.* to the trade fund. To the sick fund as follows: 3*s.* for members from 18 to 30 years of age. 4*s.* for members from 30 to 40. 5*s.* for members from 40 to 50. Members over 50 may join the trade fund only.	To be fixed by each branch. Entrance to the benefit funds, 2*s.* 6*d.*
Contribution	2*d.* a week. The General Council may impose a levy of not more than 2*d.* a week on each member.	2*d.* a week, or 2*s.* 2*d.* a quarter. A levy of 6*d.* a member is made on the death of a member of the society. An annual levy of 2*s.* a member is made to pay for the services of a firm of solicitors.	6*d.* a week for members who reside within a radius of three miles from the society's meeting place, and 3*d.* a week for members who reside beyond that radius.	3*d.* a week to the trade, funeral, and benevolent funds. 2*d.* a week to the trade fund only. 3½*d.* a week to the sick fund for honorary members not less than 2*s.* 6*d.* a year.	6*d.* a fortnight. To the benefit funds, 3*d.* a week.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 34. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 7. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 36, 38; Jenkins, 17,321. (4) Levick, 17,860. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 36–8. (6) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 6. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 6. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46; Cole, 18,230-1.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 46, 47. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 47, 48.

[§ 288 (c.)] TABLE of BENEFITS granted by ASSOCIATIONS of EMPLOYED. [§ 288 (

Tabulated Rules, Nos. 143, 152–155.

Benefit.	National, Municipal, and Incorporated Vestry Employés' Labour Union. No. 143.	London Carmen's Trade Union. No. 152.	Amalgamated Carters' Society, Glasgow. No. 153.	Cabdrivers' Association, Edinburgh and Leith. No. 154.	National Scottish Horsemen's Union. No. 155.
Accident	—	—	Assistance in obtaining legal compensation from employers.	—	—
Dispute	Members discharged through taking part in a dispute receive such compensation as the executive thinks fit.	—	10*s.* a week. Victimised members the same, except delegates, who receive their usual wages. Legal expenses are paid if the committee approve of the case.	Victimised members have their wages paid while out of employment. Legal expenses are paid if the committee approve of the case.	15*s.* a week at the discretion of the branch. 10*s.* a week until the end of the dispute.
Distress and Superannuation.	—	—	—	Assistance may be given to aged and distressed members, as decided by a meeting of the association.	Members permanently incapable of following their employment may receive sick pay for 6 months, and then quarter pay, with the right of working at any employment.
Funeral	6*l.* on member's death. 3*l.* on wife's death.	10*l.*	5*l.* on death of member; 3*l.* on death of member's wife; 1*l.* on death of member's child; 2*l.* on death of unmarried member's father or mother.	6*l.* on member's death. 3*l.* on wife's death.	7*l.* 4*l.* on death of wife.
Sick	—	—	10*s.* a week for 13 weeks; 5*s.* a week for 13 weeks; and 2*s.* 6*d.* until recovery.	For members between 18 and 40 years of age, 10*s.* for 13 weeks, 7*s.* 6*d.* for 13 weeks, and 5*s.* for 26 weeks. 1*s.* less for members over 40, and 2*s.* less for members over 45.	7*s.* a week for 13 weeks; 5*s.* a week for 13 weeks; 3*s.* a week for remainder of illness.

In the case of the Cabdrivers' Association, the funds must be invested in the names of the trustees, in Government or other approved securities.

(d.) Dispute and other regulations.

(*d.*) The Amalgamated Carters' Society, Glasgow, alone among these organisations, has a rule with regard to disputes between employers and employed. It provides that the members concerned shall in all cases attempt to settle the dispute themselves, but that on their failure to do so the Committee shall endeavour to settle it by arbitration or otherwise. If the Committee is unsuccessful it must summon a special meeting of the society, but a cessation of work can only take place with the consent of three-fourths of the members. In the event of a strike or lock-out, members are forbidden to commit acts of intimidation or violence, or to use abusive language towards employers or non-union men. Any member who boasts of his independence towards his employer on account of membership of this society is liable to a fine of 1*s.* This is also the only society which has a rule affecting non-unionists. It forbids members to be "troublesomely solicitous" towards any man to join the society, and provides that all requests to join be made in a reasonable and friendly manner, outside the employers' premises, and out of work hours.

(e.) Objects.

(*e.*) These associations have several objects in common, such as the protection of the general interests of the trade, the increase of wages and reduction of hours of labour. The Vestry Employés' Union has the special object of reforming the system of employment, and the London Carmen's Trade Union, that of giving immediate legal aid in any matter affecting the trade interests of its members. The preamble to the rules of the Amalgamated Carters' Society states that the claims of the society will be based on justice, and enforced with moderation; and further, that it looks forward to a time when more general principles of co-operation will be acknowledged, guaranteeing to every man the full enjoyment of the produce of his labour.(1)

Joint boards.

289. There are no permanent Joint Boards in connection with these industries, but several witnesses representing the employed recommended the formation of such boards, consisting of an equal number of employers and employed, as a means of adjusting disputes and promoting mutual understanding. A witness representing the Dublin and District Tramway Union stated that a scheme of this kind was under consideration by both the Corporation and the Trades Council of Dublin.(2) The same method was advocated by Mr. Sutherst on behalf of tramway and omnibus servants, by a representative of the Hyde Park Cab Company, and by the general secretary of the London Cabdrivers' Society.(3) The President of the Tramways Institute of Great Britain and Ireland recommended the constitution of Joint Boards on the lines laid down in the Act of 1867–8, entitled "An Act to establish equitable "Councils of Conciliation to adjust differences between "Masters and Workmen."(4) Other witnesses representing the employed recommended, instead of a permanent committee, the recognition of unions by the employers for the purpose of mutual discussion of points in dispute. Mr. Sutherst regretted that the London omnibus and tramway companies refused to meet the men who represented their fellow-workmen on friendly terms Various statements were made to the effect that employers in these industries refused to recognise organisations, and dismissed men on account of being unionists.(5) On the other hand it was stated on the part of several employers, including the North Metropolitan Tramways Company and the London Omnibus Carriage Company, that no dismissals had taken place on the ground of union membership alone, and that the required recognition would willingly be given to any organisation thoroughly representative of the whole body of employés.(6) The general manager of the London General Omnibus Company was of opinion, however, that recognition of unions and mutual discussion between representatives would not improve the relations between employers and employed, and the President of the Tramways Institute of Great Britain and Ireland stated that he had always declined to enter into negotiations with any trade union, preferring to deal directly with the men in his employment, and to be guided in his treatment of them by "facts and not advocacy."(7) The secretary of the Dublin and District Tramway Employés' Union stated that though the tramway company had opposed the union, the tension between them had decreased with stronger organisation. The company refuses, however, to receive deputations from the Union in its official capacity, on the ground that it is not composed solely of the company's servants.(8)

290. There is no mention in the evidence of any organisation of employers in this industry.

RAILW Organi tions of employ Organi tions of employ

(a.) His

291. (*a.*) The oldest as well as the largest organisation of railway servants is the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of the United Kingdom. It was formed in 1872, and extended over England, Wales, Ireland, and a small part only of Scotland, but in the year 1892 the Scotch society, which had been a separate organisation up to that time, was amalgamated with it. In 1891 it was stated before the Select Committee on Railway Servants that the members of the Amalgamated Society numbered over 35,000, but in 1892 a witness who represented the Society before the Commission estimated its total membership at about 30,000.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 143, 152–5. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 131–2. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 100, 101. Digest, Vol. III., p. 132.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 132. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 25, 29, 30, 33–6, 38–9, 44, 47. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 20–4, 35, 41, 132. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 21, 33. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 33–5.

[§ 291 (a.)] and the whole number of railway men eligible for admission at 150,000. The manager of the Great Western Railway, however, in his evidence before the Select Committee, estimated the latter number at about 260,000, but it was suggested that this calculation might include grades which were not eligible.(1) The general manager of the London and North Western Railway pointed out to the Commission that the Amalgamated Society, though an influential body, could not be regarded as thoroughly representative, since the total number of railway servants of all grades in Great Britain and Ireland was about 350,000 or 360,000.(2) The society is chiefly designed for men directly engaged in dealing with the traffic, but all grades are admitted except mechanics and artizans. It was stated before the Select Committee that ever since its formation the Amalgamated Society had put forth continual demands for the shortening of hours of labour on railways.(3) The Amalgamated Society was introduced into Ireland in 1885. The secretary of the Irish branch stated before the Commission that it did not make much progress until 1889 or 1890, when several movements took place for improvement in the conditions of service. It was stated that some difficulty had been experienced in retaining the men in the society when the period of agitation was over, but that the tendency to secede had been successfully checked. The aim of the secretary, it was pointed out, was organisation rather than agitation. It was stated on the other hand by the representative of an Irish railway company that the Amalgamated Society's policy since its introduction into Ireland had always been aggressive. The society chiefly represents five of the seven principal lines in Ireland, namely the Great Northern, the Great Southern and Western, the Midland Great Western, the Belfast and Northern Counties, and the Belfast and County Down Railways. On these lines, it was stated, the society represents two-thirds of the engine-drivers, nearly two-thirds of the firemen and passenger guards, three-fourths of the goods guards and brakesmen, over two-thirds of the signalmen, and nearly half the shunters. The number of members was stated to be nearly 4,000 out of an estimated total of 8,000 railway men in Ireland eligible for membership.(4) The Amalgaamted Society of Railway Servants for Scotland was formed in 1872. It was stated by the assistant secretary that at the time of the strike of 1890 the membership of the society was about 8,000, but that in August 1892, it was between 4,000 and 5,000. The manager of the Caledonian Railway pointed out, however, that at that date the Scotch and English societies were amalgamated, and that according to the statement of the general secretary the number taken over from the Scotch society was only 1,250.(5) At the time of the formation of the society the conditions of labour on Scotch railways, according to the statement of the organising secretary, were most unfavourable. The railway servants at length found it necessary to combine, "not in any spirit of warfare," but to secure fair and reasonable terms of service. The efforts of the society in this direction were at first only sectional, owing to imperfect organisation, but in the year 1889 a general movement began, the membership of the society having considerably increased.(6) The organising secretary of the Amalgamated Society referred to the whole movement, including the strike of 1890, as an instance of the total failure of combination to attain its object.(7) Certain witnesses in the service of the Caledonian Railway Company expressed disapproval of the combative purposes to which the society had been turned, and of its attitude towards the railway companies.(8) The General Railway Workers' Union was formed in 1889. In 1891 it was stated before the Select Committee that the members of the society numbered between 20,000 and 25,000; but in 1892 its representative before the Commission estimated the membership at 14,000. It extends over the greater part of England, and represents all grades of railway labour, but chiefly the artizan class and the goods porters and platelayers, and especially such as are not eligible for membership of other trade organisations. The union works very amicably with the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, and other unions. It took part in the hours movement originated by the Amalgamated Society on the North Eastern Railway, and in the negotiations which resulted in the Newcastle settlement in 1890. The Union has from the first devoted its efforts mainly to reducing the hours of labour, and has made public demonstrations on the subject at most of the large railway centres.(1) Reference was made in the written evidence to the following additional unions of railway workers; the Signalmen's United Aid and Sick Society, Bradford and Halifax, established in 1883; the Waterford and Limerick Railway Company's Engine-drivers' and Firemen's Trade Union, established in 1885; the Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, United Kingdom; the United Pointsmen's and Signalmen's Mutual Aid and Sick Society, Great Britain and Ireland; and the Railway Servants' Society, Aberdeen and District. This last society, it was stated in the Answers to Schedules of Questions, has 200 members out of an available total of 700; the Waterford and Limerick Company's Engine-drivers' and Firemen's Union has 53 members out of an available 84; and the Signalmen's United Aid and Sick Society has 44 members out of an available 58. No details were furnished as to the history of any of these societies. The rules of all the above organisations have been received with the exception of the Railway Servants' Society.(2) [§ 2 1(a.)]

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 469. Digest, Vol. III., p. 83. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 55. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 469. Digest, Vol. III., p. 83. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 79, 87. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLXVII. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 58, 75. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 65, 66. Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. p. 504. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 69. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 73.

(1) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 472. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 42, 94. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 75. Tabulated Rules, Nos. 164-70.

(b.) Constitution and government.

(b.) The General Railway Workers' Union, the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, and the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, resemble each other in form of government. There is in each case an Executive Council. In the General Railway Workers' Union and the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, the general secretary, and in the latter Association the president also, are included in the Executive Council. The General Railway Workers' Union has a sub-committee elected from the Executive Council to assist the general secretary in cases where prompt action is necessary, and the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland has a Standing Committee similarly elected, to which all the powers of the Executive Council are entrusted for the time being. There is in each case a Finance Committee elected annually at the general meeting, or, in the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, elected by the Executive Council. Except in this last society, the supreme government is in the hands of an annual general meeting. Special general meetings may be called by the Executive Council, or at the request of a majority of the branches, which in one case must be at least two-thirds. The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland has no regular general meeting, but if any large number of members, exceeding one-sixth of the whole, disapprove of the aciton of the Executive, they may require the chairman to summon special meetings of the branches, and the action of the society is determined by the majority of votes. Rules may be added, altered, or rescinded, only by a majority of the members present at a meeting of the supreme governing body, which is in this case the Executive Council. Branches are invariably governed by a chairman (or president), vice-chairman, secretary, treasurer, committee, and usually three trustees. They hold quarterly general meetings, and ordinary meetings more frequently. Three of the four other societies of which the rules have been received are governed by an Executive Committee, consisting of the president or chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, treasurer, three trustees, and seven or eight members elected by the general meeting. In the United Pointsmen's and Signalmen's Mutual Aid and Sick Society, the treasurer and trustees are not members of the Executive Committee. The Committee meets as a rule only when summoned by the president or secretary. In the case of the Signalmen's United Aid and Sick Society, and the United Pointsmen's and Signalmen's Mutual Aid and Sick Society, there is an annual general meeting. This meeting has sole power to make any change in the rules. In the Waterford and Limerick Engine-drivers' and Firemen's Trade Union, a special general meeting is called when necessary. In the Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, a delegate meeting assembles at the desire of the branches, and is alone entitled to make any change in the rules. Any proposals made by the branches as to alteration of rules are forwarded to the Executive Committee, which submits them to the branches in order to decide on the necessity for calling a delegate meeting. Branches, which are provided for only in the rules of this society and of the United

[§ 291 (b.)] Pointsmen's and Signalmen's Mutual Aid Society, are governed by a chairman, secretary, treasurer, three trustees, and a committee. Ordinary branch meetings are held monthly, or more often if required, and there are quarterly or annual general meetings.

(c.) Conditions of membership, income and expenditure.

(c.) Membership of these four societies is confined to the grades specified. All persons employed on railways in Great Britain and Ireland are eligible for membership of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants and all persons employed on or in connection with such railways are eligible for membership of the General Railway Workers' Union. The entrance fee varies from 6*d.* to 1*s.*, with in some cases an extra payment for membership of the sick fund; in the two societies for engine-drivers and firemen it varies from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* The weekly subscription varies from 2*d.* to 6*d.*, with in some cases an extra contribution to sick and funeral funds. Members who are a certain number of weeks in arrears are suspended from benefits or excluded from the society. Dispute benefit is granted by all these societies, and is the only benefit provided by the General Railway Workers' Union. All the other societies pay sick benefit, and the majority funeral benefit also. Out-of-work benefit is paid by the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants (both English and Scotch) and by the United Pointsmen's and Signalmen's Society. The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants (England) grants also emigration, travelling, superannuation, and orphan benefits, and except this last, these are also granted by the Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen. The funds are usually invested through the trustees in Government or other approved securities. [§ 291 (c.)]

TABLE of ENTRANCE FEES and CONTRIBUTIONS in ASSOCIATIONS of EMPLOYED.

Tabulated Rules, No. 164–70.

Entrance Fee and Contribution.	General Railway Workers' Union, Great Britain and Ireland. No. 164.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, England, Ireland, Wales, and a small part of Scotland. No. 165.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland. No. 166.
Entrance fee	6*d.*	1*s.* to the Union and 1*s.* to the sick and funeral fund.	1*s.* to the Union and 2*s.* to the sick fund. Honorary members, 10*s.*
Contribution	2*d.* a week A levy can be made by the Executive Council when necessary.	To the trade, superannuation, and orphan fund, 5*d.* a week. The optional contribution to the sick and funeral fund is according to the age of the member on joining. From 19 to 30 years of age, 3*d.* or 5*d.* a week. From 31 to 38 years of age, 3½*d.* or 6*d.* a week. From 39 to 45 years of age, 4*d.* or 7*d.* a week. From 46 to 50 years of age, 5*d.* or 8½*d.* a week. The lower scale applies to Class A, the higher to Class B. Honorary members must contribute at least 10*s.* 6*d.* a year.	2*d.* a week to the Union, paid every three weeks. To the sick and funeral funds, 4*d.* a week for members under 30; 5*d.* a week for members between 30 and 35; and 6*d.* a week for members between 35 and 40. Honorary members, 2*s.* 6*d.* a year. The Executive Council has full power to declare a levy if necessary.

Entrance Fee and Contribution.	Waterford and Limerick Railway Company's Engine Drivers' and Firemen's Trades Union. No. 167.	Signalmen's United Aid and Sick Society, Bradford to Halifax. No. 168.	United Pointsmen's and Signalmen's Mutual Aid and Sick Society, Great Britain and Ireland. No. 169.	Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, United Kingdom. No. 170.
Entrance fee	10*s.* for drivers; 5*s.* for firemen.	1*s.*	1*s.* for candidates under 35, and 2*s.* for candidates over 35.	2*s.* 6*d.* for candidates from 18 to 25 years of age, and an additional 2*s.* 6*d.* for every additional five years up to 40 years of age. Candidates over 40 may enter as "protection" members only, on payment of 2*s.*
Contribution	1*s.* a fortnight. The general meeting has power to raise the contribution to meet any special pressure on the funds.	2*d.* a week The Committee may make a levy of not more than 6*d.* a member each quarter. There is a special levy of 2*s.* a member on a member's death. Honorary members pay at least 10*s.* 6*d.* a year.	3d. a week for members entering under 35, and 3½*d.* a week for members entering over 35. There is an annual levy of 3*d.* a member to defray the expenses of the general meeting, and special levies may be made to provide legal assistance. Honorary members pay 10*s.* 6*d.* a year.	1*s.* a week for full-benefit members; 6*d.* a week for half-benefit members; and 4*d.* a week for members of the protection fund only. Members who have left the railway service may continue to belong to the sick, pension, and funeral funds, on payment of 8*d.* a week. Honorary members must pay at least 10*s.* 6*d.* a year. The Executive Committee may declare a levy if the funds are found to be insufficient.

[§ 291 (c.)]

TABLE of BENEFITS granted by ASSOCIATIONS OF EMPLOYED.
Tabulated Rules, Nos. 164–70.

[§ 291 (c.)]

Benefit.	General Railway Workers' Union, Great Britain and Ireland.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, England, Ireland, Wales, and a small part of Scotland.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland.
Dispute	10*s.* a week during a dispute. Victimised members 15*s.* a week for the first 10 weeks, and 7*s.* 6*d.* a week for the second 10 weeks.	12*s.* a week, or 2*s.* a day, with an additional 1*s.* a week for every child under 12 years of age. Victimised members, 15*s.* a week till they obtain employment of equal value, or a lump sum of 50*l.* if they fail to do so. Legal expenses may be paid if the case is approved by the Executive Committee.	Victimised members, 12*s.* 6*d.* for 4 weeks, and 20*l.* compensation if the Standing Committee is satisfied that the claim is bonâ fide. Legal expenses of prosecuted members may be paid if the Standing Committee approve.
Emigration	——	10*l.* to any member receiving dispute benefit, who wishes to emigrate.	——
Funeral	——	For Class A, 3*l.*, or 6*l.* if death is the result of accident. For Class B, 5*l.* or 10*l.* respectively.	10*l.* on death of member; 5*l.* on death of member's wife or unmarried member's widowed mother.
Orphan	——	For the first child, 3*s.* a week, for the second and third, 1*s.* a week, and for the fourth, and every other up to the seventh, 6*d.* a week. Payment is only made for children under 13 years of age.	——
Out-of-work	——	10*s.* a week for 10 weeks, and 5*s.* a week for 10 more weeks.	12*s.* 6*d.* a week for 9 weeks, and 7*s.* 6*d.* for 9 more weeks.
Travelling	——	4*s.* a week for 10 weeks, and 2*s.* 4*d.* a week for 10 weeks.	Members suspended from work by employer receive 12*s.* 6*d.* for 4 weeks, which the Standing Committee may extend to 12.
Sick	——	For Class A, 6*s.* a week for 20 weeks, and then 4*s.* a week, for 20 weeks. For Class B, 10*s.* a week for 20 weeks, and then 6*s.* 6*d.* a week for 20 weeks.	10*s.* a week for 26 weeks, and then 7*s.* 6*d.* for 26 weeks, and 5*s.* for the rest of the illness.
Superannuation	——	A grant of 20*l.* for disablement by old age or accident.	——

Benefit.	Waterford and Limerick Railway Company's Engine-drivers' and Firemen's Trades Union.	Signalmen's United Aid and Sick Society, Bradford to Halifax.	United Pointsmen's and Signalmen's Mutual Aid and Sick Society, Great Britain and Ireland.	Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, United Kingdom.
Dispute	10*s.* a week for 6 months.	Victimised members receive 5*s.* a week for 20 weeks, or 3*l.* to assist them to emigrate.	Legal assistance may be afforded to members, when, in the opinion of the branch, it is necessary for their protection.	12*s.* a week, and 2*s.* extra for each child under 14. Legal assistance is provided in all cases not criminal in themselves, and fines unjustly imposed by employers may be wholly or in part refunded by the Society. Discharged delegates receive 100*l.* compensation, and 15*s.* a week for 12 months if out of employment. Members whose wages are reduced on account of their being delegates have them made good. Members unjustly suspended from work receive 18*s.* a week.
Emigration	——	——	——	Discharged members going abroad may receive 5*l.*
Funeral	5*l.* on member's death, 3*l.* on wife's death.	3*l.*	——	12*l.* on member's death after 12 months' membership. 20*l.* after 18 months' membership. 5*l.* on death of member's wife.
Out-of-work	——	——	Members discharged or suspended from work for no fault of their own may receive a grant according to circumstances.	——
Travelling	——	——	——	12*s.* a week for 12 weeks, and 6*s.* a week for 14 weeks.
Sick	10*s.* a week for 3 months; 6*s.* a week for 3 months.	5*s.* a week for 26 weeks.	10*s.* a week for 10 weeks, and 5*s.* for next 10 weeks. A further grant may be made by a branch meeting.	10*s.* a week for 26 weeks. 6*s.* a week until recovery.
Superannuation	——	——	——	For incapacity to work through accident, 7*s.* 6*d.* a week; for incapacity through old age, 5*s.* a week after 10 years' membership, 6*s.* after 15, and 7*s.* 6*d.* after 20 years.

[§ 291 (*d.*)] (*d.*) *Dispute and other regulations.*

(*d.*) Four of these societies have regulations with regard to disputes between employers and employed. The course of action to be taken by the society is determined by the Executive Council or Committee, but in the case of the Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, members must not be withdrawn from work without the consent of four-fifths of the members employed on the railway system on which the dispute has arisen. The rules of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants provide that the Executive Committee must seek to settle disputes by arbitration, and only on the refusal of the railway company to consent to this mode of settlement, may the Committee consider the expediency of a withdrawal of labour. None of these societies have rules affecting the attitude of members towards non-unionists, but the secretary of the Irish branch of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants stated that in his opinion the man who participated in the advantages gained by an organisation which he refused to join was a parasite on organised labour, and should be educated into better principles, or induced by any fair means to leave his employment. It was stated, moreover, by a representative of the Great Southern and Western Railway Company, that he had noticed a want of tolerance on the part of members of the society towards those who did not wish to join it.(1) The Waterford and Limerick Railway Company's Engine-drivers' and Firemen's Trade Union alone has a rule fixing a standard of hours and wages. It was stated however on the part of this Union, that these rules were in no way recognised by the company.(2)

(*e.*) *Objects.*

(*e.*) The objects of these societies are stated in most cases to be the general advancement of the interests of members and the improvement of conditions of labour, especially in the matter of hours; the adjustment of relations between employers and employed, the settlement of disputes by arbitration or other lawful means, and the provision of funds for the assistance of members. The Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland has the special object of securing compensation for accidents for which the employer is responsible, and two other societies provide legal advice when necessary. Among the objects of the two organisations of signalmen is that of contributing as far as possible to the safety of the travelling public, and the Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen proposes to regulate the speed of trains and promote the adoption of modern improvements for the safe working of railways.

Joint Boards.

292. There are no Joint Boards in connection with railway employment, and only one witness, who represented a number of Great Western Railway employés before the Select Committee, proposed the establishment of such a board, in the form of a committee simply representative of employers and employed. Other schemes suggested before both the Select Committee and the Commission, by witnesses representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants and the General Railway Workers' Union, included in each case the appointment of an outsider as an umpire, thus admitting the principle of arbitration.(3) Objections to both proposals were expressed on the part of several railway companies, apparently on the ground that such a plan would amount to the constitution of an authority over the directors, in whose hands the entire management of the railway ought to rest.(4) Less formal methods of negotiation between the companies and the official representatives of the men's organisations were advocated by several witnesses on behalf of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants and the General Railway Workers' Union, as a means of preventing strikes by the timely settlement of disputes. It was urged that the Scotch strike of 1890 would have been averted if the companies had from the first consented to treat with the Union, and it was stated that such negotiations had been the means of preventing the threatened strike on the North Eastern Railway in 1890, and another on the Irish Great Northern Railway, and of improving the conditions of service on the Midland Great Western Railway of Ireland. The Secretary of the Irish branch of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants was of opinion that there was a prospect of continued labour conflicts so long as the societies which workmen have a legal right to form were denied a full and respectful recognition.(5) It was stated that such recognition was granted only by a few, and those not the principal, railway companies in the United Kingdom, and that in most cases the employers showed actual hostility to unionism, and discharged men on the sole ground of their connection with an organisation.(1) On the other hand, it was stated both before the Select Committee and the Commission, on the part of the great majority of railway companies, that they had no objection to the existence of a union among their servants, and had never discharged men on the ground of their membership, but that they declined most emphatically to treat with any third party not in their employment, on matters connected with the conditions of service of their staff. The general manager of the London and North Western Railway was of opinion that the intervention of union officials in the affairs of a company would be fatal to the high state of discipline which it is necessary to maintain in the railway service, with a view to the proper conduct of the traffic and the safety of the public. It was also pointed out that the responsibilities and complications of railway working are so great, that no one is qualified to intervene between employers and employed. It was stated at the same time in each case that the directors and officers of the company were perfectly willing to receive deputations from their servants, and to meet all fair demands with respect to the conditions of labour in different grades.(2) This position is illustrated by the policy pursued by the North Eastern, Caledonian, and North British Companies, who during recent agitations steadily refused to concede demands expressed in general terms by the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, and treated the questions raised as matters of detail affecting the working of the several departments, to be discussed in each case with the persons directly concerned.(3) The only exceptions to the general tolerance of organisation expressed by the representatives of railway companies were in the case of the Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford, and the Londonderry and Lough Swilly Railway Companies, whose directors have a special aversion to the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, which they regard as a dictatorial and combative body. In the latter case the general manager stated that he had specific instructions to employ no one belonging to the society.(4)

[§ 292

2. CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION.

Conciliation.

293. There appears to be a very general desire among those employed in the industries under consideration for some system of conciliation, though there is little evidence of the existence of anything of the kind at present. It was advocated on all hands as the best means of promoting a good understanding between employers and employed, of ending "periodical bickerings," of settling trade grievances, and hence of avoiding strikes. The desirability of some such system was strongly urged by the representatives of the tramway and omnibus workers and cabdrivers on the one hand, and the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants in England, Scotland and Ireland on the other.(5) It appeared to be recognised that boards of conciliation could only be established where the organisations were strong on both sides. The unwillingness of the employers in some cases to acknowledge the men's unions was mentioned as one of the difficulties in the way of this method of settlement. Thus, Mr. Sutherst was of opinion that "the companies "make a very great mistake indeed in not meeting "upon friendly terms and upon terms of equality the "men who represent their fellow workmen," and that the omnibus strike of 1891 might have been prevented had this course been adopted.(6) The secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Ireland stated that "if workmen and employers could meet "together more frequently and in an official way through "the agency of their societies to discuss grievances, I "have no hesitation in saying that strikes would be "reduced 90 per cent." At the same time he added, "it is no use talking of conciliation and arbitration "until we have strong organisations. Experience has "proved that an employer of labour never thinks of "offering arbitration and conciliation unless they "have an organisation strong enough to command "respect."(7) This assertion was, however, denied by a railway manager, who stated that in 1889, when a

(1) Digest, Vol. III. pp. 84, 87. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, 75. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 506; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 132, 133. (4) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 506. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 50, 59, 62, 83–4.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 49, 51–2, 59, 84. (2) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 502–6; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 55, 77, 87–8. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 504; Digest, Vol. III., pp. 60, 66. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 86, 89. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 100–1. Digest Vol. III., p. 132–3. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 100; Sutherst, 16,088, 16,651. (7) Foreman, 26, 220.

[§ 293.] dispute arose, the directors of his company met the men and settled the matter by mutual discussion.(1) No argument appears to have been advanced against conciliation either on the part of the employers or the employed.

294. (*a.*) Opinions differed with regard to the advisability of arbitration. Some system of arbitration, such as the addition of an umpire to a board of conciliation, was advocated by various representatives of those employed in tramways, omnibuses and cabs, and by the secretaries of societies of railway servants.(2) One difficulty in the way of such a step appeared to be the unwillingness of employers to have recourse to this measure, and it was stated that the offer of the men to submit the dispute on the Scotch railways in 1890–91 to arbitration was refused by the North British Company on the ground that there was no question on which to arbitrate.(3) A similar complaint was made by the men with regard to the cabdrivers' strike of 1891, but the proprietors declared that the first intimation of arbitration was received by them when the strike was at an end.(4)

(*b.*) On the other hand, very strong opinions were expressed against the principle of arbitration by some witnesses, both before the Select Committee on Railway Servants and the Commission, especially by the railway managers. The President of the Tramways Institute of Great Britain and Ireland expressed his belief that "the intervention of outsiders in trade disputes with "which they are probably not thoroughly acquainted "sometimes does a considerable amount of harm,"(5) and several witnesses who had been in the service of the Caledonian Railway Company stated that they "had "had a long trial of a third party, and had found out "their mistake."(6) In neither case was any evidence in support of these views offered, but it was intimated that discussion between employers and employed without the intervention of an arbitrator would meet all difficulties. The representatives of railway companies expressed a still more decided objection to any system of arbitration. It was contended that the intervention of any outside authority would, in consequence of the particular circumstances of this industry, be "an anomaly," since the directors and managers alone are responsible for the commercial success and safe working of the railways.(7) Moreover, such a system, it was stated, would be fatal to the discipline which is so necessary among railway servants. "I do not know "anything that would be more deplorable," said the general manager of Caledonian Railway Company, "every man who had a grievance would be constantly "wanting arbitration—it would be never-ending. There "is so much at stake in working a line . . a railway "is so vast, and the duties so varied, that no man in "my judgment should be allowed to come in as an "intermediary between employer and employed."(8) So strong were the objections to the proposal that several railway managers affirmed that the risk of a strike would be preferable to the settlement of a dispute by outside arbitration.(9)

(*c.*) There is a good deal of controversy in the evidence under consideration as to the best methods of arbitration and conciliation and the difficulties involved therein. Various proposals are made which range from suggestions for purely voluntary boards to those in which the State institutes the court, appoints the umpire, and enforces the award. A middle course, which is advocated by some witnesses, is that the State should institute the court, but leave the question of the appointment of an umpire and enforcement of awards to voluntary regulations. The witnesses do not all touch upon this question, and the voluntary method appears to be usually implied. The proposals for State boards come principally from railway servants, but Mr. Sutherst desired Parliament to give the sanction of law to the decisions of a court of arbitration composed of employers and men with an umpire chosen by both sides so that it should be binding upon both parties. How this was to be effected was not clearly explained, but it was asserted that "if a man makes a contract he must abide by it."(1) No less than five schemes, differing slightly in detail were proposed by representatives of railway servants. A joint board was suggested, presided over by an umpire appointed by Government, with compulsory powers over wages and other conditions of labour. One witness suggested that to provide for the enforcement of awards fines should be inflicted, another relied rather on moral than legal pressure.(2) Among the witnesses before the Select Committee on Railway Servants, Mr. Tait, the general secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, advocated a conciliation board, with an umpire chosen by the arbitrators, or, if they failed to agree, by the Board of Trade. This board would be called into requisition by the collective vote of the men on a particular line, and its functions would be to make general regulations as to the hours of labour of each grade of railway servants. Mr. Harford, representing the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, suggested that in disputes affecting the hours of labour alone, the Board of Trade or the Railway Commissioners should arbitrate between the companies and the men, and that their decision should be final. Sir H. G. Calcraft, the Permanent Secretary to the Board of Trade, offered a similar but further developed scheme. He suggested that the Board of Trade should act as a conciliation board in the case of such complaint on the part of railway servants with regard to hours of labour as would be likely to lead to a strike, and that the result should be reported to Parliament. In that case the publicity given to the men's statement, and also the refusal or the agreement of the company to do anything, would probably have a great effect. The witness observed, however, that disputes involving the matter of hours alone are not likely to occur, and that the Board of Trade could not usefully intervene in a wages dispute. All the objections urged by railway managers and others to the principle of arbitration apply equally to these proposals. The former contended that all these schemes amounted to the constitution of an authority over the directors, in whose hands the entire management ought to rest.(3) [§ 294 (*c.*)]

295. It does not appear from the evidence that resort has been often had to mediation in disputes in these industries. An instance, however, occurred in the London omnibus strike of 1891. Mr. Sutherst stated that the Lord Mayor, Sir Joseph Savory, wrote asking him to meet him at the Mansion House. According to the secretary of the General Omnibus Company, "various "negotiations then took place between Mr. Sutherst, "the Lord Mayor, Cardinal Manning and Lord Aber- "deen; they resulted in the men accepting the offer "which had been made by the directors on the pre- "ceding Monday . . . and on the Friday night "the strike was declared at an end." In consequence of the employers not carrying out the terms agreed upon, the Lord Mayor, it was stated, was obliged to intervene again.(4) The only other case of attempted mediation was the intervention of the Archbishop of Dublin and Mr. Davitt in the Great Southern and Western Railway strike of April 1890. "As friends of "the men, they did their best to bring about an understanding," and though the directors of the company refused to see them, terms for the resumption of work were arranged in an interview with the traffic manager.(5) Mediation.

C. TRADE DISPUTES.

1. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

296. It appears from the evidence that the relations between employers and employed on railways are, in general, very satisfactory. The service is popular, and strikes are very rare. The companies are usually willing to meet the employed in a conciliatory spirit.(10) The manager of the London and North Western Railway Company was of opinion that there had been fewer conflicts in the railway service than in any other industry.(6) Among men employed in connection with tramways, omnibuses, and cabs, however, disputes have been more frequent, and there is, besides, an almost constant source of friction arising from the comparative want of organisation; and in the

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 133. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 100. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 132–3. Appendix to Minutes, Vol. III., p. 506. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 133. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 38–9. (5) Wain, 23,332. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 133; Goodlet, 27,733. (7) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 506. (8) Thomson, 27,945. (9) Appendix to Minutes, Vol. III., p. 506. (10) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., pp. 502–6.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 100. Sutherst, 16,012–14. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLXXXI. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 132–3. (3) Appendix to Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., p. 506. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 100. Digest, Vol. III., p. 109. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 82, 111. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 124.

[§ 296.] cab trade especially, from the "contradictory state" of cab law, and from the indiscriminate issue of licenses.(1) The effect of organisation in preventing disputes was questioned in some instances by both employers and employed. A railway manager considered unionism "totally incompatible" with the railway service. "You might as well expect to have "trade unionism in Her Majesty's army."(2) Other witnesses deprecated the encouragement of unionism on the grounds that the leaders only "sought to create for themselves a position,"(3) and that when strong enough the Union "would endeavour to dictate to the company."(4) It was asserted also that in two cases the Union had done harm in forcing on strikes which were not really in accordance with the wishes of the majority of the men.(5) Several witnesses, on the other hand, held that with the increase of organisation more disputes would be amicably settled or altogether avoided.(6) It was asserted that besides striking less frequently, unionists served their employers better than non-unionists (7), and that a sound organisation of the men would sometimes be even more in the interests of the employers than of the men.(8) Instances were given of the intervention of a powerful organisation having averted strikes.(9) It was stated that "there was a "very strong Union (of cab-drivers) in existence some "years ago, and during the existence of that Union "there was never but one dispute, and that was in "1882, when the Union became very weak."(10) Besides increased organisation, various other means of preventing or settling disputes were suggested, to which reference has already been made. A large proportion of the strikes in these industries have arisen from questions connected with wages. Disputes between cab drivers and owners, as already stated, "generally centre on the question of price,"(11) and demands for a rise, or refusals to submit to a threatened reduction of wages were said to have caused strikes among carters and railway servants. (12) Other strikes of men employed on omnibuses, tramways, and railways were attributed to long hours of work, (13) and the omnibus strike of 1891 was caused by the introduction of the ticket system, in addition to a demand for a reduction of hours.(14) The frequent refusal of employers to recognise the unions has been a plentiful source of strife, and in a few cases disputes have arisen from the employment of non-union labour.(15)

2. SPECIAL STRIKES.

Shrewsbury and Talbot Yard cab strike, 1891.

297. "The greatest strike that has occurred in the cab trade" (16) began at the Shrewsbury and Talbot Yard, in April 1891. The Earl of Shrewsbury and Talbot raised the price of his cabs to 16*s.* 3*d.* when the weather was very bad, and the men found it was impossible to earn the money. Letters were sent to him by the Union, but he refused to take less for the cabs, and the men in his yards therefore struck. On seeing this, and finding that other proprietors were raising their prices, the men in other yards struck in different parts of London. A meeting was held at Victoria Hall, at which an almost unanimous desire was expressed for a general strike. The leaders of the Union, however, "were "very desirous that no general strike should take "place so as to cause any inconvenience towards the "public." They resolved, therefore, that "the strike "should go on as it had, that was by striking at different "yards at different times." (17) It lasted for 13 weeks. Arbitration was offered by the men, but "the Pro- "prietors' Association refused to meet them in any "form, and what arrangements were made were "made with the proprietors themselves." (18) The communications of the men were not answered at all by the Association; and in consequence the strike continued until the autumn was coming on, "when the "cabs came down in price without the proprietors "reducing them." (19) It was stated that the Earl of Shrewsbury and Talbot called a sale of his horses a few days after the strike began; and proposed to let out his cabs and harness. His yard was, however, picketed for 13 weeks; and at the end of that time "he opened "one of his yards, and let the cabs out at the price "that the men were asking." (20)

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 124. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 123. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 35. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29. Digest, Vol. III., p. 108. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 122-3. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 64. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 89. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 18. Digest, Vol. III., p. 123. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 36. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 88. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 106. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 88; Vol. III., p. 106. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 107. (15) Digest, Vol. III., p. 107. (16) Digest, Vol. III., p. 108. Beasley, 17,369. (17) Digest, Vol. III., p. 108. Jenkins, 17,822. (18) Beasley, 17,372. (19) Digest, Vol. III., p. 108. Jenkins, 17,822, (20) Digest, Vol. III., p. 108. Jenkins, 17,823.

[§ 298.] London omnibus strike, 1891.

298. The London omnibus strike occurred in June 1891. It was stated by Mr. Sutherst on behalf of the employed that "if the men had had reasonable "hours they never would have struck. It was not "a question of wages at all, it was a question of over- "work." (1) The secretary of the London General Omnibus Company considered, however, that, "the "introduction of the ticket check was the sole cause "of the strike"; (2) and pointed out that in 1889, when Mr. Sutherst made his first attempt to induce the omnibus men in London to strike, the Road Car Company's men, who had just had the ticket system imposed upon them, were willing to do so, and only agreed to defer proceedings because the General Omnibus Company's men, who were in other respects on the same footing, would not join them. A representative of the Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union, while admitting that the statement that the men came out for a reduction of hours was "practically true," added that "truly the strike was caused by the introduction "of the ticket system." (3) One of the employed stated that "one great objection that the men had, and which "practically led up to the strike, was the introduction "of the sliding scale." (4) The ticket system was imposed on the London General Omnibus Company's men in the beginning of 1891, and immediately "agitation was commenced amongst the men." (5) It was stated that the men were, moreover, influenced by the successful tramway strike in Paris. (6) On June 3rd Mr. Sutherst wrote to the company stating that he wished to have an interview with the Board to prefer certain demands of the men. His letter was laid before the Board on June 4th, and an answer was sent to the effect that the directors would see him on June 8th. He replied, however, that if they would not see him on the 6th the strike would be proclaimed; and it accordingly began on Sunday, June 7th. The directors had at this time "no means of knowing what the demands of the men were."(7) Mr. Sutherst, it was stated, addressed the men and "proceeded to lay down what he styled "my orders" as to striking, picketing and other matters.(8) He ended by declaring that the Road Car men would have to come out. The manager of the Road Car Company stated that their men, having no grievance with regard to the introduction of the ticket system, had no intention of joining the strike, but were induced to do so by the strikers. They struck out of "sympathy with the men of the London General "Omnibus Company, and for the purpose of getting "their hours reduced."(9) On Sunday, June 7th, the majority of the drivers and conductors in the General Omnibus Company's service ceased work; and those that did take their omnibuses out "were followed by "a howling mob and eventually forced to go back."(10) The Road Car Company's men, it was stated, took out 121 out of 235 cars which it was intended to work, and the whole would have been turned out to work but for the intimidation which was practised by the strikers. The utmost difficulty was experienced in getting the horses fed; "if Mr. Sutherst's orders had been carried out they might have been literally starved."(11) They also suffered a good deal from the enforced rest and want of exercise; and with regard to those which were sent out with relief men, it was stated that these inexperienced drivers "overdrove and worried the horses, and did them a good deal of harm."(12) On Monday, June 8th, a meeting of the directors of both companies was held, and deputations received from the men who were willing to work, and from the strikers. The result was a manifesto issued jointly by the directors to the effect that not later than July 13th the average day's work for drivers and conductors should be 12 hours. A scale of wages was drawn up, but the other demands of the men, including the dismissal of those who brought out the omnibuses on Sunday, were not conceded.(13) Negotiations then took place between Mr. Sutherst and the then Lord Mayor, Cardinal Manning and Lord Aberdeen, which resulted in the men's acceptance of this offer, and on Friday night the strike was declared at an end. The settlement was not, however, altogether satisfactory. The Union considered that Mr. Sutherst "had certainly carried out the strike on a dictatorial policy and closed it without consulting any of the Executive of the London Trades Council."(14) Charges were, moreover, brought against the companies that they had been using means to coerce the men to break the agreement; that they had

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 88. Sutherst, 15,764. (2) Kingham, 17,996. (3) Hammill, 22,691. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 88. Bowbrick, 16,255. (5) Kingham, 17,994. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 35. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 109. Kingham, 18,004. (8) Kingham, 18,004. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. Duff, 18,403-4. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 109. (11) Duff, 18,373. (12) Kingham, 18,025. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 109. (14) Hammill, 22,691.

[§ 298.] discharged or removed from regular work men who had been in their service for years, on no particular grounds; that they recruited their numbers by incompetent men, and that they had themselves in several cases violated the 12-hours agreement (1). Most of these charges were refuted either by officials of the companies or by independent witnesses; and it was alleged that the men themselves had frequently asked to be restored to the old conditions of work; and that where fresh arrangements had been made they had been faithfully adhered to.(2) The cost of the strike was stated to be, to the London General Omnibus Company, 20,000*l.*; to the Road Car Company, 8,000*l.*; and to the men 9,000*l.*(3)

Great Southern and Western Railway strike, 1890

299. The strike on the Great Southern and Western Railway of Ireland, which was described in the evidence as "the greatest strike that ever took place in Ireland"(4) began in April 1890. It originated in the refusal of two porters at Cork to accept for conveyance goods tendered to the company by a firm some of whose servants were at the time on strike. On the dismissal of these men, who had, it was alleged, been previously cautioned for a similar offence, the strike spread over the whole of the line. It was stated, however, that there were other grievances which had helped to inflame the men against the company. In March 1890 the Dublin men had sent a petition to the company asking for an amendment in the new conditions of labour which had been obtained by the strike of December 1889. It was sent through the secretary of the local branch of the Union, but the company addressed their reply to the man whose name appeared first among the signatures; and this "gave very great "offence to the men, for it was a direct ignoring of the "Society which the men had formed amongst themselves."(5) There was, moreover, a complaint that the company were employing men beneath the standard rate of wages(6), and these two grievances, combined with the dismissal of the Cork porters, resulted in the general strike which began on April 25th. According to Mr. Foreman, the secretary of the Irish branch of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, 1,000 men were affected, "every man joined in that strike with "the exception of about 20"(7), but the traffic manager of the railway denied this, and stated that the number who remained on duty was 200.(8) The men, he complained, went out without giving any official notice. The "paralysis of the country" caused by the strike became so serious that Mr. Michael Davitt and Archbishop Walsh approached the men with a view to effecting a settlement. Mr. Foreman stated that the men were willing that they should endeavour to bring the strike to an end, but that they were not allowed to see the directors. An interview was held with the traffic manager, and terms were arranged by which the men were to resume work for the purpose of relieving the public distress, and the company promised that within a limited period they would receive a deputation and discuss the matters in dispute. The men therefore resumed work on May 5th. Mr. Foreman complained that the answer which the company subsequently gave was "anything but satisfactory," as they "refused the whole of the claims that had been sent in with the exception of a very slight concession indeed to the passenger guards"(9), and added that the men have had many reasons to "regret that they did not consider "their own interests instead of the interests of the "public and fight the matter out to the end." It was stated that the strike cost the company 100*l.* a day in loss of traffic, and cost the Amalgamated Society 800*l.*(10)

Scotch Railway strike, 1890-1.

300. In 1883 a strike took place on the Caledonian Railway for a reduction of hours. It lasted a week, and at the end of that time the men "only partially obtained what they struck for";(11) hence the settlement was only temporary. Agitation for shorter hours was re-commenced in 1889 by the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, and included this time all the other Scotch railways. A programme was drawn up of which the principal item was "a universal 10-hour day to be the maximum for all grades of the service," but which also included the abolition of the custom of reckoning the hours of labour by the aggregate fortnight's work, and of the running of trains upon the "trip" system; higher pay for overtime and Sunday labour, and an eight-hours' day for certain classes of th [§ 300.] employed. (1) This was submitted to the Boards of directors of the various railways, with a request that should they take exception to any of its clauses, a conference of equal numbers of directors and representatives of the men might be held to discuss them. The reply of the directors was considered "merely an evasion of the overtures" of the men.(2) They were required to treat separately with the heads of departments; and the Glasgow and South Western and Caledonian Railways granted certain advances of wages which were not regarded as by any means equivalent to a reduction of hours. An offer was made, however, by the companies to meet the delegates of the men; and this was finally accepted, though with the stipulation on the men's side that they "could not go as depart-"ments, but as railway men all having an unbroken "interest in each other's welfare."(3) At this conference the directors requested the delegates to be divided into grades, according to the different classes of labour. From the men's point of view this appeared to be a device "for the purpose of mitigating the just, "reasonable, and fair claims of the men."(4) It was, however, pointed out by a witness that "engine-drivers "and signalmen, for instance, are quite on a different "level . . . and there is no other possible way of "redressing grievances than taking each grade and "treating it according to its merits."(5) The whole question was, in consequence of this requirement, placed in the hands of the Executive Committee of the Amalgamated Society. Through it, on September 10th, 1890, another request was made to the various companies for a conference with the men, but the replies given only demanded that the men should approach them through the heads of the respective departments. This the men, "having from painful experience in the past no faith in it," steadily refused to do; "believing," they said, that "their interests were so "interwoven that it was impossible to dissociate the "interests of each."(6) They then sent an offer of arbitration; to which the companies replied that "they had no question on which to arbitrate";(7) and the Executive Committee felt that this justified them in advising a strike. They were, however, "determined that no partial stoppage should take place with their sanction."(8) By December 12th, 4,173 resignations had been handed in to the Committee, but the number was considered insufficient to warrant a strike. Meetings were held at various stations outside Glasgow, and at these 600 voted for a strike and 875 for delay. "The Executive Committee," however, it was alleged, "kept "up the agitation until December 21st, when, at a "meeting held in the Albion Hall, Glasgow, it was decided by 660 votes (to 81) to strike."(9) It was asserted that the Executive and the Secretary "had power at the time to prevent the strike . . . . All that they would have had to do was to clear the meeting of the non-members and take the voice of the society"(10), but other witnesses held that the men "acted against the opinion of the Executive deliberately "expressed." "The men became exasperated and "would wait no longer on the Executive."(11) No notice was given, and the strike began on December 22nd. This course was ascribed by some to a desire on the part of the Amalgamated Society to "do what they "possibly could to paralyse the traffic and bring the "companies to their knees"(12); but it was argued on behalf of the society that the companies having broken their part of the agreement by ignoring the men's claims, the men felt that their own side of the compact was no longer binding; and, moreover, that the companies knew that a strike was likely to occur. "It "had appeared through the press at meetings that "were held of he men, that unless their demands "were conceded they would go on strike . . . . "on the 22nd December."(13) It was decided to confine the strike to the three principal lines, viz., the North British, the Caledonian, and the Glasgow and South Western, on the understanding that the other lines would be guided by the results they obtained. The men on the Glasgow and South Western returned to their work in the second week of the strike, those on the other two lines remained out for six weeks. It was stated that between 8,000 and 9,000 were out at one

(1) Digest, p. 109. Hammill, 22,691. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 110. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 89. Vol. III., p. 122. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 110. Foreman 26,208. (5) Foreman 26,207. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 110. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 110. Foreman 26,208. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 111. Colhoun 27,269. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 111. Foreman 26,208. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 120, 122. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 112.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLVII. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLVII. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLVII. (p. 564). (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLVII. (p. 567). (5) Melrose, 27,632. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Appendix CLVIII. (p. 573). (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 112. (8) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLVIII. (p. 579). (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 113. Melrose 27,630. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 113. Goodlet, 27,681-6. (11) Ballantyne, 25,558. (12) Melrose, 27,630. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 112. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLXXII.

[§ 300.] time. Most of the signalmen on the Caledonian Railway remained loyal to the company, and the line was kept open for traffic during the whole of the strike. Attempts at conciliation were made by various persons. Chambers of Commerce and other public bodies tried to induce the companies to submit to arbitration, but without success. It was stated by one witness that during the running of the strike no direct overtures were made by either of the contending parties. It was stated, on the other hand, by the general manager of the North British Railway, that from December 27th onwards, repeated offers were made by Mr. Walker, then general manager, to meet a deputation from the men on strike, but that it was not till January 29th that these overtures were accepted. Mr. Walker then met the representatives of the men, and an agreement was made with regard to that line. The men returned to work on January 30th. On the 31st negotiations were opened with the Caledonian Railway Company, and the strike terminated on the understanding that the directors of both companies should meet a deputation of their men within a limited period. These meetings were held on February 18th and March 26th respectively. On both the Caledonian and North British Railways arrangements were made whereby 10 hours were to be "as far as practicable" the maximum of actual work; overtime was to be paid after 72 hours a week; the minimum time of rest before a man was called on to resume work was increased from eight to nine hours; and time and a half was to be paid for Sunday labour.(1) With regard to this settlement considerable difference of opinion appears to exist. It was stated by the Assistant Secretary of the Amalgamated Society that "since the strike great improvement has been "made in the hours on the Glasgow and South Western; "the Caledonian have also improved considerably, but "the improvement on the North British is very slight "indeed, the hours in all centres being still too long. ". . . Also, while the Caledonian Railway has made "an endeavour to improve the hours, long hours are "still worked." "The agreement entered into between "the deputations and the management of the North "British line had" it was alleged "in less than a "fortnight been flagrantly abused."(2) These statements were, however, denied on behalf of the North British Railway Company,(3) and with regard to the Caledonian Company the manager stated that he "had "every reason to believe that the staff on the line was "well satisfied;"(4) and that "there is not the slightest "truth in the allegations that the Caledonian Company "have victimised men who took part in deputations."(5) This statement was corroborated by two men employed by the company who had been among the strikers; who added that "where men have not been taken on, or "have not been advanced in proportion to others, it is "not owing to their action in the strike, but because "of some personal action of theirs."(6) The Amalgamated Society considered, nevertheless, that the concessions were "of a very meagre character indeed," and declared that the "agitation must continue until the "principle of a 10-hour day is unconditionally "conceded."(7)

3. PICKETING AND INTIMIDATION AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

301. Picketing appears from the evidence to have been extensively carried on during the strikes that have occurred in these industries, and several cases of intimidation were reported in connection with them. During the cab strike of 1891 it was stated that the strikers made a practice of collecting money from those drivers who continued work; and in a few instances those who refused to pay were followed and assaulted. It was suggested that "it should be made illegal for "men in an open place like the Strand to get on the "back spring of a hansom cab and ask for a subscrip-"tion from the driver, and if he does not subscribe to "their Union to abuse him."(8) During the omnibus strike it was stated that "picketing was carried on in a most disgraceful manner."(9) The horsekeepers were not allowed to feed the horses, and those drivers and conductors who did go out were, as before stated, "followed by a howling mob and eventually forced to "go back. The harness in some cases was cut and the "omnibus damaged, and some of the men were very "seriously hurt."(1) In the case of the strike on the Dublin, Wicklow and Wexford Railway it was alleged that threats were employed and the "loyal men terrorised." On the other hand, a representative of the employed complained that they "found it somewhat "difficult to get on with picketing work in Ireland," and were "very much harassed by the police." Cases were quoted of charges of intimidation which had been dismissed by the magistrates on the ground of illegal arrest.(2) With regard to the Scotch railway strike much evidence was adduced on behalf of the employers, and of those men who did not strike, as to intimidation practised by the strikers.(3) One witness asserted that the strike "was only carried on by means of the picket system."(4) Representatives of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants stated, however, that "those who had charge of the strike counselled the "men from time to time not to violate the law," and that the companies had pickets which "unduly interfered with the pickets of the men."(5) Some of those who had been prevented from working added, moreover, that so far as their personal experience went, no physical force had been used, though the pickets had carried weapons.(6)

[§ 301.]

Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act

302. With respect to the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, Mr. Kingham stated that "so far as "picketing and silent or verbal intimidation is con-"cerned, he did not think the law touched it,"(7) and recommended that the men should be compelled to move away from the premises they were picketing, and should be punished if they failed to do so.(8) Another witness thought that Government ought to interfere to see that no man shall prevent another man, either by force or by any other means, from going to his work if that man is inclined to do so.(9) On the other hand, Mr. Campbell, solicitor to the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants for Scotland, arguing from the case of a man against whom eight charges had been made under the 7th section of the Act, raised several objections to the section. He complained that the statute was "elastic in its terminology and was com-"prehensive. A man who commits one act may have "it described and specified as a violation of more than "one and possibly two or three sub-sections . . . . "The same *species facti* might be formulated in two or "three possible charges."(10) This he asserted was peculiar to the Act. The word "intimidate" has, he alleged, been interpreted by some judges "very peculiarly."(11) He complained further that though the words "liable to a penalty for each of the offences" are not in the Act, it has been so read, and hence the penalties may amount to much heavier punishment than was intended by the Act, and again, that judges, knowing that fines are usually paid by the society to which the accused belongs, are disposed to impose imprisonment, without the alternative of a fine, though it is "by no means clear" that they have this power.(12) As a remedy to these evils the witness recommended that cumulative penalties under the Act should be disallowed. If a man were guilty of violence to several persons, he should be considered outside the statute and indicted at common law for the assaults, but if he were proceeded against under this statute the penalty should not exceed 20*l.* or three months' imprisonment. The common law of Scotland meets nearly everything provided for in the 7th section. The witness further advised that the terms used in the section should be defined, and that the words used in the Act "in default of payment" should be given effect to, in order that the judge should not have power to withhold the option of a fine, except for an aggravated offence tried before a jury.(13)

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 61–2, 69, 124. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendices CLXIX., CLX. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 120. Ballantyne, 25,051. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Conacher, 27,111, 27,160. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 114. Thompson, 27,916. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Thompson, 27,881. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Goodlet, 27,702. (7) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CLXI. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 115. Chapman, 19,206. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 116. Peirce, 22,671.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 199. Kingham, 18,004. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 146. Foreman, 26,228. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 116-7. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 116. Goodlet, 27,553. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 116. Paisley, 26,912, 26,917. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 117. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 147. Kingham 18,046. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 147. Kingham 18,041-2. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 146. Goodlet 27,567. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 145. Campbell 26,082-4. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 145. Campbell 26,091. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 145. Campbell 26,095. (13) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 65, 145-6.

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SUMMARY of the EVIDENCE, oral and written, received by GROUP C. of the ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

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NOTE.

IN accordance with a Resolution of the Commission, the Secretary was directed to prepare Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written) received by the Committees. This Evidence includes:—

1. The Minutes of Evidence with Appendices.
2. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
3. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards.
4. Certain other Documents handed in or forwarded to the Commission, but not printed with the above.

Under the head of Textile and Clothing Industries these include:—

Leeds Rivetters' and Finishers' Statement of Wages approved by the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Wholesale Manufacturing Boot and Shoe Trade of Leeds, 1881; handed in by Mr. Judge.

5. Further Correspondence on certain subjects.

N.B.—The following official publications have also been consulted:—

(i.) Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, Fifth Report, 1891.

(ii.) Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the Year 1892.

(iii.) Return on Hours of Labour, ordered by the House of Commons on the motion of Mr. Broadhurst; (375, 1890).

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* The few suggestions with regard to the publication of statistics, given in the oral and written evidence, have been dealt with in the Summary of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, under the head of "Labour Department."

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PART I.—TEXTILE AND CLOTHING INDUSTRIES.

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.*

I. WAGES.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF WAGES.

[§ 303.] TEXTILE. ature of formation textile dustries.

303. The difficulty which attends any attempt to summarise the evidence received with regard to wages, is rendered peculiarly great in the textile trades by the complexity of the processes involved in them, and the consequent great division of labour and multiplicity of classes of workers. Amongst these classes it is only with regard to the wages of weavers and spinners in the cotton and woollen industries that the information received is sufficiently full to form the basis for any general statements. And even in these cases it must be borne in mind that, as pointed out by the witnesses themselves, the averages given are merely more or less rough approximations, since the wages earned by each operative depend not only upon his or her own skill and industry, but also upon the size and number of the machines tended, and the speed at which they run; upon the quality of the material supplied and the nature of the goods to be produced, and upon the number of assistants required and the wages paid to them. So far as information with regard to the wages of these four classes of workers can be obtained from either the oral or the written evidence, it is shown in the four following tables.

TABLE I.

MEAN OF RETURNS OF WAGES OF WEAVERS IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY.

References.	District.	Wages per Week.	Class for which Mean is given.
	LANCASHIRE.	s. d.	
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1452-53, 1509.	North-east Lancashire.	20 0	Adult males and females.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1023, 1057-58, 2509, 2869-70.	Burnley	22 0	Adult males and females.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 101.	Blackburn	20 0	Adult males and females.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1622-23, 1705.	Haslingden	17 4	Adult males and females.

Wages of Cotton Weavers.

304. In obtaining the average wages of weavers in the various districts of the cotton industry, it has been generally necessary to accept the statement of an individual witness with regard to the rate current in a particular locality, but it must be noticed that such statements were to a certain extent supported by the tacit assent to them of other witnesses examined at the same time or immediately afterwards. The Burnley district is the only one for which the average wages were given by more than one witness, and in this case the divergence in the rates quoted by the representatives of the employers and the employed was very slight. Mr. Rawlinson computed the weekly average earnings of a single loom at 5*s.* 3*d.*, and the average earnings of the workers (including both adult weavers and their assistants) at 21*s.* (1); whilst Mr. Holmes computed the weekly average earnings of a single loom at 5*s.*, and the average earnings of an adult weaver, after deducting the wages paid to his assistants, at 22*s.* (2) The rates of 17*s.* 4*d.* for the district of Haslingden (3) and 20*s.* for the whole of North-East Lancashire (4) are the average wages as computed by the witnesses, but in the case of Blackburn the maximum and minimum rates were quoted,(5) and the average wage given in the table is the arithmetic mean of these rates, and therefore probably not an exact average. It was stated by another witness that wages for adult male weavers in the Ashton-under-Lyne district range from 22*s.* to 30*s.*, but the average rate for male and female weavers in this district was not given. (1)

[§ 304.] Wages of Cotton Spinners.

305. Very little evidence was given with regard to the wages of spinners in the cotton industry, and it will be noticed in the following table that when rates of wages have been quoted for spinners in the oral or written evidence, these were for districts other than those for which the wages of weavers have been quoted.

TABLE II.

MEAN OF RETURNS OF WAGES OF SPINNERS IN THE COTTON INDUSTRY.

References.	District.	Wages per Week.	Class for which Mean is given.
	LANCASHIRE.	s. d.	
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 712. Oldham Wages List. Answers to Schedules of Questions, Appendix VIII., p. 895.	Lancashire and parts of adjoining counties.	35 0	Minders, men only.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 769.	Bolton	37 6	Minders, men only.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 99.	Preston	31 0	Minders, men only.

These rates also depend upon single statements of witnesses or associations, as in no case has the information been received from more than one source with regard to the wages prevailing in one locality. Mr. Mawdsley computed the average gross weekly earnings of an average sized machine (representing 85 dozen spindles) throughout the district of the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners (*i.e.*, the whole of Lancashire up to Lancaster, and the adjoining districts of Cheshire, Derbyshire and Yorkshire) at 63*s.*, out of which the assistants would receive about 27*s.*, and the minder 35*s.*(2) According to the Oldham list of wages for self actor minders, sent in by Mr. Mawdsley as an average list for the district, the weekly gross earnings of a machine of 85 dozen spindles are 61*s.* 8*d.*, of which the assistants receive 28*s.*, and the minder 33*s.* 8*d.*;(3) but certain extra allowances are mentioned, which go to the minder only, and these may raise his average wages to the sum computed by Mr. Mawdsley. According to the Bolton Master Cotton Spinners' Association, the gross earnings of a spinner range from 42*s.* to 90*s.*, according to the size of the mules.(4) If the arithmetic mean of these amounts, 66*s.*, be taken as the average gross earnings of a spinner, and this is divided according to the proportions adopted by Mr. Mawdsley in his calculation, it would allow about 28*s.* 6*d.* for the assistants, and about 37*s.* 6*d.* for the minder himself. It may be noticed that according to the Oldham wages list gross earnings of 65*s.* 6*d.* are divided between the assistants (or piecers) and the minder, in the proportions of 30*s.* and 35*s.* 6*d.*; but as it was stated in the evidence that Bolton is the district in which piecers' wages are lower than anywhere else in Lancashire,(5) the proportions adopted above are more likely to be correct. That 37*s.* 6*d.* is not far from a true average for minders' wages in Bolton seems to be shown by the fact that Dr. Giffen gave 34*s.* 5*d.* as the average rate in this district in 1886, and that wages are said to have risen 10 per cent. since that date,(6) according to which the present average rate would be about 37*s.* 11*d.* The Preston Operative Cotton Spinners' Association quotes 31*s.* as the average weekly wage of a spinner.(7) This also seems to receive a certain amount of verification from the fact that Dr. Giffen quoted the average wages in this district in 1886 as 28*s.* 11*d.*, and that if a rise of 10 per cent. be allowed for, this would make the present average about 31*s.* 10*d.*

* The few suggestions with regard to the publication of statistics, given in the oral and written evidence, have been dealt with in the Summary of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, under the head of "Labour Department."

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 2509, 2869-70. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1023, 1057-58. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1622-23, 1705. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1452-53, 1509. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 101.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1079. (2) Minutes of Evidence Vol. I., 712. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Appendix VIII., p. 895. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 769. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 797. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 99.

[§ 306.] Wages of Card and Blowing Room Operatives.

306. A third important branch of the cotton industry is that of the card and blowing-room operatives, who prepare the cotton for the spinners. Wages in this branch throughout the cotton districts are said to range from 19*s.* to 30*s.* for men, and from 14*s.* to 26*s.* for women, subject to local variations, but the work done by men and women is different in kind.(1) In the district of Oldham the average wages of men employed in the carding and blowing-rooms are said to be 26*s.* 4*d.*, and the extreme variations 17*s.* to 32*s.*, but it is stated that very few male hands receive less than 20*s.* or more than 30*s.*(2)

Recent advances in Wages

307. The representatives of both employers and operatives agreed that wages in the various branches of the cotton trade had advanced considerably during the last 30 years, both directly and indirectly. This is attributed partly to improvements in machinery, but the operatives consider it mainly due to their improved organisation, and the continued efforts of their unions to gain an advance whenever the state of the trade renders it possible. The representatives or the employers, on the other hand, stated that the unions had served to steady wages, but not directly to raise them, and pointed out that the wages of those operatives who have not been organised have risen in a greater degree than the wages of the organised operatives.(3)

Wages of Woollen Weavers.

308. The following table shows the information that has been obtained with regard to the wages of weavers in the Yorkshire district engaged in the woollen and worsted industries. The Bradford district is almost entirely confined to the worsted industry, but so far as weaving is concerned there does not appear to be any marked difference in wages between this and the woollen industry.

TABLE III.

MEAN OF RETURNS OF WAGES OF WEAVERS IN THE WOOLLEN INDUSTRY.

References.	District.	Wages per Week.	Class for which Mean is given.
	YORKSHIRE.	*s. d.*	
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7984.	Guiseley - -	17 6	Adult males and females.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 107, 469. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7079.	Huddersfield -	17 0	Adult males and females.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 11,381, 11,424-9. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 684.	Bradford - -	13 4	Adult males and females.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 5707. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 107.	Batley and the "heavy woollen" district.	10 0	Adult males and females.

With regard to this table it must be noticed that in the Guiseley and Huddersfield districts wages were quoted separately by the employers for male and female weavers, and it was stated that in the Huddersfield district there were separate lists for men and women, that for the men being about 20 per cent. higher than the women's list.(4) When the arithmetic mean of the men's and women's rates is taken as the average rate for adults, this is probably rather too high, as more women than men are usually employed in weaving, although Mr. Thomson stated that in his own mills 56 per cent. of the weavers were men.(5) The earnings of a weaver in full employment in the Guiseley district were said to be from 22*s.* to 35*s.* a week for men and from 18*s.* to 28*s.* a week for women, but Mr. Peate considered that, allowing for irregularity of employment, the average earnings of a male weaver would be 20*s.* 6*d.*, and of a female weaver 14*s.*(6) Mr. Yates considered that 19*s.* to 20*s.* would be a fair average for all weavers in the Leeds district, disregarding irregularity of employment, but could not say what effect this had upon the earnings.(7) The Huddersfield Weavers' Association gives the average wage of adult weavers in full employment as from 18*s.* to 24*s.*, and during slack time as from 10*s.* to 16*s.*(8) The average of these various rates has been taken as the average rate of earnings of an adult weaver during the year. The arithmetic means of the wages quoted for fully employed male and female weavers in this district by Mr. Thomson and Messrs. Armitage and Cleland, are 20*s.* and 21*s.* 10½*d.* respectively (9), and this seems to show that the arithmetic mean of the rates quoted above for weavers in full employment, viz. 21*s.* is a fair average. The most conflicting evidence given with regard to the rate of wages had reference to the Bradford district. It was stated by Mr. Drew that the average rate of a weaver's earnings in this district was 9*s.* a week, but according to the returns from 118 employers in response to an inquiry issued by a Joint Committee appointed by the Bradford Chamber of Commerce to investigate this question, the average earnings of a weaver for the year 1891 were 13*s.* 3·840*d.*(1) Two other witnesses representing the Bradford Power Loom Weavers' Association stated, however, that this average was too high, and this society stated in the written answers to the schedule of questions that wages range from 5*s.* to 15*s.* weekly, according to the state of trade.(2) A representative of the West Riding of Yorkshire Weavers' Association stated that 10*s.* would be a fair average for weavers' wages throughout the year in the Batley and heavy woollen weaving district, but this average is probably rather too low, as the Weavers' Association for this district quotes 12*s.* as "a common rate of earnings".(3)

[§ 308.]

309. The evidence given with regard to the wages of spinners in the woollen and worsted industries is less satisfactory than that with regard to any of the three classes already dealt with. So far as any information has been obtained, it is contained in the following table:— Wages of Woollen Spinners.

TABLE IV.

MEAN OF RETURNS OF WAGES OF SPINNERS IN THE WOOLLEN INDUSTRY.

References.	District.	Wages per Week.	Class for which Mean is given.
		s. d.	
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7080.	Huddersfield -	25 0	Spinners, men only.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 5745.	Batley and the "heavy woollen" district.	23 6	Spinners, men only.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 6745, 10,348.	Bradford - -	9 6	Spinners, chiefly women and girls.

It must be noticed that the rate of wages quoted here for spinners in the Huddersfield district is not an average but the rate of fixed weekly wages paid by Mr. Thomson to his spinners. As Mr. Thomson stated that these wages were offered to the spinners on condition that they should not receive piece wages, it may, perhaps, be assumed that they are above the usual rate of time wages and below the average piece wages in the district, and, therefore, approximate to an average rate for the district.(4) The average rate for piece work in the Batley and heavy woollen district was given by Mr. Turner as 24*s.*, and this witness stated that time wages for spinners ranged from 17*s.* to 30*s.*, according to the amount of responsibility involved. The average of time and piece wages for the district is, therefore, probably not higher than 23*s.* 6*d.*, the arithmetic mean of the extremes here quoted for the time rates.(5) With regard to the wages of worsted spinners in the Bradford district, similar rates were quoted by two witnesses, an employer and an overlooker, viz., from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* 6*d.* for two sides, 10*s.* for three sides, and 11*s.* 6*d.* for four sides, giving an average of about 9*s.* 6*d.* It must, however, be noticed that these rates, which are time wages and for work performed chiefly by girls, cannot be properly compared with the wages of woollen spinners in the districts quoted above, since the work in the latter is performed entirely by men, and the wages are partly time and partly piece wages.(5)

Wages o Wool Combers Wool Sorters, and Wa Dressers

310. Rates of wages were quoted by representatives of the associations of wool combers, wool sorters, and warp dressers in the Bradford district as follows:— The average wages for male wool combers were said to be 17*s.* 6*d.* a week, and for female 12*s.*, whilst about 40 per cent. of those engaged in the industry are females. The average weekly time wages for wool sorters were said to be 29*s.*, and the average piece wage earned in a week to be 20*s.*, only men being engaged

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 8. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 482-484. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 13, and 14. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I. 7113. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7151. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7974, 7984-87. (7) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7703-6. (8) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7079. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 469.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. Digest, Vol. II., p. 7. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 107. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 5707. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 107. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7080. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 5745. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 26 and 28.

[§ 310.] in this industry. Male warp dressers, when in full employment, earn from 25*s.* to 28*s.* a week, but female warp dressers not more than 13*s.* a week; few females are, however, employed in the industry. A representative of the employers in the Bradford district computed the average earnings of a wool sorter as 23*s.* or 24*s.* a week, and of a warp dresser in full employment as from 26*s.* to 30*s.* a week (1).

Wages in the Jute industry.

311. In the jute industry at Dundee two manufacturers quoted the average wages paid to their spinners as 15*s.* to 17*s.* a week and 10*s.* to 13*s.* 9*d.* respectively, and the president of the Dundee Factory Operatives' Union stated that the wages of jute spinners were higher at Dundee than at Barrow, where they earn 10*s.* 6*d.* a week. Weavers' wages in the jute industry were said by one manufacturer at Dundee to average 16*s.* 9*d.*, whilst a representative of the Forfar Factory Workers Union gave the average wages for weavers as 18*s.* for four looms, 15*s.* for three looms, and from 13*s.* to 20*s.* for two looms according to the size of the machines. Only women are employed in weaving jute (2).

Wages in the Silk industry.

312. With regard to wages in the silk industry, it is stated by the Silk Dressers' Trade Society that the average wages of dressers in all the silk manufacturing districts are about 35*s.* a week, and a silk dresser in Halifax stated in his evidence that his own average earnings were about 30*s.* a week. Mr. Hadwen, a silk manufacturer near Halifax, stated that in his factory a dresser earns 35*s.* a week; a spinner, 36*s.*; a twiner, 35*s.*; and a weaver, 30*s.* He stated, however, that the firm to which he belongs pays higher wages than some others (3).

Wages in the Carpet industry.

313. Evidence was given by only one representative of the carpet industry, a manufacturer at Bridgnorth, who stated that in his own factory the wages of male weavers averaged from 32*s.* to 35*s.* a week, and those of female weavers from 12*s.* to 15*s.* a week. The Aberdeen Carpet Weavers' Association states that the average wages are 17*s.* 6*d.* a week, fluctuating from 33*s.* to 10*s.* (4).

Wages in the Dyeing industry.

314. The representatives of the Bradford Society of Dyers stated that the average wages in that industry were now from 14*s.* to 16*s.* or 18*s.* a week, although experienced hands earned about 24*s.* a week. Formerly, however, 24*s.* was a general average. An employer engaged in the dyeing and finishing industry in Leicester stated that the average wages of the men employed by him during the last year had amounted to 30*s.* a head (5).

Mode of payment.

315. In the cotton industry both spinners and weavers are usually paid by the piece, but in the card and blowing rooms the male operatives, as a rule, receive time wages, though the females are paid by the piece. In the woollen industry weavers are paid by the piece, but wool spinners in some cases, and worsted spinners always, receive time wages. Wool sorters and warp dressers are generally paid by the piece, and wool combers, willeyers, and fettlers by time. Cotton spinners and weavers and wool weavers sometimes employ assistants, whom they pay out of their own gross earnings (6).

Sub-contracts.

316. The Huddersfield Weavers' Association mentions "commission weaving" as the only form of sub-contracting existing in the industry, though it is not what is usually understood as sub-contracting. In "commission weaving" the work is performed under a middleman, who hires unemployed looms from different firms, and undertakes to weave the raw material with which they supply him for a certain sum minus the rent due for the plant; and the wages paid to the weavers are considerably below the scale adopted in the district(7).

Variations in wages.

317. In the cotton industry the wages of the operatives vary greatly in the different districts of Lancashire. This is sometimes due to the different character and quality of the goods produced, but in other cases it is said to be "the same class of work, but different rates of wages obtain."(8) In those industries in which the workers' organisations are weak the rates of wages are said to vary from one establishment to another. Thus weavers' wages in the West Riding of Yorkshire vary in different mills from 12*s.* to 16*s.* for the same work. Mr. Gee stated that in the Huddersfield district there was a nominal standard scale of wages for both men and women, the women's wages being from 15 to 30 per cent., and sometimes still more, below the men's rates. The terms of this scale, however, had been practically dictated by the Masters' Association, which now considered it as representing only the maximum wages which might be paid, and at least 60 per cent. of the employers in the district were paying below these rates. The lowness of the rates of wages of even the male weavers in the woollen trade was attributed to the large proportion of women employed. The employers feel that the men's work is not worth above 6*d.* or 1*s.* at the outside per piece more than women's, and use the cheapness of the latter to depress the price of the former. The employment of women in the woollen trade also tends indirectly to keep wages low, by hindering the organisation of the workers, since the women do not care to join the unions. In this respect there is a great difference between this industry and the Lancashire cotton trade, in which the majority of female workers are organised. A further complaint from the woollen weavers relates to the decrease of wages which has followed upon the increased speed of the looms. The rate of payment has been reduced by one-third on the ground that the fast looms produce proportionately more in a given time. This would be true if the work produced were in proportion to the speed of the loom, but in consequence of the more frequent stoppages, and the time lost in breakdowns and changing the caps and shuttles, &c., in the case of fast looms, the work is not in proportion to their speed, and actual wages have therefore been diminished. Several witnesses considered that it would be a great benefit if there were a uniform minimum rate of wages for woollen weavers(1). The wages of wool sorters and wool combers in the Bradford district were also said to vary from one employer to another. In some firms, especially those of wool staplers, who sell the wool to the spinners after it has been sorted, the wool sorters do not know from day to day what the rate of pay will be, or what quantity of work they are expected to perform for it. They are now endeavouring to obtain a minimum standard rate of wages.(2) The willeyers and fettlers in the Leeds district complain that some employers pay below the rate agreed upon by them with the Union, and that non-union men are paid 10 per cent. less than unionists.(3) The wages paid by different employers to the linen factory operatives at Brechin vary, as do also wages in the tweed factories at Hawick and Galashiels. The variations in the last industry are, however, slight, and are accounted for by the fact that the trade is a fancy one, and each firm has some speciality in the work it produces.(4) The linen lappers in Belfast complain that the variations in their wages in different establishments are as great as from 15*s.* to 30*s.* or even 35*s.* a week. Their organisation is therefore endeavouring to obtain a standard minimum rate of 7½*d.* an hour(5). [§ 317.]

Irregularity of employment.

318. Complaints of fluctuations in wages due to irregularity of employment come chiefly from the woollen trade. Thus, in the Leeds district, "slack times" are said to be frequent owing to foreign tariffs and changes of fashion, and in the Bradford district the work fluctuates according to the season. Wool sorters are very irregularly employed, in consequence of the wool being bought at one particular season of the year; and the weavers in the Huddersfield district and the wool combers in the Bradford district state that the irregularity of their employment is due to the fact that they contract to do a certain job, and are liable to be thrown out of employment as soon as it is completed. Wages in the Dundee jute factories fluctuate with the season of the year as much as from 2½ to 5 per cent., since the jute works better in winter(6).

Fines and other deductions.

319. Fines are said to be very seldom imposed upon cotton spinners, since they are disapproved of by both the operatives' and the employers' associations. Fines for unpunctuality and for careless or bad work are, however, commonly imposed upon weavers in both the cotton and woollen industries, and are said by the employers to be a necessary check upon the workpeople, whilst the amount of the fines bears a very small proportion to the loss occasioned by damaged work. The operatives, on the other hand, state that the damage is often caused by a defective loom, or by bad

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 24, 25, and 28. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31, 33, and 34. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 461. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 105. Digest, Vol. I., pp. 30 and 31. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 110. Digest, Vol. II., p. 57. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 26. Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 11, 22, 24, 27; Digest, Vol. II., p. 9. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 107; Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (8) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 14 and 310.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 18, 19, and 20. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 24 and 25. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 10. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 10. Digest, Vol. I., p. 34. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 12. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 19, 22, 24, 26, and 32.

[§ 319.] warp or weft, and that the weaver should not be charged for it. Excessive fining is especially a grievance with the woollen and worsted weavers who complain that the whole week's wages are sometimes swallowed up by fines.(1) Other deductions from wages of which complaint was made are "in respect of oiling "machinery, getting hot water for breakfast, carrying "pieces up to the warehouse, broken and worn-out "machinery;" but the employers maintained that the grievance with regard to oiling was manufactured rather than real, and that the deductions made for this and the provision of hot water were not in excess of the advantages to the workpeople or the expense to the employers(2).

Bonuses or other allowances.

320. Bonuses were said to be sometimes given to overlookers on the production of the hands working under them. This system was objected to by the operatives' representatives on the ground that it leads the overlookers to "drive" or put over-pressure upon the workers. A bonus on production was said to be given in rare cases to the weavers, and was objected to on the ground that it is given in order to ascertain the maximum amount of production possible from a given loom, after which wages are reduced. Mr. H. Foster stated that in his mill bonuses are given only in the sorting and dressing departments, and to stimulate the industry of apprentices, and are paid on the quantity of work performed(3).

Period of contract.

321. In the cotton industry the period of contract appears to be generally for a week or fortnight, but in the woollen industry of the West Riding of Yorkshire, it was said that the operatives are subject to dismissal on finishing the piece on which they are engaged, and their representatives considered that contracts of service should be for the week or fortnight and not for the piece(4).

CLOTHING.

Nature of information in the clothing industries.

322. The three branches of the clothing trades which have been chiefly represented, are the hosiery, the boot and shoe manufacturing and the tailoring trades. Numerous statements of wages have been received, especially in the two last of these trades, in both oral and written evidence; but as these, in the case of evidence given by employers, generally refer to the rates of wages paid by one particular firm, or in a somewhat restricted area, whilst in the case of the evidence given by the employed, the average or range of variations quoted sometimes refers to so wide an area that it does not represent any local rate, it has not been possible to base any general statements upon them. Moreover, when both employers and employed have quoted rates of wages for the same district, these have generally been widely divergent.

Wages in the Hosiery trade.

323. Thus, with regard to wages in the Leicester hosiery trade, a representative of the employed stated that the earnings of men employed on old machines varied from 15*s.* to 16*s.*, and of those employed on new machines from 20*s.* to 30*s.* a week, whilst a manufacturer stated that the operatives earned from 25*s.* to 40*s.*, according to the machinery on which they were employed, and the part of the stocking made by them(5). Two other hosiery manufacturers quoted the wages paid by them, in one case as from 20*s.* to 40*s.* in a factory at Foleshill, and in the other as from 20*s.* to 38*s.* in a factory at Hawick(6). The Nottingham Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Society states that the wages received by its members range from 12*s.* to 50*s.* a week, whilst those received by the members of the Hand Framework Knitters' Federation are said to average from 15*s.* to 20*s.* a week, but with very few of the last-named sum(7).

Wages in the Boot and Shoe making industry.

324. With regard to wages in the boot and shoe trade in Leeds, Mr. Ingle, representing the Boot Manufacturers' Association, stated that average wages for riveters were 26*s.*; for clickers, 26*s.*; for finishers, 27*s.*; and for machinists, 13*s.* These averages were confirmed by the evidence of another manufacturer, who computed the average earnings of the men employed by him to be 26*s.* to 29*s.* a week, and of the women from 13*s.* to 16*s.*, and by that of the president of the Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association, who quoted a certificate furnished by an accountant who had examined the wages table of ten Leeds firms. He found the average wages to be for riveters, 26*s.* 5½*d.*; for clickers, 26*s.* 11½*d.*; for finishers, 28*s.* 6*d.*; and for machinists, 14*s.* 6*d.*(8) Mr. Judge, [§ 324.] however, representing the Leeds branch of the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, considered that the average earnings of men in Leeds were less than 25*s.* a week, and gave, as a result of an investigation made by himself into the wages paid by the ten firms referred to, the average for riveters as 20*s.* 7*d.*; for clickers, 23*s.* 7*d.*; and for finishers, 23*s.* 6*d.*(1) Mr. Inskip, representing the Boot and Shoe Operatives Union, stated that the average earnings of an operative shoemaker throughout the year at Leicester were 23*s.* or 24*s.*; and the Aberdeen branch of the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, states that the wages of its members average 24*s.* a week(2). Two boot and shoe manufacturers, however, one at Leicester, and the other at Carnoustie in Scotland, state that the wages paid to their male operatives range from 20*s.* to 35*s.* a week(3). The wages of clickers in London were said to range from 16*s.* to 34*s.*, and those of rough stuff cutters from 16*s.* to 28*s.* Jewish firms only work five days a week, or four and a half in winter, but pay the same rate of wages as English firms. They require, it is true, the same amount of work to be produced as is turned out in the longer period in an English firm, but are satisfied with an inferior quality. Mr. Inskip stated that wages in Ireland are nominally the same as in England, but the material is given out in a rougher state, "and "a man who could make six dozen pair as it is prepared "in England would not probably be able to make "above four dozen, or four dozen and a half in a week "in Ireland," so that the actual rates of weekly wages are lower(4).

Wages in the Tailoring trade.

325. The Amalgamated Society of Tailors states that the weekly wages earned by its members vary in different districts from 15*s.* in parts of Ireland and Scotland, to 45*s.* in London. Mr. Keir, representing the same society, stated that the average weekly wages in Liverpool did not exceed 25*s.*, though an operative tailor might earn from 40*s.* to 50*s.* in any particular week if in full employment, and a firm of employers in the same town quote the weekly wages as 40*s.* to 60*s.*, but probably this refers to full employment only(5). Mr. Gordon, a master tailor in Manchester, stated that the weekly wage men in that town receive from 35*s.* to 42*s.*, whilst piece workers in a busy season may earn 40*s.* to 60*s.* a week; and another firm of manufacturing tailors at Manchester state that wages range from 30*s.* to 50*s.*(6) Other weekly rates of wages quoted by individual employers in various districts are as follows:—At Reading, 28*s.* is the average throughout the year; at Plymouth, men's wages range from 20*s.* to 35*s.*; at Dundee, from 20*s.* to 40*s.*; and at Glasgow, the average is 28*s.* or 30*s.*(7) The following table, showing the rates per hour paid in various branches of the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, is taken from a more extensive table contained in the Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions for the year 1891, published by the Board of Trade.(8) As is shown below, various other elements besides that of hourly rates enter into the computation of the actual weekly wages earned by tailors, which are not therefore always strictly proportional in their local variations to the variations in the rates given in the table.

TABLE showing RATES of WAGES per hour for the year 1891, in various branches of the AMALGAMATED SOCIETY OF TAILORS.—(Taken from the Annual Report of the Society.)

Branches.	Rates per hour.	Branches.	Rates per hour.
ENGLAND AND WALES.		Durham	5½*d.*
		Exeter	4½*d.*
Ashton-under-Lyne	6*d.*	Halifax	4*d.* & 4½*d.*
Birmingham	6*d.*	King's Lynn	3*d.* & 4*d.*
Carnarvon	4½*d.*	Leeds	5*d.*
Derby	5*d.*	Liverpool	6*d.*

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 9, 11, 14, 17, 19, 20, 21, and 24. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 11, 14, and 18. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 17, 20, and 29. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 13 and 17. (6) Digest, Vol. II. p. 17. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 404. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 50 and 51. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 21, 23, and 25.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 15,926–15,927. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 26. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 48. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 394 and 397. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 24 and 26. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 51 and 400. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 32. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 401. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 399, 400, 403 and 404. (8) Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions. Fifth Report, 1891, pp. 200–202.

[§ 325.]

Branches.	Rates per hour.	Branches.	Rates per hour.
London—Bayswater	5d. & 6d.	Southport	5d. & 5½d.
„ Chelsea	4d. to 6d.	South Shields	5½d.
„ City	5d. & 6d.	Stafford	4d.
„ Dragon	6d., 6½d., & 7d.	Swansea	5d.
„ Ealing	5d.	Wolverhampton	5d.
„ East	6d., 6½d., & 7d.	York	4½d. & 5d.
„ Excelsior	6d. & 7d.	IRELAND.	
„ German City	4d. to 7d.	Belfast	4½d. to 5½d.
„ Hammersmith	5d. & 6d.	Cork	4d. & 4½d.
„ Marylebone	5d., 6d., & 7d.	Dublin	4½d. to 5½d.
„ Progressive	6d., 6½d., & 7d.	Queenstown	3½d.
„ Putney	4½d.	Tipperary	3d.
„ South	6d.		
„ West End	6d., 6½d., & 7d.	SCOTLAND.	
Manchester	5d. to 6½d.	Aberdeen	4½d., 5d., & 5½d.
Newcastle-on-Tyne	5½d. & 6d.	Dundee	5d., 5½d., & 6d.
Nottingham	4½d. & 5d.	Edinburgh	5d., 5½d., & 6d.
Plymouth	4d. & 5d.	Glasgow	5d., 5½d., & 6d.
Reading	5d.	Greenock	4½d. & 5d.
Rugby	4½d. & 5d.	Perth	4½d., 5d., & 5½d.
Sheffield	5d.		

Mode of payment.

326. In the hosiery trade wages are said to be generally paid by the piece, except in the case of men employed on a few special machines, who receive weekly wages. It was also said that the middlemen in country districts pay their machine men by the day, which is considered a bad system as the operatives do not receive the statement price.(1) In the boot and shoe making trade also piece wages are general, though the Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association states that machinists, clickers, and rough stuff cutters are usually paid by the day. Mr. Green stated that there was no uniform mode of payment of wages to the clickers and rough stuff cutters in London, but they were paid by the piece, task, or week, according to the custom of the particular employer. When paid by the task the men sometimes do not know till the pay day what that task is. "When that day comes you will soon be told if you "have not done enough, but if you have done over you "will not be paid for it".(2) Tailors are usually paid by piece work according to a "time-log," *i.e.*, they are paid a certain sum for an entire garment, calculated at certain rate per hour for the number of hours fixed by the time log for that garment. This time basis is, however, a fictitious one, as an ordinary workman can make a garment in less time than that allowed by the log. The representatives of the master tailors stated that they would prefer to pay weekly wages, but the men objected to this on the ground that it would put the inferior workmen at a greater disadvantage. Clothiers' cutters are said to be sometimes paid by task work, so many garments having to be cut in a day.(3)

Sub-contractors and sweating.

327. The sub-contract system was said to exist to some extent in all three branches of the clothing trades, and in each case was considered to lead to sweating the workpeople, and to the employment of "out" or "home" work, and of foreign labour. Thus, in the hosiery trade, the Hand Framework Knitters' Federation states that the "trade is unfortunately in the hands of middle-"men, who bring out the work from the warehouses "and give the same out to the workmen," and the representatives of this society stated in their evidence that by means of the sub-contract system the manufacturer pays from 3*s.* to 3*s.* 2*d.* per dozen less than the statement prices. The sub-contractors are also generally opposed to the trade union. The Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Society also mentions payment "through a sub-contractor, which ought to be abo-"lished." Two witnesses, however, considered that the work given out by the manufacturers directly to women to do at home was "cruelly sweated," and that all home-work was a form of sweating.(1) In the boot and shoe trade, Mr. Inskip gave evidence with regard to the sub-contract and sweating systems. He stated that middlemen fetched the work from the factories at less than the statement prices, and employed alien labour at starvation wages, thus displacing the English workman. Some of the Poles who had recently come to England would work 100 hours a week for 6*s.* or 8*s.* Evidence was also given by Mr. Ingle with regard to the sweating system in connexion with the Russian Jews and other foreigners in Leeds. He stated that the slipper trade was now entirely in their hands, and that they worked under most unsanitary conditions and paid very low wages. Mr. Beckworth gave similar evidence with regard to the low wages of foreign Jews employed in the cheap slipper trade, but he did not consider that their labour was necessarily sweated, or that it had been detrimental to the clothing trades generally in Leeds.(2) They had rather been the means of building up a certain part of the ready-made clothing trade which had been left to them by the English workmen. He believed that Jewish tailors made about the same wages in the same number of hours as English tailors, although the rate of wages for a certain amount of work was less. Mr. Keir, on the other hand, considered that the employment of Germans and Russian Jews tended to reduce wages in the tailoring trade.(3) It is stated by the Amalgamated Society of Tailors that the sub-contract system exists only in the case of sweaters, and is not recognised by the men. The representatives of the operative tailors considered that the sub-contract system was equivalent to the sweating system, since the sub-contractor took work from a shop or factory and paid his workpeople a low rate of wages, whilst "he lived himself out of the difference between what is "paid from the employer and what he pays to his "workpeople." One witness knew of cases in which the middleman paid only half or a quarter of the log prices to his workpeople. The representatives of the master tailors, whilst acknowledging that a good deal of the work done amongst clothiers was sweated, considered that the workpeople were unjust in calling all out-work sweating. Out-work was not necessarily badly paid, and the middleman did not intercept a larger portion of the earnings than would go as salary to a foreman if all the work were done on the employer's premises. The workshops to which work was given out were, moreover, often superior to the regular ones.(4)

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Variations in wages.

328. There were said to be local variations in wages in all these trades. In the hosiery trade much discontent prevailed on account of the different prices paid. Formerly the trade had a statement price which was maintained by the Board of Arbitration, and after the dissolution of this Board a list of prices was drawn up by mutual agreement. The employers, however, had not kept to them, and the list was now practically a dead letter.(5) With regard to the boot and shoe trade it was stated that the lowness of wages in the Bristol district compared with those in Leeds enabled the former district to compete successfully with the latter. On the other hand, wages in this trade are lower in Leeds than in Leicester, though this was said to be the result of a difference in the class of work. Lists of standard wages for different classes of workers have been drawn up by mutual agreement in several towns, in some cases, as in London and Northampton, in connexion with boards of conciliation and arbitration, and have been generally adhered to. A difficulty has arisen in Northampton in connexion with the manufacture of "lasting shoes." The uppers come from Germany ready made, and the shoes are made up in a very cheap form for export. "Lasting" work is included in the lowest class of the statement of wages, but the manufacturers state that this price is prohibitive of the manufacture, and that when the lists were compiled it was understood that there should be a special consideration of this material at an early date. As this had not been done the manufacture was actually carried on at prices 50 per cent. below those on the statement, and the manufacturers wished that a special class should be added to the statement to provide for this work. The workmen, however, would not agree

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 15. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 50. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 765. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 29, 30. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 5.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 50 and 51. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 13, 15, and 16. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 21, 26, and 28. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 28, 29, 31, and 32. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 51. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 30, 31, and 33. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 9, 10, 11. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 15.

[§ 328.] that this was necessary, and although the question had been referred to the board no decision had been come to when the evidence was given.(1) The London statement prices govern the wholesale home trade and the export trade. Two higher statements are also recognised in the better classes of trade, but the men who work under them are not subject to the Board of Arbitration. There had been a standard price list in Leeds before the Arbritation Board was broken up there.(2) The local variations in wages in the tailoring trade were said to be very great, as the rate per hour varies in different districts from 4½*d.* to 7*d.*, whilst there are also different time logs in different localities. The representatives of the master tailors stated that the adoption of a national uniform time log was one of the chief objects of their association, and that they had asked the operatives to assist them in drawing one up. The operatives had, however, refused to do so, and the master tailors believed that the reason of their refusal was that they did not wish to give up the various time logs to which they were accustomed in different districts. The operatives' representatives, on the other hand, asserted that they had for years tried to get a national time log, but could not get the masters to consent. They admitted that they had refused the proposal to assist the masters in drawing one up, but stated that their reason was that the masters had already practically fixed the terms of the log before consulting them. This was, however, denied by the employers. The men had in the meantime made a log of their own, which they had introduced with great difficulty into several towns, and with which the masters appeared satisfied. Two, or in some towns three, logs are recognised according to the class of work done, and it was stated that although wages did not vary greatly between different establishments of one class in the same district, there were wide differences between those in the first and second, and the second and third classes. A further cause of local variations in wages in the tailoring trade is said to be the different methods of classifying the materials; "what is a first-class material in one town " is reckoned as second-class in another, and third in another."(3)

Irregularity of employment.

329. All the clothing trades are, to some extent, seasonal, and wages in them therefore subject to fluctuations due to irregularity of employment. This is least the case in the hosiery trade, which is said to offer fairly regular employment, though "there is three months short work generally in the year." Both the tailoring and boot and shoe trades are greatly affected by seasonal causes and subject to slack times. This is said to be particularly the case in those towns which are engaged in a particular branch of the boot and shoe trade.(4)

Fines and other deductions.

330. Mr. Holmes, representing the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation, stated that fines for unpunctuality were sometimes levied in this industry, and also mentioned a custom of some employers who arranged with their workpeople to leave a certain portion of their wages upon the pay table. This form of indirect stoppage was adopted in order to avoid openly paying below the statement price, and when the union succeeded in getting it stopped wages were reduced. An employer at Fleckney was also said to take back so much a week for expenses, in lieu of the old frame rent which was rendered illegal by the Hosiery Act of 1874. At Hinkley the statement prices of Nottingham and Leicester were said to be paid, minus a percentage for the cost of carriage, but this had been agreed to by both parties with the consent of the union.(5) The Nottingham Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Society mentions stoppages for broken needles, varying from 3*d.* to 2*s.* a week, according to the machine and the quality of the yarn. The Hand Framework Knitters' Federation states that "there " are still middlemen stopping as much as 2*s.* a week " from the workmen for 'frame rent,' contrary to Act " of Parliament," and that there are also middlemen who pay their workmen in kind, chiefly in "bags of " flour, out of which the middleman gets a large " commission, and stops so much money weekly from " the workmen until the whole is paid."(6) In the boot and shoe trade it is stated that "grindery" or furnishings must be purchased by the workpeople from the employer, and that sometimes 5*s.* or 6*s.* for rivets is deducted from a rivetters' wages in a week. This is considered a grievance when the rivets are sold to the workpeople above the cost price. It was further stated that when finishers work in a factory they are charged 1*s.* a week for room, and for the gas used for heating their irons.(1) In the Leeds Rivetters' and Finishers' Statement of Wages, it was provided that " sitting room for finishers will be charged at the rate " of 1*s.* per week for men, and 9*d.* per week for boys " under 18." It was further laid down that "all " grindery is to be found by the workmen, which is " allowed for in the wages," and that "grindery is to " be sold at prices to be fixed by a Joint Committee " of the Manufacturers' and Workmen's Associa- " tions."(2) The operatives tested the legality of the stoppages for room and gas in Bristol, but the case was decided against them by the county court judge, who held that the custom of the trade overruled the provisions of the Truck Amendment Act. Mr. Bradlaugh stated at the time that this decision practically made the amended Truck Act of no avail.(3)

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Period of contract.

331. With regard to the period of contract a complaint was made by the representative of the National Union of Boot Clickers, that owing to the overplus of labour men are obliged to sign unequal contracts, as, for instance, that the workman must remain in his situation for a certain period, but that the master could dismiss him at a moment's notice. The witness recommended that it should be made illegal for a man to "contract himself out of being a weekly servant."(4)

(ii.) PROFIT SHARING AND CO-OPERATION.*

Profit-sharing.

332. Very few instances were given in the evidence of the existence in the industries under consideration of any system of profit-sharing, though opinion was, on the whole, favourable to such a system among the representatives of the various trades. The only important case mentioned was the firm of Thomson and Co., of Huddersfield,(5) the establishment of which was spoken of by a representative of the West Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers as "one of the best things that has occurred in this district."(6) The profit is credited to the operatives at the end of the year, and is kept till it amounts to the price of a share, *i.e.*, 1*l.* Eighty per cent. of the employés of the firm are shareholders, and the aggregate value of the shares they hold is about 600*l.* Three of the directors are workmen employed in the firm, and three are representatives of outside workmen. Mr. Thomson stated that though the system has been generally successful, it has during the last few years been possible to distribute only about 3*d.* for every 1*l.* of wages. He added that there is a much better chance at the present day than formerly of successfully conducting a system of profit-sharing, because "it requires rather a higher education " on the part of the workpeople to realise its value. " They want somehow or other to feel the importance " of being as it were, a part of the concern, and I " think it requires a little education to do that. You " would not have found that so generally ten years " ago."(7) Reference was also made to a bonus system in the cutting-out department of the firm of S. T. Midgley and Sons, Leeds.(8) With regard to the industries in which profit-sharing has not been attempted, the secretary of the Master Tailors' Association was of opinion that such a system would "tend " to settle the workman and to prevent many of the " arbitrary strikes" which now occur, but added that the Association "had not yet advanced to that point."(9) Mr. Thomson stated that it would be difficult to apply to trades which are subject to constant changes of taste and fashion.(10) Mr. Tyler said that it would be impossible in a piecework industry, such as the hosiery trade of Leicester,(11) and Mr. Judge considered it unsuited to the Leeds trade.(12) The majority of the Leeds manufacturers were men of small capital, "merely men of straw;" "to talk to such people about any system of profit-sharing would be impossible."(13) He added that the feeling of the Union would probably

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 25. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 21, 25, and 28, (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 31 and 32. Digest, Vol. III., p. 9. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 13, 17, 19, 20, 30, and 31. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. (6) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 50 and 51.

* It appeared advisable to deal with the subjects of profit sharing and co-operation at this stage, inasmuch as they are methods of industrial remuneration.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 20. (2) Document handed in by Mr. J. Judge. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 107. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 24, 112. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19, Gee, 4977. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30, Thomson, 7173-4. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 22, 25. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 33; Gordon, 15,400-1. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 17. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21 Judge, 12,098.

[§ 332.] be in favour of co-operation rather than profit-sharing. "The employer is, amongst a great number of working "men, a bogey, and they would rather have "co-operation without the bogey than with it."(1)

Co-operative production.

333. It appears from the evidence given in connexion with these industries that the majority of the representatives are in favour of a system of co-operative production. "The adoption and fully carrying out of "the true principle of co-operation (2) "was recommended in one case as the best means of avoiding "strikes; and several witnesses gave it as their opinion "that its establishment would remove or lessen all "labour troubles." (3) "It would produce a better "feeling between master and man, between capital "and labour. (4)" These views appear to be borne out by the actual experience of co-operation in the industries in question. Mr. Mitchell, of Dundee, stated that he "thinks it just, and that it will ultimately be general; "it would tend greatly to prevent waste both of material and labour, and would largely increase the "productive power of the country." (5) It was urged, moreover, that the effect of co-operation on the character of the men was good. Mr. Ballard stated that it "seemed to encourage a habit of thrift and temperance "among them," and that it "led them to take a deeper "interest in general subjects as affecting the working "classes especially." (6) "We consider it is making "our men better citizens . . . We believe these "productive societies are training our men so that "they will be able to deal with other questions in the "future, which they would not otherwise be able to "do."(7) On the other hand, various arguments were brought forward against the co-operative system. Mr. W. Mullin argued *à priori* that it "would create jealousy "among the workers, one would watch the other, and "the best results would not be obtained." (8) Mr. Rawlinson stated that the system was, at any rate, unsuitable to the cotton trade, on account of the absence of the mercantile qualities which are required in the buying and selling branch and the interference of the operatives in the management.(9) Mr. Salter urged further that it was unsuited to any trade subject to all the conditions of competition. "In respect to the co-"operative societies, they are affiliated with each other, "and thereby they do a trade which is positively secure "to them. They are not trading in an open market."(10) The experience of co-operative production appears from the evidence to be fairly extensive. Experiments of this nature have not been uniformly successful, but there are on the whole more instances of success than of failure.

(a.) Successful instances.

(*a.*) The most conspicuous instance of successful co-operative production is a society for the manufacture of boots and shoes, which was started at Kettering (11) in 1889 by 140 workmen. The amount of each share was 1*l.*, and each workman was bound to take up not less than five or more than twenty-five shares. The profits were divided between shareholders, workmen, and consumers; the workmen were paid at the current rate of wages in the trade, and obtained bonuses in addition. The society was independent of all others, but had been helped at the beginning by the Kettering General Co-operative Society, which took up a 25*l.* share. It encouraged all its men to belong to a union, because it had been found that unionists were the best workmen. It was stated that the relations of all classes interested in the concern were harmonious (12); that strikes had been entirely avoided; (13) and that the business of the society was extending (14). A similar society exists at Leicester (15) for the manufacture of boots and shoes. It began business in July 1887, with a capital of 200*l.*, and had from that time been uniformly prosperous. It was stated that the wages paid were higher than the district rate, and that the work is "the most regular of "any firms in the kingdom." (16) The bonus paid to workers had averaged 1s. 2*d.* in the £ on the amount of their earnings. All the adult male workers were members of the union; "yet the society has not cost "the union a penny during the whole time it has been "in existence."(17) It may be noted that in the case of both the Kettering and Leicester societies the sole customers are co-operative societies (1), and there is, therefore, very little competition. Mr. Ballard considered, however, that they "would be able to enter "into competition with the general trade so long as "they could be secure against bad debts." (2) Three co-operative societies have been started among tailors in Sheffield, Southport, and Nottingham (3) as the result of disputes with employers. The Sheffield society was "the parent one," and was stated to be "a great success." (4) The men employed were all unionists. The capital, which now amounted to 500*l.* or 600*l.*, was subscribed in 1*l.* shares; all the workmen were shareholders, and a good many shares were held by outsiders. The workmen were paid according to the regular log of the town, and received a bonus in addition to their wages. The profits were divided between labour, capital, and the consumer. The Southport society employs at present only five or six men, but was said to be "likely to be a success." (5) Reference was also made in the evidence to sucessful systems of co-operative production among the hosiers of Leicester (6) and the weavers of the Halifax, Huddersfield and Dewsbury districts. (7)

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(b.) Unsuccessful instances.

(*b.*) Several instances were given in the evidence of unsuccessful co-operation. In the cotton trade of Lancashire, as early as 1857, a co-operative mill was started in Burnley under the name of the "Harle Syke "Commercial Company." (8) The company built a shed, and worked 400 to 500 looms. It was not a commercial success, and came to an end in 1860. Mr. Rawlinson stated, however, that several of the most successful firms in Burnley sprang from it. "They "date their start from the breaking up of the com-"pany, and began the business on their own account "through the division of the machinery." (9) The Burnley Self-Help Cotton Spinning and Manufacturing Society, (10) which was started in 1886, ran from 500 to 600 looms, and possessed capital to the value of 4,880*l.* "The gentleman who went to them as manager in the "first instance proved to be a very successful man. "He had offers to begin business on his own account "... he left them ... After he left them "they got other managers, but none of them could "succeed in making a profit. The company looked "very like going to pieces ... They approached "their old manager, who was in business on his own "account, with a view of asking him to take charge of "the concern again ... He went back, and "turned what had been previously unsuccessful into a "success again." "A principle that depends for its "success, apparently (as in this case) upon the efforts "of one man cannot be said to be successful." (11) The Burnley Industrial Manufacturing Society (12) started in 1885 with a "competent manager," "new machinery," and "a very good class of workpeople, the best of the "class which we have, everything which, if the system "was sound, ought to have made it a success, but it "failed in about 18 months, losing half its capital." The "Whittlefield Self-Help Manufacturing Society" and the "Calder Vale Self-Help Society" (13) both failed. The failure of a co-operative boot factory at Northampton was attributed by Mr. Ballard to want of capital and experience of management. (14) One case was mentioned where the system proved a failure and was disliked by the operatives (15), and the African Mill Company stated that "what few instances there "are of co-operative production have been failures "and must be so in a trade where the profits are "so small ... as there is no room to turn "round." (16)

Co-operative distribution.

334. The experience of co-operative distribution appears, though the evidence on the subject is scanty, to be, on the whole, very successful. Mr. Mullin (17) stated that in Oldham co-operative stores are fairly supported, but not so much as might be expected, because the workmen are of opinion that they have a better choice by going to individual tradesmen. Both at Burnley (18) and at Halifax (19), however, they were stated to be "very successful." Mr. Beever considered that great advantages are gained from distributive co-operation, for provisions can thus be

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21; Judge, 12,107. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 683. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 23, 28; Inskip 16,086. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. xxxiv., 691. (4) Ballard, 14,476. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. xxxiv., 732. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 28. Ballard, 14,388, 14,389. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 28; Ballard, 14,435. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10; Mullin, 119. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23; Salter, 14,945. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 22; Appendix, 11, 26. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 22; Ballard, 14,382. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 22; Ballard, 14,536. (14) Ballard, 14,413. (15) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 23, 28. (16) Digest, Vol. II., p. 28; Inskip, 16,211. (17) Digest, Vol. II., p. 28; Inskip, 16,086.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 22, 28. (2) Ballard, 14,419. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 31; Keir, 14,742. (5) Keir, 14,742. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 14. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30; Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 359. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 15. (9) Rawlinson, 2,552. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 15. (11) Rawlinson, 2,624; Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 15. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (15) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 350. (16) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 723. (17) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (18) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (19) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30.

[§ 334.] obtained "pure" and cheaper than otherwise. (1) Numerous co-operative societies were mentioned as purchasing goods from the co-operative boot factories at Kettering and Leicester. (2) It may be noted, with regard to the Provident Societies Act, that Mr. Ballard considered that it would be a great advantage if the law were amended so as to admit of the funds of trade unions being invested in co-operative production. (3)

2. HOURS.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF HOURS.

TEXTILE. Ordinary hours in the textile trades.

335. Throughout the main branches of the textile trades the hours of ordinary work are returned by both employers and employed as 56 a week, or 56½ including an additional half-hour for cleaning. This uniformity is due to the fact that the majority of the workers in these industries are women, and their hours of labour are limited by the Factory Act.

Overtime.

336. On the part of the operatives, however, there are complaints of overtime being worked in contravention of the Act. In the cotton industry this takes the form of what is called "cribbing" time, *i.e.*, the habit of managers and overlookers of insisting upon the operatives beginning work a few minutes before the time fixed, and leaving off a few minutes later, by which some three or four hours' work may be added to the week's total, or according to the calculation of another witness it might amount to 15 or 20 minutes a day. This is especially a grievance for those operatives who are paid by the day and receive no extra payment for such overtime, whilst the piece workers receive their share of the extra production which results. (4) The employers considered that this complaint about cribbing time was much exaggerated, although they did not deny that the machinery did occasionally start a few minutes early and stop a few minutes late. Mr. Rawlinson, however, in an experience of 57 years, had only known of one case in which so much as 20 minutes' overtime was thus worked in a day, and stated that the fines inflicted under the Factory Act are usually for three, four, or five minutes. Mr. Allen Russell, a cotton manufacturer, stated, moreover, that when time was thus "cribbed" it was generally done by the managers without the consent of the employers. (5) According to Mr. Henderson, Superintending Inspector for Scotland and the North of England, the operatives of Lancashire might stamp out the system of cribbing time in three months if they chose, but it has been his experience that the inspectors receive no assistance from the work-people in proving a breach of the law of this nature. (6) The practice of cribbing time was said by Mr. Prior, Inspector for the Halifax and Huddersfield District, to be confined almost entirely to the cotton trade, and this evidence was confirmed by that of Mr. Yates, a worsted coating manufacturer, who expressed astonishment at hearing of the custom, which he did not think was ever known in the West Riding of Yorkshire (7). The operatives in the woollen and worsted industries, however, had complaints to make with regard to overtime, which they said was occasionally worked by women and children, in spite of the prohibition of the Factory Act, as much as two hours a day. The men are also employed overtime in case of pressure, sometimes to 8 or 9, or even 10 o'clock at night, but if the pressure lasts for more than a short time a separate set of men are generally employed on a night shift. (8) A worsted manufacturer at Leicester stated that overtime was not usual, but that during pressure "there are cases in which a spinner may, for "the convenience of his business, wish to run the "cards and the combs overtime, in which case he "would be obliged to put men on to do the work for a "few hours extra at night." Mr. Prior stated that the complaints with regard to overtime which reached him from the worsted trade generally referred to the machinery not being stopped "sharply for the half-"past 12 or the 1 o'clock for cleaning on Saturdays." There was said to be very little overtime worked in the silk, jute, and linen industries. (9)

(1) Beever, 9,904-6. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 22, 23. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 108; Ballard. 14,526-8. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 99 and 100. Digest, Vol. I., p. 11. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 15, 16. (6) Digest Vol. I., p. 37. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 22 and 37 (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31-33. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 10, 18. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 6774-5.

[§ 337.] Complaints with regard to length of hours in certain industries.

337. There are, however, certain industries connected with the textile trades which are confined chiefly or entirely to male labour, and are therefore not subject to the limitation of hours in the Factory Act, and in some of these the length and the irregularity of the hours is a serious grievance.

(a.) Willeyers and fettlers.

(*a.*) The class of operatives who appear to have the most to complain of in this respect are the willeyers and fettlers, especially those in the Leeds district. The average number of hours worked by them is said to be 66 a week, of which six hours are considered to be overtime, but without extra payment. In the busy season, however, one set of men has worked as much as 90 hours in the week, exclusive of meal times, in only four shifts. The hours are not fixed, and "when "a man goes to the mill in the morning he scarcely "knows what time he is going to give over at night." Men may be required to work all day, all night, and up to six o'clock the next day. "One firm has worked "now for over 20 years, with very short intermission "till nine o'clock at night, and 10 and 10.30." "It is "called the ordinary time when men are at work till "nine o'clock at night." The Leeds and District Willeyers and Fettlers' Union gives the following table of hours worked by one firm for 88 weeks consecutively, and adds that "the young men feeders and minders "average eight hours a week more" than those given in the table.

2	weeks	from	6.0 a.m.	to	7.0 p.m.
12	,,		6.0 ,,	,,	8.0 ,,
6	,,		6.0 ,,	,,	8.30 ,,
42	,,		6.0 ,,	,,	9.0 ,,
26	,,		5.0 ,,	,,	9.0 ,,

Moreover, the willeyers and fettlers have to take the place of women feeders at meal times, so that they may have to wait till four o'clock in the afternoon before they can get their own meals. Fettlers are also employed in cleaning the machinery on Sundays. (1)

(b.) Dyers.

(*b.*) The operatives employed in dyeing have also grievances with regard to long hours. In Leicester adult males engaged in this trade are said to work 59 hours a week, and the women and young persons 55 hours. In Halifax, however, it was stated that overtime is very common in the dye works; 70 and 80 hours a week are said to be the average working time, and instances have occurred in which men have worked 90 hours. The representatives of the "Bradford District Society of Dyers" stated that boys, as well as adults, are occasionally employed overtime in defiance of the law, and that some boys are now working until 10 or 11 p.m. They considered that overtime ought to be abolished in all cases, and that employment would thereby be made more regular. The Amalgamated Society of Dyers, Crabbers, Singers, and Finishers complains that the hours of work are "very irregular; "some weeks 20 hours, other weeks 80, or more," and believes that this irregularity is rendered unnecessarily great by the habit of keeping some part of the machinery idle whilst the rest is working overtime. "We have known 45 out of 99 men in one department "have to return home for the day without starting "work, the 54 remaining men working among them "564 hours, or an average of 16 hours per man." (2)

(c.) Wool combers.

(*c.*) The representatives of the Bradford and District Machine Wool Combers' Association stated that there were two distinct sets of workers in this industry engaged on day and night shifts. About 40 per cent. of those engaged on the day shift are females, and the regular factory hours are worked. At night only adult male labour is employed, and the hours are very long, lasting from 5.15 p.m. to 6 a.m. without a break, no meal times being allowed. Also in times of pressure, the men on the night shift are required to begin work on Saturday at 1 p.m. and to work until 10 or 11 p.m. that night, and to start again at 12 p.m. on Sunday night. (3)

(d.) Wool sorters.

(*d.*) The representative of the Bradford Wool Sorters' Association stated that it "has become the custom "now to work overtime amongst wool sorters," but that no night work is done by them. The overtime generally prevails after the great wool sales, and the men would like their employment to be more evenly distributed throughout the year, as they consider the alternation of overtime and idleness is quite unnecessary.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 9, 10. Answers to Schedules of Questions p. 106. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 108 and 183. Digest, Vol. I., pp. 26, 30. Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 5848-52, 5878-91.

337 (d.)] Mr. G. P. Arnold Foster, however, stated that it would be very difficult to avoid irregularity in the work of wool sorters, as an employer cannot buy wool all the year round.(1)

CLOTHING.

Hours of labour in the clothing trades.

338. In the three branches of the clothing trades, with regard to which most information has been obtained, viz., the hosiery, boot and shoe, and tailoring trades, the hours of work tend to become shorter and more regular than was formerly the case, this change being due chiefly to the gradual removal of the workers from their own homes and workshops into factories or workshops owned by, and under the control of, the employers.

Hours in the Hosiery trade.

339. The introduction of machinery worked by steam-power has almost entirely transformed the hosiery trade from a domestic to a factory industry; and as the majority of the operatives are females their hours are limited by the Factory Act. In some cases the hours worked are even less than those prescribed by the Act. Thus, Mr. Tyler, a hosiery manufacturer at Leicester, stated that the hours were nominally the factory hours, but really about 54 a week, and the Leicester and Leicestershire Hosiery Union states that they have been "reduced to eight hours." There are, however, several complaints from the operatives with regard to the amount of overtime which is worked, and which the Rotary Power Frame Work Knitters' Society considers "the greatest curse in the trade; no extra pay for it." The witnesses representing the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation stated that overtime was frequently worked, and one witness had known cases in which women worked for 15 hours a day for three months in succession. Night work was also said to be prevalent, especially at Sutton, Mansfield, and Ilkeston. The members of this society consider that the overtime worked is unnecessary and tends to increase the irregularity of the trade. Mr. Tyler, however, stated that as the trade is a seasonal one it is necessary to work overtime during the busy season, and that at Leicester for a month or two in the year the men worked 15 hours a day with the sanction of the union. The men themselves preferred working overtime to adopting the double-shift system, as night work on fine gauge machinery is bad for the eyesight, and the machines suffer from being handled by two different workers. The members of the Hand Frame-Work Knitters' Federation still carry on their work in small or domestic workshops, and are said to have "no "standard hours; the men will work 10, 12, or from "14 to 16 hours a day according to the urgency of the "work."(2).

Hours in the Boot and Shoe trade.

340. The representatives of the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives stated that as the factory system now prevailed the hours of labour were uniform in some branches throughout the trade, but as the Workshops Act only applied to women and young persons, the hours of rivetters and finishers, who could work without their assistance, were not limited by law. The union has, however, succeeded in obtaining a 54 hours' week for clickers and machinists, and is endeavouring to extend it to rivetters and finishers. The hours worked in some districts appear to be still less. Thus, the average hours worked by different classes of workmen in 10 representative Leeds firms, as found by the accountant who had examined their books on behalf of the Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association, were for rivetters 50½ hours a week, and for clickers, finishers, and machinists, 53 hours. Another manufacturer stated that his factory at Leeds worked 52½ hours, whilst one owned by him at Pudsey worked 56 hours, and that the shorter time in Leeds was adopted partly because people in towns did not rise quite so early as they did in the country. Two shoe manufacturers at Stafford gave the hours of their work-people as 52½ and about 50 respectively. The average hours for clickers in London were given by Mr. Green as 54 in English firms and 48 in Jewish firms, but the London Society of Clickers and Rough Stuff Cutters quotes the hours for English and Jewish firms as 56 and 51 respectively. Overtime is said to be frequently worked, as the trade is a seasonal one, and Mr. Green considered that the overtime might be better regulated than is the case. The National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives is also said to disapprove of overtime and to be in favour of some arrangement between masters and workmen which would regulate work and make it steady throughout the year. They acknowledge, however, that the nature of the trade places several difficulties in the way of such an arrangement. Complaints are made both in London and in Leeds of the long hours worked by the foreign Jews who have recently entered the trade, especially in the slipper-making branch(1). [§ 340.]

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 24, 27. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 49, 50, 51. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 13, 15, 16.

Hours in the Tailoring trade.

341. In the tailoring trade there is no uniformity in the hours at present, although the men's unions are endeavouring to secure it, but different hours are customary in various districts. Thus the Amalgamated Society of Tailors states that the hours "vary in different districts from 9 to 16 hours per day," and Mr. Keir, who represented this society, stated that no regular system of hours obtained. In the North of England a nine hours' day is general, but in London, Manchester, Birmingham, Dublin, and other large centres there are no fixed hours. The trade is seasonal, and as piece-work prevails, a man's hours last as long as the garment upon which he is engaged. In summer men may have to work 12 or 14 hours a day. Several of the employers state that the length of the hours is left entirely to the men. Thus, Messrs. Morris and Davis, tailors at Reading, state that their men "work as much "or little as they please; the workshop is open to "them from 2 a.m. to any hour they desire up to "10 p.m," and Messrs. H. Verity and Sons, tailors at Manchester, state that their rules are for work to continue "from 6 a.m. to 7 p.m. with two hours off for "meal-times in summer, and from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m., "with same meal-times, in winter; but the men come "in when they have a mind to, viz., 8, 8.30, and "9 o'clock in the morning." The International Tailors, Machinists, and Pressers' Union gives the hours recognised by it as from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m., with one and a half hours off; and the London Clothiers' Cutters' Union states that the hours for its members are 48 a week.(2) The following table of the hours worked by tailors in nine towns in Scotland is taken from a table of hours and wages in various districts in Scotland compiled by the Scottish National Operative Tailors' Society from the returns of its branches, published in the Board of Trade Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891:—

TABLE showing the NUMBER of MEN in the TRADE in the DISTRICT, the WEEKLY HOURS of LABOUR, and PARTICULARS of the OVERTIME WORKED, taken from a table compiled by the Scottish National Operative Tailors' Society.

(Arranged in ascending order of hours.)

District.	Estimated Number of Men.	Weekly Hours of Labour.	Overtime, if worked, and to what extent.
Aberdeen	350	57	Partially observed.
Dumfries	95	57	Very little: 9 or 10 hours per week in summer in some shops.
Hawick	50	57	A good deal in non-union shops.
Kirkcaldy	55	57	Not worked.
Perth	100	57	—
Stirling	110	57	—
Airdrie	59	60	To a great extent in busy season.
Ayr	85	60	When required.
Dundee	455	63	In busy season.

With regard to the question of overtime, Mr. Allen, representing the Master Tailors' Association, stated that this was unavoidable in a seasonal trade, and that the men are themselves glad to be able to make up the time lost during slack periods of trade.(3)

Recent reduction in the hours of labour.

342. It has been already pointed out that the change which has recently taken place in these industries from domestic trades to those carried on in workshops or factories has been accompanied by a gradual diminution in the hours of labour, and this statement appears to be verified by the following table, showing the

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 23, 24, 25, 26. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 48, 397. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 51, 52, 399, 401. Digest, Vol. II., p. 30. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 30.

[§ 342.] average weekly hours of labour in the clothing trades during the years 1850, 1860, 1870, 1880, and 1890:—

TABLE showing MEAN of RETURNS of WEEKLY HOURS obtained from Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890.

Class of Work.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Tailoring, England	68·11	61·31	60·64	57·54	56·58
Tailoring, Scotland	66·00	63·2	57·16	56·85	54·66
Boot and shoe making	66·00	59·46	56·07	54·78	54·48
Hosiery	62·75	59·25	58·33	55·83	55·83

It must be noticed in connexion with this table that the domestic character of the industries during the earlier years rendered it difficult to estimate the length of the hours worked, and that the averages for the years 1850 and 1860 are therefore obtained from a very much smaller number of returns than is the case in the last two decades. It must also be pointed out that the large majority of these returns are from employers, and that the hours given in the returns from trade unions are, as a rule, above the average which has been obtained.

(ii.) LIMITATION OF HOURS BY LAW.

"The Eight Hours' Day."

Arguments in favour of eight hours' day. (*a.*) *Non-economic.*

343. (*a.*) In the clothing and textile trades very little stress was laid upon non-economic arguments in favour of an eight hours' day, although it was taken for granted by many of the opponents of such limitation in hours that it would in itself be desirable apart from the attendant economic disadvantages. It was, however, suggested by some of the operatives that "eight hours "out of 24 is sufficient for any man to toil," (1) and that an eight hours' day "would be the means of "keeping up a better physical state of the workers." (2) The employers also admitted that the reduction of hours in the past had led to an improved moral and intellectual condition of the workers, who had, it was stated, made good use of their leisure. (3)

(*b.*) *Economic.* (i.) *That it would tend to absorb the unemployed.*

(*b.*) The principal argument brought forward by the advocates of an eight hours' day is that the restriction of the hours of labour, and, consequently, of the output of the workers already employed, would lead to a demand for additional workers, and hence to the employment of what is at present surplus labour. Thus the representative of the Brechin Factory Workers' Union believed that the ultimate effect of a legislative eight hours' day would be to raise wages, because a large amount of surplus labour would be taken up, and he knew of no more potent factor to raise wages than the dearth of labour. This witness regarded the provision of work for the unemployed as a sufficient reason for passing an Eight Hours' Act, irrespective of any further consequences attaching to it:—"I consider that every man has a right to earn a "living, if possible, and by any means, by shortening "the hours of labour, or anything else, and that if we "can devise some means whereby that man will earn a "living which he cannot otherwise, then I think we "ought to adopt that scheme, whatever it is." (4) This same object, of employing surplus labour, was put forward by the representatives of the Leeds Willeyers and Fettlers' Union, the Bradford and District Power Loom Overlookers' Society, the National Union of Boot Clickers, and the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation. Mr. Bower, a member of the last-named society, believed that the curtailment of the hours would reduce the number of paupers, and consequently lower the rates, and that this would counterbalance any economic loss involved. (5) Some witnesses were asked to explain whether they would advocate a further reduction of hours, if in the course of a few years "fresh crops of unemployed" had arisen, but they declined to give any very decided opinion on this point, although they considered that it might then be advisable to reduce the hours from eight to seven or even six. It would, however, be better to try the effect of the eight hours' day first, "and then they would see." (6) Another argument brought forward in advocacy of a reduction in hours is in direct opposition to that given above. This is the statement made on behalf of the jute workers in Dundee and the hosiery workers, that the output of those now employed would not be diminished if they worked a shorter day. (1) The representative of the Brechin Factory Workers' Union also stated that he believed the production of the workers would not be reduced in proportion to the reduction in hours, although it would suffer some diminution. (2) Several witnesses expressed a conviction that shorter hours would not involve lower wages, or that such a result would be temporary only. This opinion was, however, said in some cases to be founded upon past experience, when reduction in hours had not been attended by any reduction in wages, and not upon a consideration of present economic conditions. (3) One witness believed that any increase in the cost of production might be avoided because "all the inventive genius has not yet "been expended upon machinery," but that if this were not the case the increased cost would not fall upon the workpeople (4). Several witnesses also stated that they had no fear of being placed at a disadvantage with regard to foreign competition, and others that they were prepared to risk any danger that there might be in this direction. Two witnesses believed that other countries would soon follow if England took the lead in introducing the eight hours' day, but others, again, were prepared to support the movement in England irrespective of the action taken in other countries. (5) The president of the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation thought it would be better to have an international understanding and international reduction of the hours, but was certain from his own observation of workmen abroad and at home, that Englishmen would be able to maintain their own whilst working less hours than they do in France or Belgium. (6)

[§ 343 (*b.*)] (ii.) *That the output would not be diminished.* (iii.) *That the rate of wages would not be reduced.* (iv.) *That there is no fear of foreign competition.*

344. To sum up briefly, therefore, the arguments in favour of an eight hours' day are as follows:—(1) That a restriction of hours, whilst likely to conduce to the physical and moral welfare of those employed, is especially desirable for the purpose of providing work for the unemployed, although, on the other hand, other advocates assert that the output of the present workers will not be decreased; (2) that it will not reduce wages nor cause trade to suffer from foreign competition, because any increase of cost of production may be avoided by improvements in machinery or the improved efficiency of the workers, or at any rate will not fall upon wages, since it has not done so in the past; and (3) that even if these dangers were incurred, they must be risked, on the ground that reduced hours would mean "the greatest good of the greatest number."

Summary of arguments in favour of an eight hours' day.

345. (*a.*) It has already been stated that the majority of the witnesses appeared to consider a shorter working day desirable from a non-economic standpoint. One employer, however, stated that there was no need for a reduction of hours on the ground of physical exhaustion in the textile trades, since the introduction of so much machinery had made the work very light, and that he did not think further leisure would conduce to the moral welfare of the operatives.(7)

Argument against an eight hours' day.* (*a.*) *Non-economic.*

(*b.*) All the opponents of an eight hours' day agreed in stating that a reduction of hours must increase the cost of production. For, in the first place, the efficiency of the workers cannot be increased. In worsted spinning three-fourths of the women are employed on piece-work, and are therefore working already at the greatest speed possible for them; no time is lost between taking off one piece of work and putting on another, and it would be impossible to get more out of the machinery in the same number of hours than is obtained at present.(8) In the jute trade also it was said that the output within a given time could not be increased, "it goes by clockwork, and "if there is a quarter of an hour of a stoppage there is a "quarter of an hour loss at the end of the week exactly, "it can never be made up." It was further pointed out that there are standing charges in the jute industry that cannot be reduced when the hours are reduced, so that a reduction of hours from 56 to 48 a week would involve a loss of 275,000*l.* to the trade per annum, which must fall either upon wages or upon profits.(9). The witnesses who represented the operatives in the cotton

(*b.*) *Economic.* (i.) *That the cost of production would be increased.*

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 77. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7679-85, 7880-82. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 75. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 76. (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 74. 77.

* It may be noted that the recent change of attitude among the operatives in the Lancashire textile industry with regard to the adoption of a legal eight hours' day has taken place since their evidence was given before the Commission.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. Digest, Vol. II., p. 76. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 75. (3) Digest I., p. 56. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 75, 76, 77. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 75, 77. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 76 (7) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 7883-65, 7883-86. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 76. (9) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 10,929-10,940.

[§ 345 (b.)]

That it ld not be ported iew of eign com- ition.

trade also asserted that shorter hours would mean an increased cost of production, which could not be compensated for by improved machinery or methods of work.(1) It was further stated that owing to the severity of foreign competition, the English textile and hosiery trades would not be able to stand this increased cost of production. The cotton industry is especially exposed to competition from India, and an advance of one-fifth in the price of cotton goods would probably mean a stoppage of the trade to India, China, and Japan.(2) On the other hand, the operatives are aware that the margin of profit left to the employers by the present conditions of the trade will not bear further reduction.(3) Statistics were quoted to show how great the competition of other countries with Great Britain is in the jute industry. Whilst the United Kingdom had in the year 1841 a practical monopoly of this industry, at the present time it manufactures only about one-third of the total production. During the last 20 years the consumption of the raw material in Great Britain has increased only 72 per cent., whilst that of the continent has increased 556 per cent., that of America 200 per cent., and that of India 550 per cent. An increase in the cost of production would therefore ruin the trade, and the manufacturers would probably remove their works to India.(4) In the worsted trade manufacturers are already severely handicapped by the longer hours worked and the tariffs imposed by foreign nations, and the trade would pass over to Germany if the hours were reduced in England.(5) Germany is also the chief competitor of England in the hosiery trade, and any reduction of hours which was not accompanied by a similar change in Germany would prove very injurious to the English trade.(6) Another objection to a legal restriction of hours was brought forward by the representatives of the clothing trades. These trades are all seasonal in character, and cannot therefore work a uniform number of hours throughout the year. If the working hours were restricted to eight, this would debar the workers from making up in the busy season for time lost during slack periods, and would necessitate the employment of temporary hands during part of the year, which would add to the irregularity of employment.(7)

.) Diffi- ty of sonal des.

346. The arguments against an eight hours' day are therefore briefly:—(1) that a further reduction of hours is not necessary for the physical and moral wellbeing of the workers; (2) that it would inevitably increase the cost of production, and so render English manufacturers unable to compete successfully with their foreign rivals; and (3) that an arbitrary limitation of hours is inapplicable to trades which are subject to alternating busy and slack periods.

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347. Opinions in favour of an eight hours' day have been expressed by the operatives in the Dundee jute trade, the Forfar linen trade, the hosiery trade, the boot and shoe trade, some branches of the woollen and worsted industries, the carpet weaving trade, and a minority of the operatives in the cotton industry, and also by the President of the Leeds Chamber of Commerce. The methods by which they wish shorter hours to be adopted are not always stated, but when stated they fall into three different classes.

thods of pting an ht hours' .

) Legis- ive. Uni- sal and mpulsory.

(a.) The majority of the witnesses are in favour of the restriction of the hours by legislation, which is to be compulsory upon all trades alike. An Act should be passed placing the maximum limit of hours at 48 a week, though men should not be compelled to work up to this limit, and this restriction should be imposed even in cases where a large body of workers after due and careful consideration are convinced that it would be injurious to their trade. It would be necessary to enforce obedience by the infliction of a fine or other penalty upon those who violated the Act, both parties to an infringement, the employer and the employed, being subject to the punishment. One witness expressed a belief, however, that such infringements would not often occur, as when once the law was passed men would conform to it as readily as to other laws.(8) It was admitted that it might be necessary to insert clauses providing for longer hours of work in exceptional cases. The trades which thus advocate a universal and compulsory limitation of hours are, as a rule, those in which the number of workers is comparatively small or their organisation weak; and the reasons brought forward in support of it are that small societies could not effect such a change by their own strength, that the trade unions have as much as they can do in looking after wages, without arranging hours,(1) and that "legal enactments prevent driving back to the old conditions" as sometimes happens after the award of a board of arbitration.(2) The President of the Bradford Power Loom Overlookers' Society advocated an international agreement to reduce the hours of labour in the textile trades, on the ground that the workers in these trades were chiefly women, and therefore badly organised and unable to effect a reduction of the hours for themselves.(3) Only one witness advocated a legal eight hours' day, subject to trade option. This was a member of the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation, who considered that an Act should be passed giving the majority of the operatives in each trade power to decide for or against the adoption of an eight hours' day. In whatever trade it was thus adopted, the Eight Hours Act would become binding upon both employers and employed.(4)

[§ 347 (a.)]

(ii.) *Subject to trade option.*

(b.) Four other witnesses were in favour of a reduction of hours, but not of legislative interference in the matter, which they considered should be arranged by mutual agreement between the employers and the employed. As trade unions have been successful in the past in effecting a considerable reduction in the hours of labour, they believed that the question might be left in their hands for the future,(5) and they urged that in each trade the operatives should seek by combination to procure the limitation of the hours to eight, or to such other length as would best suit the requirements of that trade.(6)

(b.) *Voluntary, by mutual agreement.*

3. STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT.

Complaints with regard to State and Municipal employment.

348. Very little information is contained in the evidence on the subject of State and municipal employment. In the answers to the schedules of questions issued to associations of employés, complaints were made by the International Tailors', Machinists, and Pressers' Union (London and Provinces), and by the Clothiers' Cutters' Union (London) to the effect that Government employés were paid lower wages, and in one instance worked longer hours than those employed by private firms.(7) With regard to Government contracts, all persons who tender for them in the hosiery and boot and shoe industries must, it was stated, guarantee the payment of the "current" rate of wages. This rule appears in some instances to be broken, and evasion is also to some extent made possible, because the term "current rate" is not sufficiently definite.(8) Under this rule Government contracts may be executed in the lowest paying districts, and it was asserted that the contracts in the hosiery trade had by this means resulted in the reduction of the prices paid for all other classes of work.(9) This latter statement, made by Mr. Holmes, President of the Midland Counties' Hosiery Federation, was corroborated by the Leicester and Leicestershire Hosiery Union; "Government "orders given out . . . are made on competitive "terms of such a nature that employers cannot make "it pay them by working it honestly. Have to put "common yarn in, make them on different machines, "and employ boy or girl labour. The result is that "instead of the Government work being any good to "the town or country, it is an evil, for all other classes "of work are reduced in price through the same. "Tenders should not be accepted from firms who "tender so low that they have to take the loss from "work-people's wages." A similar statement was furnished by the Nottingham Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Society, who added that "nearly all the "Government orders for hosiery go to the firms who "pay less than the statement price to their work-"people." Mr. Holmes even went so far as to say that Government contracts "instead of being a blessing to "the men were a curse."(10)

4. INSPECTION AND REGULATION OF FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

Present condition of the law with regard to inspection and regulation.

349. In the report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the year ending October 1892, Mr. Whymper states that "the principal objects of the "Factory and Workshop Act of 1891 are to render the "inspection of workshops more efficient, especially as "regards sanitation, and in factories to provide for a

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 55. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1146-53. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 55. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56, Digest, Vol. II., p. 76. (6) Digest, Vol. II. p. 76. (7) Digest, II., pp. 76, 77, 83. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 75, 77.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 75. (2) Digest, I., p. 56. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 74. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 76. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 56. (6) Digest Vol. II., p. 77. (7) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. xvi (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 14, 15, 27. (9) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 14, 15. (10) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions addressed to Trade Unions, pp. xvi., xvii. Digest, Vol. II., p. 14.

[§ 349.] "more thorough protection of machinery. It is "attempted to reach these ends," Mr. Whymper continues, "by two means in particular. The one hands over "to the local authorities the sanitary charge of those "workshops in which it was hitherto undertaken by the "factory inspector. By the other means, the Secretary "of State is enabled to make special rules, as regards "both sanitation and danger, to be administered by "factory inspectors, and to apply in any factory or work-"shop where he may certify them to be necessary."(1) The manner in which the transfer of the sanitary supervision of workshops to the local authorities, and the regulations in the Act which refer to questions of safety and other conditions of employment, have been already dealt with in the summary of the evidence given in connexion with the iron, engineering, shipbuilding and cognate trades.(2) With regard to the other clauses of the Act of 1891, Mr. Whymper adds that, "except in two matters (they are) devoted to such "minor changes as experience has suggested. The "two matters alluded to are the raising of the com-"mencing age from 10 to 11 years from 1893, and the "prohibition of work by women for four weeks after "child birth."(3)

Proposed amendments in the existing law.

350. Frequent complaints were made by the witnesses with regard to those amendments in the principal Act by which the responsibility of the administration of the clauses which refer to sanitation is divided between the government and the local sanitary authorities, and by which the inspectors have no power to order structural alterations. Mr. Watson and Mr. Sutcliffe, representatives of the Bradford Managers' and Overlookers' Society, held that the inspector ought "in every "department . . . to be armed with power to "enforce his orders";(4) Mr. James Reid stated that "in the matter of sanitation, the inspector should "possess stronger powers."(5) "Between the two laws," said Mr. Keir, general secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, "between the Sanitary Acts "and the Factories and Workshops Acts, the whole "thing is left alone. It is left to the discretion of the "employer, and so long as he can get men to work in "unhealthy and low-rented places, he is quite satisfied "to get his work done there . . . There are "many generous minded employers who like to see "their workmen in comfortable workshops, but, "unfortunately, it is a fact that there are some who "do not, and the Sanitary Acts and the Factories and "Workshops Acts are not able to cope with those."(6) Statements to a similar effect were made by other witnesses.(7) With regard to the evidence given on this point by the inspectors themselves, Mr. Prior stated that in his opinion the working of this section of the new Act was "doubtful," especially "as far as the "country districts . . . are concerned"(8), and Mr. Beaumont, added "I do not know how it will work."(9) "I do not think we are much nearer the solution of the question," was the opinion expressed by Mr. Bignold. "Up to 1872 . . . the Workshops "Regulations Act was entirely in the hands of the "local authorities . . . They did nothing, and "it was carried over to the factory inspectors . . . "Now, at the end of another 18 years, it is handed "back again to the local authorities to do as they like, "and if they do not do it, we are to keep them in "check in some way, I do not quite understand how."(10) The Act of 1891 came into force at the beginning of the year 1892, and, to judge from the reports of the inspectors for that year, appears to have proved not altogether satisfactory on this point. Mr. Cramp, Her Majesty's Superintending Inspector of Factories, states that "the handing over of the sanitary supervision of "workshops to local authorities has, so far, increased "the work of factory and workshop inspection rather "than decreased it. In a few towns, such as Birming-"ham and Nottingham, the work has been undertaken "by the city councils and officers appointed to visit "the workshops, but in the vast majority of towns and "villages nothing has been done by the local autho-"rities." And Mr. Hine asserted that "with the "exception of Leeds and one or two small places, he "had as yet found no signs of any action having been "taken at all." "In more than one instance," he added, "have I been told by the medical officer of health "... that they have drawn their sanitary com-[§ 350. "mittee's attention to the new Act, but have received "no instructions to put it into operation."(1)

Present condition with regard to sanitation in spite of the law.

351. Nevertheless, in certain districts in the textile and clothing industries, the complaints with regard to the sanitary condition of the factories and small workshops pointed to the need of some rigid system of inspection, and, in some cases the witnesses themselves claim that the remedy lies partly in granting the factory inspectors power to enforce sanitary improvements. No complaint was made with regard to sanitation in the textile industry in Lancashire by the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association in the textile industry, Dundee, except by the Secretary of the Tenters' Association, in the hosiery factories in Leeds and Leicester, nor in the spinning departments in the district of Bradford.(2) The inspectors themselves stated that great improvements had taken place in the sanitary condition of factories, but acknowledged that grave cause for complaint exists in many of the older factories which could only be remedied by structural alterations which they have no power to enforce.(3) Thus, Mr. Beever, President of the Halifax Trade and Labour Council, stated that "a good many" of the old corn mills in his district "are very low rooms" and contain no facilities for getting rid of the dust. "In "18 months, betwixt 1890 and 1891, there were several "fatal cases of chest disease."(4) Complaints with regard to the sanitary conditions were also urged by the representatives of the Bradford Wool Combers and Warp Dressers, the dyers from Bradford and Halifax, the tenters from Dundee, the willeyers and fettlers from Leeds, and the Forfar factory workers.(5) With regard to the boot clickers in London, Mr. Green stated that the sanitary condition of the workshops in which most of the clickers were engaged is "very bad indeed." The employers in London, this witness explained, are mostly "small employers" who have no "proper factories," and start work in their own houses. In some cases, the state of the sanitary arrangements is "something deplorable." The inspectors, Mr. Green urged, "do not do their duty." It may be noted, however, that no complaint on this ground has ever been made to them.(6) Similar complaints with regard to sanitation were brought forward by the general secretaries of the Boot and Shoe Operatives' Union and the Amalgamated Society of Tailors.(7) "The men," Mr. Inskip stated, "are put in cellars where no day-"light penetrates, and in sheds not fit for horses or "dogs,"(8) and Mr. Keir asserted that "our men are "compelled . . . to live under conditions that are "really not, in many cases, fit for human beings to live "in.(9) On the whole, the witnesses appear to regard this state of things as mainly due to insufficient inspection, but Mr. Keir considered that it was largely owing to the difficulties involved in the joint working of the Sanitary Acts and the Factory and Workshop Acts.(10)

Condition of employment under the Act of young persons and children.

352. The chief complaints, however, urged in connexion with these Acts had reference to the sections which dealt with the conditions of employment of young persons and children. Under section 96 of the Act of 1878, an operative ceases to be a child at the age of 14, and becomes a "young person," and, under section 26 of the same Act, children between the ages of 13 and 14 may be employed full time" as "young persons" on passing the educational standard, fixed by the Home Secretary, with the consent of the Educational Department. This standard is the fourth for England and Wales and the fifth for Scotland. The employment of children under 10 years of age was altogether prohibited in a factory or workshop by the Act of 1878, and the amended Act of 1891, as before stated, has raised the age to 11. The Scotch Education Act requires in addition that all candidates for employment should have passed the third standard, but the English Education Acts leave the standard to be fixed by the bye-laws in the various districts. The hours of employment for women and young persons are 12 on five days of the week, minus two hours on each day for meals. On Saturday the hours are seven and a half, minus one hour for meal times, or six and a half, if less than one hour is granted for refreshment. The net working hours are therefore 56½ a week. A relaxation

(1) Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, October, 1892, p. 1. (2) Summary, Group A., Part II., pp. 110–112. (3) Report of Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, October, 1892, p. 1. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 62. Watson and Sutcliffe, 10,382. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 62; Reid, 11,218. (6) Digest Vol. II., p. 99; Keir, 14,669. (7) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 62–3. Vol. II., pp. 99–100. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 62; Prior, 6903, 6891. (9) Beaumont, 9246. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 62; Bignold, 10,186–8.

(1) Report of Chief Inspectors of Factories and Workshops, October 1892, pp. 5, 6. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 19, 28 32; Vol. II., pp. 17, 18. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 38. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 30; Beever, 9871. (5) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 24, 25, 26, 29, 30, 33; Vol. II., pp. 8, 10, 11, *cf.* Digest, Vol. I., pp. 27, 28, 37. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 24; Green, 15,071–9. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 27, 30. (8) Inskip, 16,004. (9) Keir, 14,669. (10) See *infra*, pages 247–248.

[§ 352.] of the law in respect of overtime is granted, subject to certain conditions laid down in section 66 of the Act of 1878.

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353. It was urged with reference to these clauses that the fourth standard is not sufficiently high as a qualification in England and Wales for "full-time" employment between the ages of 13 and 14;(1) "that the Factory Act might be so altered that it would allow" women, with the permission of the inspector, to be engaged overtime at light work "where machinery was not employed";(2) and that overtime for girls between the ages of 13 and 14 should be abolished.(3)

Half-time" stem.

354. But the main criticism in connexion with these clauses was directed to the general question of the employment of half-timers. In Lancashire, 89,234 children; in Yorkshire, 47,775; in Cheshire, 9,639; and in the rest of England and Wales, 24,038 are employed as half-timers, some under the Factory, some under the Education Acts.(4) In fact, about two out of every three children over 10 years of age in Lancashire, in Yorkshire, Cheshire, and Leicestershire, one out of every four; in Staffordshire, one out of every 14, and in the rest of England and Wales, about one out of every 31 are half-timers. "Practically," Mr. Waddington stated, "our upper standards are composed of about "60 per cent. of half-timers, even in the very best "schools, except in the higher grade schools.(5)

.) Argu- ents ainst.

(*a.*) Witnesses from the West Riding of Yorkshire, Bradford, Halifax, Forfar, and Brechin, and from the National Union of Teachers were opposed to the half-time system, and desired the age to be raised to 12 or higher. Messrs. Turner and Drew, representatives of the West Riding of Yorkshire Weavers' Association, Mr. Bean, representative of the Brechin Factory Workers' Union, and Messrs. Waddington and Jones, members of the National Union of Teachers, claimed that the half-time system exercises a bad influence over the children, physically, mentally, and morally. From an educational point of view, Mr. Waddington stated that the "parent being very "desirous to get the child to work, puts all possible "energy into the child up to the passing of the standard "..... and as soon as they have passed they come to "us and ask us not to give them any lessons at all. "..... The education of the whole school," he added, "suffers through the presence of the half-timer," for "all our curriculum has to be so arranged as to suit" his convenience. Section 12 of the Act of 1878 enacts that half-timers shall be employed either during the morning of one week and during the afternoon of the next, or on alternative days. Consequently, Mr. Jones stated, "we have children attending school in five "different ways, mornings and afternoons, alternate "weeks; some come every morning, some come every "afternoon, some come alternate days, two days one "week and three days the other, and some come "spasmodically. We cannot possibly make a time-"table that will fit" all these cases.(6) But apart from the difficulty of arranging the school work for half-timers, these witnesses were of opinion that the children at work in the factories are physically unfit for school. "When children have been working in the morning," added Mr. Waddington, "we find very "often they are drowsy, very sleepy, their receptive "power is impaired." Moreover, some of the work performed by children tends to immorality, and children employed as half-timers, it was said, "give up the "childlike ways of a child too early." That the system is necessary owing either to the poverty of the parents or the interests of the trade was regarded by some witnesses as doubtful. "I find in my own school," Mr. Waddington asserted, "that the poorer parents are "not the persons who send their children to work, and "it is not only my own experience, but the experience "of the teachers in the half-time districts that poverty "and half time have very little connexion." Mr. Bean was also of opinion that the abolition of the half-time system would not prove "hard on the parents." "I consider," he observed, "that the half-time system has "caused to a great extent the low wages of adults." Neither Mr. Waddington nor Mr. Noble attached any importance to the argument based on the necessity of commencing the training of the children at a very early age.(7)

.) Argu- ents in vour of.

(*b.*) On the other hand, a large number of witnesses, including Mr. Beaumont, inspector of woollen and worsted trades at Bradford, and Mr. Osborn, inspector of cotton cloth factories, were strongly in favour of the half-time system, and Mr. Beaumont, Mr. Osborn, Rev. H. Williamson, and others doubted the necessity of raising the age to 11. The main reasons urged in support of this position are that the family earnings need to be increased by those of the children; that the children themselves become more skilled by beginning work at an early age, and that, if half-times were excluded, it would be oftener necessary for the mothers to work in the factories. With regard to the effect of the system upon the children themselves, Mr. Osborn was of opinion that the combination of work and schooling produced good effects, and the Rev. H. Williamson added, "I am convinced that a large "number of children in Dundee will suffer more "through being kept from working half-time at that "age than they would by entering the mills."(1)

[§ 354 (*b.*)]

Certain other pro- posed amend- ments in connexion with the Act.

355. The other amendments to which reference was made in the evidence given in connexion with the Factory and Workshops Act related mainly to the questions of sanitation, safety, and accidents, medical certificates of fitness, domestic workshops, the employment of women, and the desirability of extending the Acts. With regard to sanitation, Mr. Hatton desired that it should be made compulsory upon each employer to see that damaged and diseased wool does not come into the hands of the wool sorter,(2) Mr. Bannister proposed that women should not be employed in "willeying" on account of the dangerous character of the occupation,(3) and Mr. Bignold was of opinion that the exact cubic space for each worker should have been laid down in the Act.(4) To provide for the greater safety of the workers, Messrs. Turner, Drew, Arnold-Forster, and Beaumont urged that the use of shuttle guards should be enforced by law(5) and Messrs. Henderson and Mullin desired that power should be granted to the inspector to order the fencing of any portion of the machinery which he may deem to be dangerous.(6) Under the present law the inspector can enforce the fencing of what is called the "mill gearing" only. He can not enforce the fencing of the machinery, because it is regarded, not as part of the freehold, but as the personal property of the occupier of the factory. It was further suggested by Mr. Gee, Mr. Turner, and Mr. Drew that the Act should specify the time at which the machinery should be stopped and cleaned.(7) With regard to medical certificates, it was proposed that the certifying surgeons should be independent of the mill, and on the same basis as the factory inspector;(8) that the children employed in the mill should be subjected to supervision at intervals;(9) that the certifying surgeon should be required to make an annual report of the cases which came under his notice;(10) and that, in the case of women, a medical inspector should judge whether they were capable of doing the work alloted to them, without injury to themselves.(11) According to the sections of the present Act, relating to the inspector's power of entry and the registration of workpeople, "an inspector "before entering, in pursuance of the powers conferred "by this Act, without the consent of the occupier, "any room or place actually used as a dwelling as well "as for a factory or workshop, shall, on an affidavit "or statutory declaration of facts and reasons, obtain "written authority so to do from a Secretary of State, "or such warrant as is herein-after mentioned from a "justice of the peace." "The occupier of every "factory and workshop (including any workshop "conducted on the system of not employing any "child, young person, or woman therein) and every "contractor employed by any such occupier in the "business of the factory or workshop shall, if so "required by the Secretary of State by an Order made "in accordance with section 65 of the principal Act*, "and subject to any exceptions mentioned in the Order, "keep in the prescribed form and with the prescribed "particulars, lists showing the names of all persons "directly employed by him, either as workman or as "contractor, in the business of the factory or workshop, "and the places where they are employed, and every "such list shall be open to inspection by any inspector "under the principal Act or by any officer of a sanitary "authority." Mr. Keir, Mr. Inskip, and Mr. Simmons desired that these clauses should be amended, and that it should be made compulsory on all employers to find

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 63. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 66; Yates, 8023. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 66. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., Appendix VI. (5) Waddington, 3673-82. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 63-5; Vol. II., p. 101; Waddington, 3683-5; Jones, 3889. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 64, 65; Vol. II., p. 101; Waddington, 3704, 3743; Bean, 12,326.

* In November 1893, this Order was issued by the Secretary of State, with reference to certain groups of industries.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 63-5. (2) Hatton, 6228, 6238-41. (3) Bannister, 11,918. (4) Bignold, 10,190-4. (5) Turner and Drew, 5439; Arnold-Forster, 9712; Beaumont, 9266-9. (6) Mullin, 108; Henderson, 9001. (7) Turner, Drew, 5482; Gee, 5100. (8) Waddington, 3817. (9) Waddington, 3817. (10) Waddington, 3817. (11) Mrs. Hicks, 8218.

[§ 355.] workrooms for all persons in their employ, and that all premises used as workshops for purposes of manufacture of any kind whatever should be registered. Mr. Keir further proposed that the factory inspector should have power to enter any home, if used as a workshop, and report thereon, and that the "occupier of every "factory and workshop, &c.," should be required by the Secretary of State to keep the lists of his employed, and the places where they are employed, to which reference is made in the Act, such lists to be open to public inspection.(1) With regard to the employment of women, Dr. Tatham desired that an occupier of a factory or workshop shall not knowingly allow a woman to be employed therein within six months after she has given birth to a child instead of the period of one month fixed by the present Act, and Mr. Holmes urged that the employment of married women should be prohibited after the birth of their first or second child.(2) Finally, it was desired that the terms of the Act should be extented to all workshops, to public houses, laundries, and to the rag industry.(3)

Government inspection.

356. The number of factories and workshops liable to inspection under the Factory and Workshop Acts is between 120,000 and 130,000. In the year 1891, the total number of visits paid to factories was 72,807, to workshops 52,259. In the same year, the number of prosecutions was 935, of convictions 859. The district of Huddersfield and Halifax contains 1,947 factories and 1,870 workshops. Mr. Prior (the inspector for the district) stated that "as far as possible," he visits every factory and workshop once in three years, apart from special visits. Mr. Beaumont is sole inspector for the district of Bradford, which includes 2,103 factories and 590 workshops, and has a total population of 530,000. During the year 1890, the inspector made 2,000 visits to factories and 250 to workshops. He also made 150 special visits in cases of accident, and attended 20 inquests. Every factory and workshop in the district is visited about once in every two years.(4)

Inadequacy of present system of Government inspection.

357. The present system of Government inspection under the Act appears, however, to be inadequate. Complaints to this effect were made by the representatives from the textile industry in Lancashire and the West Riding of Yorkshire, from the Bradford and District Wool Combers' Association, the Managers' and Overlookers' Society, the Power-Loom Overlookers' Society, and the Society of Dyers in the district of Bradford, the Halifax Trade and Labour Council, the Dundee Trades Council, and the Mill and Factory Operatives' Union, from the Forfar Factory Workers, the Union of Upholsterers, the East London Ropeworkers' Union, and the Confectioners' Union. A similar complaint is also urged by witnesses from the Willeyers and Fettlers' Union, Leeds, and the Brechin Factory Workers' Union, and from the Midland Counties' Hosiery Federation, the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, the Master Tailors' Association, and the Boot and Shoe Operatives' Union.(5) The evidence given by the inspectors themselves is to the same effect. The Acts now in operation, stated Mr. Whymper, require "a well considered increase in the staff of inspectors." Mr. Prior, factory inspector for the Huddersfield and Halifax District, stated, that although "every factory "and every workshop ought to be visited at least once "in 12 months," the most he could "possibly . . . do" was to "make a point of visiting every factory once in three years." "My own desire for an increased staff," Mr. Prior added, "is to a very great "extent on behalf of people who, I am afraid, will not "come fully before this Commission. I speak of the "people in the small workshops, and in the country "districts." Mr. Bignold, factory inspector in Devon and Cornwall, was of opinion that the amount of work demanded from the inspectors is "utterly absurd." Mr. Henderson, superintending inspector for Scotland and the North of England stated, however, that "before giving an opinion" on this matter he was "inclined to wait" until the amended Act came into operation.(6) It may, therefore, be noted that in the Report of the Chief Inspector for the year 1892, to which previous reference has been made, Mr. Oram states that "the increase in the "population, especially in the large centres of industry, "naturally leads to a proportionate increase in the "number of factories and workshops, and the staff [§ 357.] "which was able to some extent to meet the require- "ments of the former number is insufficient to deal "adequately with the increased demands made upon "it . . ." "The additions to the staff made during "the year," he added, "have strengthened the depart- "ment, but I think it will be necessary to add to the "number of assistants who would aid Her Majesty's "inspectors of factories in clerical work . . . as "well as in the general visitation of the workshops, "including those of the outworkers.(1) Complaints were rarely made with regard to the efficiency of the present staff of inspectors. Mr. Mullin asserted that about two-thirds of the present staff might with advantage be discharged, and their places taken by more efficient men.(2) "I think," Mr. Mawdsley stated, "factory "inspection now, on the whole, as carried out in "Lancashire, is pretty fair," but, he added, "two- "thirds of them do not do half the work they ought to "do." There is "a deliberate intention" on the part of the inspectors not to get the employers convicted. Mr. Holmes, a representative of the Midland County Hosiery Federation, complained that the inspector in that district "suffers from a lack of practical knowledge "of how he can be 'bested.'" "Unless they have what I should term practical knowledge of factory work," he added, "they are not so well able to be efficient factory "inspectors. . . . I think there should be more "practical men." Similar views with regard to the desirability of the appointment of working men inspectors were urged by other witnesses. Mr. Wilson, Mr. Inskip, and Mr. Marston proposed that additional or sub-inspectors should be appointed to act under and conjointly with the present staff, and who should be practical men acquainted with the requirements of the operatives. The appointment of this class of men was also desired by Messrs. Holmes, Bower, and Keir, and Mr. Whymper was of opinion that "the suggestion that "working men should be appointed as assistant "inspectors" might be very serviceable, but more particularly in certain districts and for certain industries.(3) On the other hand, Mr. Henderson and Mr. Mawdsley were opposed to the proposal. "I quite believe," said Mr. Mawdsley, "in the educational test, "It is very essential, I think, that there should be an "educational test, and a moderately high one," and Mr. Henderson added, that "what is wanted is dili- "gence, common sense, and discretion." "I do not "think that the practical knowledge of a trade really "affects the value of the inspector much."(4) In connexion with this subject of inspection it was also proposed that assistant inspectors, not known in the district, should be appointed to pay "surprise" visits, and that a publication of a few of the regulations of the Act should be made, and the inspectors of the district appoint places of meeting where people who desired information might come and apply for it.(5) The majority of witnesses further held that where a large number of women were employed, a staff of female inspectors should be appointed, because, in the first place, they would "know where to go, and what to look for"; and, in the second place, women will make statements to one of their own sex which they would not make to men. It was urged, on the other hand, that the need for their appointment is diminished by the fact that, under the present system, attention is paid to anonymous communications, and the law does not provide for that class of grievance which women would prefer to confide to one of their own sex. The majority of the inspectors considered that the advantages of their appointment were over-estimated, and the difficulties under-estimated. It was, however, proposed that their work should be confined to that class of duties for which they are specially suited, or that one female inspector should be appointed by the Home Office, with whom the women workers could communicate, and if necessary, the chief inspector of factories should request her to investigate any given case locally.(6)

The Cot Cloth F tories A

358. The Cotton Cloth Factories Act, Mr. Osborn stated, was passed in order to regulate the "steaming" of the cotton weft necessitated by the development of the art of "sizing." The Act provides a table of the degrees of temperature and humidity to which every manufacturer is obliged to conform, and enforces an improved method of ventilation in the mills to which it

(1) Keir, 14,780-1; Inskip, 16,037; Simmons, 16,309. (2) Dr. Tatham, 8141-4, 8152; Holmes, 12,806-13. (3) Cuthbertson, 13,232-3; Ingle, 14,100-2; Beckworth, 15,265; Miss James, 8594; Shortt, 8740; Beever, 9933-4; Turner, 5783. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 35-6. Beaumont, 9230. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 67; Vol. II., p. 103-4. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 67-8; Whymper, 4300-1; Prior, 6766-6, 6798; Bignold, 6922, 10,100.

(1) Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the year 1892, p. 122. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 68. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 68; Vol. II., p. 106; Mawdsley, 741-3; Holmes, 12,830-3; Whymper, 4309. (4) Mawdsley, 745; Henderson, 7302. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 68. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 69; Vol. II., pp. 106-7.

[§ 358.] applies. In the opinion of Mr. Osborn, Her Majesty's inspector under the Act, the operation of the Act is "most valuable." It has, he stated, proved beneficial in its effect on the health of the operatives, and Mr. Wilcock, a representative of the cotton spinners, Preston, was also of opinion that the Act had been of great benefit to working men. On the other hand, Mr. Henderson, inspector for Scotland and the North of England, complained that the Act had caused much "inconvenience, and trouble, and expense" to employers. "The Act, I think," he observed, "has been passed very hastily." The fact of introducing steam at all, even for a limited time and for a special purpose, brings a factory under the Act. "I think the Act "itself was passed under a very grievous misapprehen- "sion as to the consequences of steaming; I think they "were very grossly exaggerated." Mr. Noble, a member of the United Cotton Manufacturers' Association, also complained that the Act had been "injurious" to manufacturers. The warps, he stated, "are greatly "affected by the changing conditions of the atmo- "sphere; and to admit 600 cubic feet of air when an "east wind is prevailing, would seriously interfere, "and does interfere with the work." "We have no "objection to the ventilation if it were under the "control of the operatives." Mr. Osborn himself acknowledged that the clause which referred to ventilation "is certainly a very strong one" (1). Mr. Birtwhistle and Mr. Barker, representatives of the Lancashire textile industry, complained, however, that on account of insufficient inspection the Act has not been properly enforced. "Mr. Osborn has the whole country, "so far as that Act is concerned, to deal with himself ". . . . It is impossible for him to attend to it," said Mr. Birtwhistle. "The inspector cannot attend "to the business he has in hand," Mr. Barker added, "it is too much." This opinion was shared by Mr. Whymper, Chief Inspector of Factories, and by Mr. Osborn himself. Every mill in which "steaming" takes place must be visited four times a year. This involves, Mr. Osborn stated, 2,400 visits annually, and each inspection may take 1½ hours or longer. The work of the inspector, he added, is "in excess of what "one man can do effectively" (2).

5. ACCIDENT FUNDS AND EMPLOYER'S LIABILITY, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

Number of accidents.

359. It was represented in the evidence that, as compared with other occupations, employment in textile factories is not especially dangerous (3). Testimony was borne by the inspectors to the willingness of employers to take proper precautions to prevent the occurrence of accidents, and Mr. Walker, an employer in the jute trade at Dundee, was of opinion "that the "accidents are much fewer than they formerly "were" (4). This view was shared by Mr. Beaumont, one of the Government inspectors examined before the Commission, who spoke of "a decided decrease" (5). On the other hand, one representative of the Lancashire Cotton industry stated that "the number of accidents "seems to be on the increase" (6). The question as to the direction in which the number of accidents in the textile industries is tending is one which cannot easily be answered from the evidence of individual witnesses. Whichever view be correct, it may be noted that Mr. Henderson, Her Majesty's superintending inspector, in his report for the year ending October 1892, speaks of the "very valuable and far-reaching results" of the amendments in connexion with safety and accidents made by the Factory Act of 1891. He takes occasion, however, to point out that "it may be some time before "the influence of the additional precautions now "enforced for the protection of dangerous machinery "shows itself in any sensible reduction in the number "of accidents reported from factories, because the "much greater attention which has been given to the "question has warned employers of their responsibility, "and induced them to be more careful in reporting "accidents when they do occur. An increase in the "number of accidents reported to the department "under these circumstances does not necessarily point "to the fact that the number of such accidents have "increased, but simply that the law itself is being "more stringently enforced or observed" (7).

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 36, 69, 70; Osborn, 4585, 4619; Henderson, 9073; Noble, 3975, 3987. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 70; Birtwhistle, 1304-5; Barker, 1835; Osborn, 4603. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 38. (4) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 32, 38; Walker, 10,820. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 38; Beaumont, 9283. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9; Mullin, 87. (7) Report of Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, 1892, p. 81.

[§ 360.] Causes of accidents.

360. Among the causes assigned for the occurrence of accidents was the increased speed at which machinery is worked, and the consequently greater strain on the workman (1). Another cause insisted upon by witnesses was the carelessness of workmen, especially with regard to the children employed under them. It was stated that accidents frequently happen through the cleaning of machinery while in motion, and although in many cases the workmen have a legitimate grievance in respect of the insufficient time allowed for cleaning, in consequence of which they are compelled to do it at odd times as well, employers complain that they cannot induce the operatives to "clean at the proper time," when the machinery is stopped (2). Another common source of injury is the escape of shuttles from fast looms, and accidents were stated to be often traceable to the overcrowding of machinery, and among the Bradford District Wool Combers to the fact of the workshops being allowed to get so very much out of repair (3). The matter of fencing machinery is generally spoken of as having more attention paid to it than formerly; the Amalgamated Society of Operative Cotton Spinners report that machinery is very adequately fenced as a rule, and the same satisfactory account is given by the Brechin Branch of the Factory Workers' Union (4). A complaint was, however, made by the Willeyers and Fettlers of the Leeds District that in some cases machines are fenced with strap-guards, which are not found to be a sufficient protection (5).*

The Employers' Liability Act.

361. The effect of the Employers' Liability Act on the number of accidents appears to be more indirect than direct. Very few prosecutions take place under the Act, but Mr. Henderson states that "the additional "responsibility placed upon occupiers of factories "under the Employers' Liability Act adds much "weight to the representations of an inspector in "regard to unfenced machinery." (6) The chief hindrance to the claiming of compensation under the Act was pointed out to be the cost of an action; even if a workman wins his case and gets compensation, "the "obtaining of it costs the worker more than the "compensation obtained." (7) With regard to the working of the Act, the operatives complain that sometimes considerable difficulty is experienced in securing convictions for neglect, because the magistrates are selected from the class of employers; also that a workman who brings an action against his employer incurs danger of dismissal. (8) Moreover, since employers are liable only where notice has been given of a defective machine, there is no incentive to vigilance on their part. (9) Several witnesses stated, however, that compensation was sometimes paid without going to law, and though this was said to be done reluctantly in some cases, it was not invariably so; indeed, one witness spoke of the "very considerate view" taken by the employers in a case which had come under his observation. (10)

Proposed amendments in the Act.

362. Several amendments to the Act were urged as desirable, of which the most important was the abolition of the contributory negligence clause, which, it was asserted, at present renders the Act practically inoperative. In support of this plea the Unions maintain that the negligence of the workman is not the primary cause of accidents, and generally only remotely contributes to them. With regard to an employer's liability for accidents caused by defective machines, one witness referred to a case which went to the Court of Appeal, in which, he stated, the ruling of the Judges was, that if a machine was as originally sent out by the manufacturer it was not a defective machine. The opinion of Sir Frederick Pollock has been taken on this point, and is to the effect that the decision in the case in question was "that the defect in the condition of the "machinery must be such as to show negligence on "the part of the employer," but that "the Court of "Appeal certainly did not decide any such absurdity "as suggested" above. (11) An objection was also made to the doctrine of common employment. (12) The practice of contracting out of the Act was disapproved of, but there were no actual complaints under this

* For the relation between accidents and the Factory and Workshop Acts, see *supra*, pages 110–1.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9; Mullin, 146, 7. (2) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 20, 38; Vol. II., p. 9. (3) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 19, 20, 38; Vol. II., p. 11; Walker, 10,828; Wilson, 11,443; Digest, Vol. I., p. 24; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 8, 9. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 38; Mawdsley, 716; Digest, Vol. II., p. 11. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 9. (6) Report of Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, 1892, p. 81. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 19; Vol. II., p. 8. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 19, 24. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9; Mullin, 113, 128. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24; Vol. II., p. 11; Mawdsley, 716. (11) Digest, Vol. I., p. 9. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 96.

[§ 362.] head; the witnesses who condemned the practice stated that it was not met with in the districts and industries with which they were acquainted, and that in desiring its prohibition that were only speaking in the interests of the working classes in general.(1) A further recommendation was that some steps should be taken to insure that the cost of a prosecution under the Act should not absorb the whole of the compensation adjudged.(2)

Insurance against accidents.

363. Insurance against accidents (apart from the Union benefit funds), is provided in one form or another in certain factories. One firm was reported as insuring its employés at its own expense; the workmen paid no contribution, and in case of accident received half wages during the period of incapacitation.(3) Some firms have recently begun a "co-operative" system of compensation for accidents, by which the men pay a regular subscription in proportion to their wages, and this plan is said to work well.(4) Oftener, however, there is no definite system of insurance, but employers compensate at their discretion, or according to custom.

6. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

Subjects dealt with under this head.

364. Three questions with regard to the conditions of labour to which reference has been made in the evidence still remain to be considered. These are the general effect of the introduction of machinery and the attitude of the workmen towards it, the system of apprenticeship, and some complaints which have been made with regard to employers as landlords.

The introduction of machinery.

365. Some of the effects of the introduction of machinery have been indirectly noticed in the statements of wages and hours, but they may be briefly recapitulated. In the textile trades no objection has been made to the introduction of labour-saving machinery. On the contrary, both the employers and the employed agree that any improvements in machinery are "gladly accepted," (5) and that they have been the cause of a considerable advance in wages during recent years in some branches of the cotton trade.(6) The representatives of the Wool Combers' Association, on the other hand, complained that the improvements in machinery which had been introduced into their trade had tended to the advantage of the employers at the expense of the employed. They made no objection to the introduction of machinery as such, but considered that its benefits should be equally shared between the employers and the workmen.(7) The introduction of new kinds of machinery has had a very important effect upon the hosiery trade, having, in fact, entirely revolutionized this industry. The representatives of the hand-loom weavers pointed out the decay into which their trade had fallen through the introduction of steam-power machinery, and the consequent impoverishment of many of the older workers. Very few hand-looms are now made, and these are chiefly for gloves, not for stockings.(8) Another witness stated that an increasing number of women are now employed in the hosiery trade, both in circular weaving and on the rotary frames and "Cotton's patent," and that the effect had been to force down men's wages.(9) The employers, however, stated that the introduction of new machinery had resulted not only in the employment of more labour, but in an advance of wages, although they admitted that the change had involved hardships in the case of the old hand-loom weavers.(10) Several of the employers in the boot and shoe trade complained of the opposition offered by the workmen to the introduction of machinery. It was stated that although the men's union does not now formally sanction opposition to machinery, it places so many restrictions upon its use that this is practically hindered, and the competition of the American trade is thus rendered more severe. In support of this statement it was said that in America to produce 100*l.* worth of boots, costs 17*l.* 10*s.* in labour, and in Leeds 33*l.*, the difference being attributed to the American labour-saving machinery.(11) One employer states that his men have done all they could to oppose the introduction of machinery. "The Union insisted "upon weekly wages, and the men worked the machines "so that no gain accrued over hand labour," and, in consequence of this, and the friction caused with the Union, a great part of the machinery is standing idle.(1) The employers, however, consider that the machinery would benefit the workmen as much as the masters, if it were allowed a fair trial, and the following facts are cited by Messrs. Butlin and Son:—"When we introduced heeling machinery our men, as usual, were "concerned very much about the difference it would "make to them in loss of wages, but before the "machine had run six months we had men leave rather "than put the heels on by hand. The deduction is "1½*d.* to 2*d.* per pair, according to quality, but it is "worth much more to them. In the finishing machinery lately introduced we are paying higher "wages to the men running them by the week than "they can earn by the dozen in their homes at statement wages, and working longer hours." (2) The workmen, however, deny that they are opposed to the introduction of machinery as such, and state that their objection has only been to the use made of it by the employers as a means of oppressing their workpeople.(3) [§ 365.]

Apprenticeship.

366. The question of apprenticeship plays a very small part in the textile trades, since it is only in the smaller and subsidiary industries, such as those of the wool sorters, warp dressers and linen lappers, that any system of the kind exists. Some importance has, however, been attached to it in the evidence from the boot and shoe and tailoring trades in both of which the system has fallen more or less into disuse. Both the employers and the employed have expressed a desire to revive the system, but whilst the motive put forward by some employers has been the provision of a sufficient supply of competent workmen, that of the employed is generally said to be the limitation of the number of learners, and hence of skilled workers. Complaints of the "overcrowding" of boy labour were made by the representatives of the National Union of Boot Clickers and the Boot and Shoe Operatives' Union, and both these societies endeavour to impose restrictions upon the number of boys employed. The former society also aims at enforcing a five years' apprenticeship, but the Boot and Shoe Operatives' Union is making no attempt to revive the old system, as the process of manufacture has completely changed. (4) With regard to the tailoring trade a desire is expressed by the Clothiers' Cutters' Union to revive the old system of apprenticeship, so that no one may be able to obtain employment who has not served five or seven years to the trade.(5) The employers in this trade complain, on the other hand, that the men's unions have so limited the number of apprentices that they are obliged to employ women to take the place of boys. They consider that every shop which employs a dozen men ought to have always two apprentices in course of training, because according to the average death rate of tailors it may be expected that in 30 years' time the twelve men would die and twelve apprentices would be required to take their places. (6)

Employers as landlords.

367. The remaining question, that of employers as landlords, has been brought forward only in the evidence from the textile trades, and even in this has been very slightly touched upon. Representatives of the operatives both in the cotton and the woollen industry, however, expressed their disapproval of the system of housing workpeople in dwellings built or owned by the employers, and the reasons given are (1.) that it gives the employer undue power over the workpeople, and (2.) that the houses thus provided are more highly rented in proportion to their value than other houses in the same locality. It was stated that the employers sometimes made it obligatory upon the workpeople to live in their houses, and that it was not necessary to provide accommodation near to the mills in this manner (7). The two employers who referred to this question agreed in stating that the cottages owned by their firms were let at a lower rent than similar houses in the neighbourhood, and that they would personally prefer not to be in the position of landlords. (8) No evidence was brought forward, however, with regard to the view taken of the matter by the employers generally.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., p. 25; Mawdsley, 717; Wilson, 11,647, 8. (2) Wilson, 11,460–2, 11,645. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24; Heptonstall, 5992. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 32; Walker, 10,842. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 175, 788. (6) Digest, Vol. I, pp. 9. 13. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 24. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 13, 16. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 15. (10) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 17, 18. (11) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 22, 25.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 511. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 683. (3) Digest. Vol. II., pp. 26. 27. (4) Digest, Vol. II, pp. 21, 24, 27. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 139. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 21: Digest, Vol. III., p. 11. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 20; Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I. 503–9. (8) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 6709–18, 7574–9.

B. ORGANISATIONS.

1. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS, ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED, AND JOINT BOARDS.

[§ 368 (a.)]

TEXTILE TRADES. LANCASHIRE. Organisations of employers. (a.) *Their extent.*

368. (*a.*) The United Cotton Manufacturers' Association extends over the cotton manufacturing districts of Lancashire, Derbyshire, Yorkshire, and Cheshire, and is a federation of about 32 local associations. It represents about 200 firms, which own some 200,000 looms, and include about 75 per cent. of all the cotton manufacturers in the districts. The association was established in 1890. (1) The North and North-east Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association is a federation of the local associations of employers in Blackburn, Preston, and Burnley. The district covered by the association contains about 6,000,000 spindles and 200,000 looms, and not quite two-thirds of the employers are members. The association has existed in its present form since 1872. (2) The United Cotton Spinners' Association extends over the whole of the cotton manufacturing districts. (3)

(*b.*) *Constitution and government.*

(*b.*) The government of each association is in the hands of an Executive or Central Committee, consisting of representatives of the local associations. In the North and North-east Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association the number of representatives is limited to 11 members from Preston, 11 from Burnley, and 13 from Blackburn; in the United Cotton Spinners' Association 2 delegates, in addition to the local chairman and secretary, may be chosen by each district, and in the United Cotton Manufacturers' Association one representative is chosen for every 10,000 looms. The Committee of the latter association has power to appoint Sub-committees if necessary, and Sub-committees to inquire into disputes with workmen may be appointed in the former. Committee meetings must be held at least once a quarter in the North and North-east Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association, and monthly in the United Cotton Manufacturers' Association, in which there are also general meetings held annually, and at such times as the Committee may determine. The Committee of this society may not make any final decision affecting the trade as a whole without referring to the local associations, and that of the North and North-east Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association must postpone its decision on any matter at the request of five members who are desirous of consulting their local associations. The rules of the United Cotton Manufacturers' Association, and of the United Cotton Spinners' Association, may be altered at any general meeting after one month's notice has been given, but in the North and North-east Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association, the rules may be altered only at a special meeting of the Committe, after notice of the proposed alteration has been given at a previous Committee meeting, and the alterations must be submitted to, and confirmed by the local associations.

(*c.*) *Conditions of membership and contributions.*

(*c.*) Any cotton spinners or manufacturers approved by the Committee are eligible for membership in the United Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Associations, and all members of the federated local associations, or of other associations if approved by the majority of members, are eligible for the North and North-east Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Associations. Neither society requires its members to pay an entrance fee. Members of the United Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Associations pay an annual subscription of 1*l.* 1*s.*, in addition to which the Committee of the latter may raise levies not exceeding 3*d.* a loom, when necessary. In the North and North-east Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association there is no annual subscription, but levies of 3*d.* for each loom and ½*d.* for each spindle are raised by the local associations whenever funds are required. The Central Committee in each case has the control of the funds, but in the North and North-east Lancashire Association four treasurers are appointed, in whose names the funds are banked. [§ 368 (c.)]

(*d.*) *Dispute regulations.*

(*d.*) With regard to the action of these societies in trade disputes in which their members are engaged, it is a rule of the United Cotton Manufacturers' Association that such disputes must first be brought before the local association, wherever one exists, and this body may refer them to the Central Committee. Where no local association exists, disputes may be referred directly to the central association. The Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association allows its local associations to settle any disputes which do not involve alterations of the local standard list, but statements of applications for assistance, and of settlements or attempted settlements, must be forwarded to the Central Committee and the majority of those who meet to discuss the question must not represent the district interested. This association gives no assistance to members who do not pay wages up to the standard list of the district, or to members who reduce their wages to the standard list, unless they can offer a satisfactory explanation.

(*e.*) *Objects.*

(*e.*) The objects of these associations are the regulation of wages and the promotion of the general interests of the trade, in addition to which the United Cotton Manufacturers' Association wishes to consider Parliamentary legislation and to defend cases affecting individual members, and the North and North-east Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association to take cognizance of cases of combination, strikes, and intimidation by workpeople. The United Cotton Spinners' Association only wishes to watch over and promote the interests of the trade generally and of the members in particular. (1)

Organisations of employed. (*a.*) *Their extent.*

369. (*a.*) The organisation of the employed in the various branches of the cotton industry in Lancashire and the adjoining counties is very complete. The principal associations with regard to which evidence has been given are the Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives, the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners, the Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers, the North-east Lancashire Weavers' Association, and the United Textile Workers. The Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives, which has existed in its present form since 1886, extends over the whole of the cotton trade district, and is a federation of 20 local societies, most of which are again subdivided into districts. The Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners embraces the whole of Lancashire up to Lancaster and the cotton spinning districts of the adjoining counties of Cheshire, Derbyshire and Yorkshire, and the Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers extends over the same area. The latter association, which was established in 1884, is divided into 28 districts. When Mr. Birtwistle gave evidence, the North-east Lancashire Weavers' Association included all the towns between Colne and Chorley, with the exception of Blackburn, Preston, and Darwen. Since Mr. Birtwistle resigned his secretaryship, however, several of the larger districts have withdrawn, and appointed secretaries of their own, and the association now covers only Church, Oswaldtwistle, Great Harwood, Haslingden, Clitheroe, Clayton-le-Moors, Walton-le-Dale, and Rishton. It was established in 1858. The United Textile Factory Workers is an association formed to include card and blowing room operatives, spinners and weavers throughout the four counties engaged in the cotton trade (2). The numbers of male and female members of the various societies, together with the percentages of females and of unionists in the whole number of workpeople employed, are given in a table below.

(1) Digest Vol. I., pp. 13, 16. (2) Digest Vol. I., p. 13. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXXII.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 440 and 442. Minutes of Evidence Vol. III., Appendix CXXII. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. Letter received from E. J. Holmes, Esq., Secretary of the North-east Lancashire Amalgamated Weavers' Association, June 24, 1893.

[§ 369 (a.)] TABLE showing the Numbers of the Members in the various Trades Unions in the Lancashire District, the Number of Workpeople Employed, and the Percentage of Females and of Unionists. [§ 369 (a.)]

References.	Associations of Employed.	Number of Unionists.			Total Number Employed.			Percentage of Females.	Percentage of Unionists.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 98. Digest, Vol. I., p. 10.	Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives.	6,500	18,500	25,000	12,500	47,500	60,000	79·16 (of total) 74 (of unionists)	41·66
Answers &c., p. 98. Digest, Vol. I., p. 10.	Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners.	18,926	None	18,926(1)	20,500	None	20,500	None	92·32
Digest, Vol. I., p. 10 - -	Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers.	24,700	40,300	65,000	65,922	107,873	173,795(2)	62·07 (of total) 62 (of unionists)	37·4
Answers &c., p. 101 -	Blackburn Power Loom Weavers' Protection Society.	1,140	1,861 1,860	3,000	—	—	23,400(3)	62 (of unionists)	12·82 N.B.—There is another union in the town.
Answers &c., p. 100. Further correspondence.	Ashton-under-Lyne and District Power Loom Weavers' Association.	250	4,750	5,000	—	—	8,000	95 (of unionists) (4)	62·5 (5)
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., question 1184. Further correspondence.	North-East Lancashire Weavers' Association.	4,320	7,046	11,366(6) 28,000	—	—	14,500(7)	61·98 (of unionists)	78·38
Digest, Vol. I., p. 10. Further correspondence.	United Textile Factory Workers.	70,000	55,000	125,000	—	—	320,000	44 (of unionists)	39·06
Digest, Vol. I., p. 10 - -	Burnley Weavers' Association.	2,800	4,200	7,000	—	—	19,000(8)	60 (of unionists)	36·84 N.B.—But *see* note as to numbers forming total.

(1) The number given in the oral evidence was "about 19,000," but the exact number was given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions. (2) and (3) These numbers are exclusive of half-timers. (4) This percentage is given in a letter from the secretary of the society, dated June 24, 1893. The percentage given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions is 90. (5) The percentage of non-unionists is given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions as "probably 40," which would give 60 per cent. of unionists. The total, 8,000, includes children who would perhaps be left out of account in calculating the percentage of unionists. (6) 28,000 was the number of members given in the oral evidence. The numbers quoted in the table are given by the secretary of the society in a letter received June 24, 1893. (7) This number was given as 14,000 or 15,000. The arithmetic mean has been taken in order to find the percentage of unionists. (8) This total includes overlookers, twisters, and others connected with weaving, besides the weavers proper.

(b.) Constitution and Government.

(*b.*) The government of these societies varies chiefly in matters of detail. There is, usually speaking, a General Council or representative meeting, composed of delegates from the local branches, in which the supreme power is vested, and a smaller Executive body, termed the Committee or Council, which carries on the general business of the society. In the United Textile Factory Workers, the larger body is termed the United Council, and the smaller one the Legislative Council, and the latter has power to elect by co-option a Sub-legislative Council, to which it may delegate any of its powers. The principal officers are a president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer, who are generally appointed by the Executive body, though in some cases by the representative meeting, and there are usually two auditors and three or more trustees. The officers receive fixed salaries, the amounts of which are as a rule decided at a representative meeting, which has also power to remove any officer. They are elected for varying terms of office. The secretary and the trustees often hold office during the pleasure of the majority of the members, whilst the other officers are appointed for a year or six months. Representative meetings are held every quarter in some societies and annually in others, and a special representative meeting must generally be summoned at the request of the Committee, or of a certain number of members. These societies are sub-divided into districts and branches, and in the case of the Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives, and the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners, the districts are grouped into "provinces." These divisions generally draw up their own rules, and fix the contributions of members, and the nature and amounts of the benefits; they are governed by representative and executive bodies and officers in the same manner as the Central Associations, with the general rules of which their regulations must be in conformity. Members are generally allowed to appeal from any decision of a provincial or district government to the Central Executive, and a final appeal is allowed from this body to the general representative meeting. Alterations of the rules may be made only at a general representative meeting, and a certain length of notice of such alterations is required both to the Central Executive and to the various local sub-divisions of the society.

(c.) Contributions and benefits

(*c.*) The amounts of the entrance fees and weekly or other contributions from members, and the benefit funds granted by the various associations, are given in the tables below. Members, or districts, in arrears with their contributions are generally suspended from all benefits when their arrears have reached a certain amount, and if this is not cleared off within another fixed period, such members or districts are excluded from the association.

TABLE of Contributions to Associations of Employed, Lancashire. (Tabulated Rules, Nos. 369, 372, 378, 380, 381, and 382.)

—	Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives. No. 369.	Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners. No. 372.	Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers. No. 378.	Blackburn Power Loom Weavers' Protection Society. No. 382.	Ashton-under-Lyne and District Power Loom Weavers' Association. No. 381.	North-East Lancashire Weavers' Association. No. 380.	United Textile Factory Workers. No. 368.
Entrance fee.	—	—	1*d.* a member	—	3*d.* a member	Each society pays a sum varying with the number of its members and the value of the assets of the association.	—
Contributions.	Amount determined at a representative meeting. Levies are raised when necessary.	Each district and province pays 1½*d.* a member weekly, and fixes its own local contributions. Levies are raised when necessary by the representative meeting.	Local societies pay a varying contribution (1). An emergency fund is raised by levies and kept up to the amount of 5,000*l.*	2*d.*, 3*d.*, 4*d.*, 5*d.*, or 6*d.* a week according to the benefits desired. Members over 50 years of age on entry pay 3*d.* a week. Levies may be raised by the Committee.	2*d.* or 3*d.* a week for weavers, and 1*d.* or 1½*d.* for tenters, according to the benefits desired. A levy may be raised when the funds are reduced to 200*l.*	1*d.*, 2*d.*, 3*d.*, or 4*d.* a week according to the benefits desired. Branches may increase the local contribution. Levies may be raised by the Council.	A levy may be raised by the Legislative Council with the sanction of the United Council. Societies of cardroom workers and weavers are levied only on two-thirds of their members.

(1) The secretary stated in oral evidence that at present the contribution from local societies was 5*s.* per 100 members a fortnight, but that it might be so high as 1*l.* per 100 members a fortnight. (Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1726.)

369 (c).] TABLE of Benefits granted by Associations of Employed, Lancashire. (Tabulated Rules, Nos. 369, 372, 378, 380, 381, and 382.) [§ 369 (c).]

Benefit.	Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives. No. 369.	Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners. No. 372.	Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers. No. 378.	Blackburn Power Loom Weavers' Protection Society. (Affiliated to Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers.) No. 382.	Ashton-under-Lyne and District Power Loom Weavers' Association. (Affiliated to Northern Counties' Amalgamated Association of Weavers.) No. 381.	North-East Lancashire Weavers' Association. No. 380.
Accident benefit	30*l.* if permanently disabled. Legal assistance in obtaining compensation under the Employers' Liability Act(1).	50*l.* if permanently disabled (2).	—	—	—	—
Dispute benefit:— *1. Ordinary members.*	8*s.* a week	10*s.* a week, and 1*s.* for each child under 13, until 13 weeks after end of dispute, if necessary. Members locked out through a dispute caused by another branch of cotton operatives receive 6*s.* a week, and 1*s.* for each child under 10, unless dispute is sanctioned by an Executive or representative meeting, when they receive as above.	A district receives support as determined by three-fourths of the General Council, in proportion to its membership (3). No district may increase the amount of its dispute benefit without the consent of the General Council.	3*s.*, 6*s.*, 10*s.*, 13*s.*, and 16*s.* a week, according to the rate of contributions paid. Legal assistance is also provided.	—	—
Victimised members.	The same as ordinary members for 13 weeks.	12*s.* a week, and 1*s.* for each child under 13, for 20 weeks.	—	—	Such assistance as the Committee may determine.	Three-fourths of their average wages for the last month up to four looms. Legal assistance if necessary.
Emigration benefit	—	Members receiving dispute benefit may receive nine weeks' full pay in order to emigrate. Victimised members who wish to emigrate receive half the pay to which they are entitled.	—	—	—	—
Funeral benefit	4*l.* or 10*l.* if death is the result of an accident.	20*l.* if death is the result of an accident.	—	6*l.* or 4*l.* for members aged from 45 to 50 on entry.	5*l.*	Amount not stated.
Out-of-work benefit	—	—	—	Same as dispute benefit, according to contribution, for six weeks only, if out of work through fire, failure, breakdown, expiration of lease, or dissolution of partnership.	Members who pay 3*d.* a week receive 7*s.* a week for six weeks, and those who pay 2*d.* a week receive 5*s.* a week for four weeks, if out of work through fire, failure, breakdown, or repairs. Tenters receive half these sums.	Payments varying with the scale of contributions are made to members out of work by failure or bankruptcy, fire, breakdown, or repairs of engines, boilers, and mill gearing, but not for stoppages caused by depression in trade, running short time, or playing for beams, weft or twist.

(1) Weekly payments in case of temporary disablement from accident are made out of the local branch funds. (2) Weekly payments in case of temporary disablement from accident are made out of the local branch funds, from which additional grants may be made in case of permanent disablement. (3) The secretary stated in oral evidence that the dispute benefit granted was 5*s.* a member. (Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1640.)

(d.) Funds. (*d.*) The funds of the associations are usually invested by the trustees when authorised to do so by the Executive or the representative meeting. Orders for withdrawal must, as a rule, be sanctioned by the Committee or representative meeting, and receive the signatures of the principal officers.

(e.) Dispute regulations. (*e.*) With regard to the conduct of trade disputes, all these associations require that the members should lay any grievance or difficulty that may arise before the local Committee in the first instance, and this body must investigate the matter and endeavour to effect an amicable settlement. If it fails to do so the general secretary must be informed of the particulars, and in his turn investigate them thoroughly with a view to a settlement, and in case of failure summon a meeting of the central Executive. In the Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives and the North-East Lancashire Amalgamated Weavers' Association, the Executive Council has power to sanction a strike, and also to close the dispute when it sees fit. In the latter association, however, a full report of all particulars must be sent to each local association before a strike is undertaken. In the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners a representative meeting, and in the Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers, a meeting of the General Council, must be summoned to give the final decision with regard to a strike, and the regulations of the latter Association are very strict on this point. No strike may be undertaken without the sanction of three-fourths of the members of the General Council, and this may not be granted unless 50 per cent. of the workpeople in the mills affected are members of the association, and 3 per cent. of the members of the district are directly affected by the dispute.

(f.) Minor regulations. (*f.*) The organisations under consideration cover so large a district and contain so many members that the Central Association, as a rule, lays down provisions of a very general character, leaving all the details of government to the provinces or districts, and it is expressly stated in the preface to the rules of the Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives that this society considers it advisable to deal chiefly with districts, and to leave the latter free to make provisions for their individual members. Thus no regulations for the conditions of employment are laid down in the rules of the Central Associations, except in the North-East Lancashire Weavers' Association, in which the general secretary is said to arrange the prices for weaving, winding, and warping.

[§ 369 (g.)] (g.) Objects.

(g.) The objects of these associations are generally very similar, although the United Textile Factory Workers confines itself to that of removing "any "grievance from which members may be suffering by "means of parliamentary or Government inter-"ference." The Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives and the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners have identical objects, which are the provision of benefits for their members, the securing of a fair and uniform rate of wages, the conciliatory settlement of disputes with employers, and the enforcement of the Factory Acts and other legislative enactments for the protection of labour. The Northern Counties Amalgamated Associations of Weavers and the North-East Lancashire Amalgamated Weavers' Association also aim at securing a fair and uniform rate of wages, and the former society wishes to prevent unnecessary reductions and fines. The North-East Lancashire Amalgamated Weavers' Association provides benefits for its members, and undertakes to protect them from injustice.(1)

Joint Boards.

370. In North and North-East Lancashire there is a Joint Committee of the employers and operatives in the weaving industry, which considers all questions of wages and trade disputes, and endeavours "to preserve "good feeling between employers and operatives." It is not, however, authorised to come to a final conclusion upon any of the matters brought under its notice. The Committee consists of 12 members, six of whom are chosen by the Association of each side. Either party may convene a meeting by giving 10 days' notice to the secretary of the other party, but meetings may not be held more often than once a month, except in the case of adjournment. The employers' and operatives' sections must respectively report to their constituents as to the general results of the various discussions, but otherwise all proceedings of the Joint Committee must be secret.(2) This Committee is said to have been very successful. Since its establishment in 1881, some 20 or 30 cases have come before it, and it has only once failed to effect a settlement. Before a Standing Joint Committee was appointed, the Central Committees of the employers' and operatives' associations were accustomed to meet together in order to settle disputes, and this is the method still adopted in the carding and spinning branches of the industry.(3) The representatives of the operatives in the latter departments expressed their satisfaction with the results of the method, and it was stated that in 19 cases out of 20 disputes were settled by conferences between the Committees or secretaries of the two associations.(4) Mr. Rawlinson, however, pointed out that there was a want of system in the methods of settling disputes adopted by the carding and spinning branches of the industry, as compared with that adopted in the weaving branch. Although general questions of advances or reductions may be settled thus, there is no machinery for the settlement of individual disputes, and there are many local strikes in consequence. The employers would prefer to have a Standing Joint Committee, but they believed that the difficulty in the way of such an arrangement lay in the incomplete organisation of both sides, rather than in any disinclination upon the side of the operatives.(5)

General relations between employers and employed.

371. The representatives of both employers and operatives in the cotton industry agreed in attributing the improved relations between capital and labour which had distinguished recent years to the more efficient organisation on the two sides, and the closer intercourse which had resulted from it. The operatives stated that their difficulties in obtaining redress arose with employers who were not members of the Employers' Association, and they believed that if all the employers joined their association it would materially conduce to the settlement of disputes. The employers, on their part, consider it easier to discuss the causes of disputes with the union officials than with the operatives, and attribute the improved relations in a great measure to the frequent intercourse which takes place between the officials of the associations on both sides.(6) It was, however, asserted by two employers, one of whom, Mr. A. Simpson, was especially emphatic, both in his evidence and in further correspondence, that "the attitude taken up by the trades unions is "already having a great influence upon the future of "the cotton trade," and that "the determination "of the workpeople to extract every penny of profit "for themselves is gradually driving capitalists out of "the trade." They consider that the unions force the employers to pay higher wages than they can afford, even though the rates are settled by the joint action of the employers' and operatives' associations.(1) One witness stated that the union acted unfavourably upon the operatives with regard to the quality of the work produced, and the spirit of antagonism and insubordination to which it gave rise. The operatives are said practically to compel the masters to produce what suits them, without regard to the requirements of the market, and to be less afraid of producing bad work when they receive an out-of-work allowance from the union in case of dismissal.(2) The witness admitted, however, that a stronger organisation upon the side of the masters would give them more power in the arrangement of wages, and that the operatives would always get the better of a bargain so long as the Masters' Association was in his opinion "a veritable rope of sand." He further stated that he had no personal objection to the trade unions, but would only suggest that the rule with regard to out-of-work allowance should be abrogated, and that all picketing should be stopped.(3) [§ 371.]

II. YORKSHIRE. Organisations of employers.

372. Evidence has been received with regard to only one association of employers in the Yorkshire woollen and worsted manufacturing district. This is the Huddersfield Woollen Manufacturers' and Spinners' Association, which was mentioned by Mr. Gee as having been established in 1881 in opposition to the association of the employed which began at about the same time.(4) No further information has been received with regard to the rules or constitution of this association of employers.

Organisations of employed.

373. The most important associations of employed in this district with regard to which either oral or written evidence has been received are the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association, the Bradford Warpdressers' Association, the Bradford Overlookers' Provident Society, No. 3, the Bradford Managers' and Overlookers' Society, No. 2, the Bradford and District Power Loom Overlookers' Society, the Bradford Amalgamated Society of Dyers, Crabbers, &c., the Bradford Wool Combers' Association, the Bradford Wool Sorters' Association, and the Leeds and District Willeyers' and Fettlers' Union. The rules of only a few of these societies have been laid before the Commission, and therefore these are the only ones of the constitution of which any account can be given. In so far, however, as any information was procurable with regard to the numbers of members, and the rates of contributions, in the other associations, or the benefits given by them, it has been incorporated in the tables below.

(a.) Their extent.

(a.) The West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association, which was established in 1881, has its head quarters at Huddersfield, and is divided into three districts, viz., those of Huddersfield, Bradford, and Batley. Its membership was formerly restricted to weavers, but since 1891 it has admitted any factory operatives in the woollen and worsted industries, who have no organisation of their own.(5) The Bradford and District Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, which was established in 1862, is the smallest of three associations of overlookers in the Bradford district, which are rather more of the nature of friendly societies than of trades unions proper. This society is said in the written answers to the schedules of questions issued by the Commission to contain 350 members; whilst in the oral evidence it was stated that the Bradford and District Power Loom Overlookers' Society, which includes the district within a radius of four miles from Bradford, has 697 members, and the Bradford Managers' and Overlookers' Society, No. 2, which has branches in Halifax, Keighley, and Wakefield, has 668 members.(6) The Bradford and District Warpdressers' Association, which was established in 1888, was said to be federated with the warpdressers' associations in Lancashire, but not to be connected with any other organisation of operatives in the woollen industry.(7) The numbers of

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 368, 369, 372, 378, 380. (2) Tabulated Rules, No. 558. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 2461-62. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 558-59, 773. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 2462-2465, 2468-69, 2770-2772, 2857-58. (6) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 8, 11, 14, 18.

(1) Digest, Vol. I. pp. 13, 16. Summary of evidence given in by Mr. A. Simpson, and further letters received from him. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 16. (3) Russell, 3601-2, 3629-645. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 18. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 4792. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 26; Digest, Vol. II., p. 8. (7) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 5302-3.

[§ 373 (a.)] male and female members of the various societies, together with the percentage of females and of unionists in the whole number of workpeople employed are given in a table below :— [§ 373 (a.)]

TABLE showing the Number of the Members in the various Trades Unions in the Yorkshire District, the Number of Workpeople employed, and the percentages of Females and of Unionists.

References.	Association of Employed.	Number of Unionists.			Total Number employed.			Percentage Females.	Percentage of Unionists.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 4784–85.	West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association.	1,750	3,450	5,200(1)	14,010	39,990	54,000	66·22(2) of unionists.	9·63
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 4786. Answers &c., p. 107.	Huddersfield branch of above.	1,000	1,000	2,000	3,500	5,500	9,000	50 of unionists. 61·11of total.	22·22
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 5383. Answers &c., p. 107.	Bradford branch of above	500	1,500	2,000	7,500	22,500	30,000(3)	75 of unionists. 75 of total	6·66
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 5682–3 and 5692–3. Answers &c., p. 107.	Batley branch of above -	250	950	1,200(4)	3,010	11,990	15,000(5)	79·33 of unionists. 79·93of total.	8
Digest, Vol. I., p. 25. Answers &c., p. 109.	Bradford Warpdressers' Association.	700	None	700	Nearly 1,500	Very few	1,500	Very small	46·66
Digest, Vol. I., p. 26. Answers &c., p. 108.	Bradford Amalgamated Society of Dyers, Crabbers, &c.	1,800	None	1,800	10,000	None	10,000	None	18 N.B.—1,500 dyers are said to belong to the Gasworkers' Union, which makes the true per-centage of unionists 33.(6)
Digest, Vol. I., p. 23 -	Bradford Wool Combers' Association.	1,200	200	1,400	1,800	1,200	3,000	14·28 of unionists. 40 of total.	46·66
Digest, Vol. I., p. 24 -	Bradford Wool Sorters' Association.	700	None	700	3,500	None	3,500(7)	None	20
Digest, Vol. II., p. 9. Answers, &c., p. 106.	Leeds and District Willeyers' and Fettlers' Union.	200	None	200	572	None	572	None	34·96

(1) In the oral evidence it was said that "roughly speaking" there were 5,000 members, 5,200 is the number obtained by adding together the totals given for the three districts of the union. (2) In the oral evidence it was said that "at least 60 per cent." of the members were females. According to the totals obtained, 66 per cent. of the members of the union are females, and 72 per cent. of the operatives employed. (3) The total number employed was quoted in the oral evidence as 32,000, but the numbers of male and female workers given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions gives a total of 30,000. (4) In the oral evidence the total number of members was said to be 1,000; the number of male members 190 or 200, and the number of female members 750 or 800. The numbers quoted in the table are those given in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions. (5) In the oral evidence the total number of operatives employed was said to be about 13,000. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions give it as 15,000. (6) The number of dyers belonging to the Gasworkers' Union is quoted in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions as 1,200. In this case the percentage of unionists is 30 per cent. (7) This number was given by the witness as "3,000 to 4,000." The arithmetic mean has been taken in order to find the percentage of unionists.

(b.) Constitution and government.

(*b.*) The supreme authority in the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association is in the hands of a General Committee of Management, which consists of one representative for each hundred or fraction of one hundred members, elected from the branch Committees. This body meets every quarter, and at its annual meeting appoints an Executive Council consisting of the principal officers and 10 other members. The Bradford Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, and the Bradford Warpdressers' Association are both governed by a Committee, appointed in addition to the principal officers, and by half-yearly and monthly or weekly general meetings of members. The committeemen in the Bradford Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, are appointed in rotation as their names appear in the contribution book, but in the Warpdressers' Association they, like the other officers, are elected by ballot. The principal officers in all three societies are a president, secretary and treasurer, and trustees, and in two there are also auditors. The rules of the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association provide for the government of branches on the same plan as the central government, but the rules of the other societies make no provision for branch government. The Committee of the Warpdressers' Association finally decides all cases of appeal, but members of the Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, may appeal from the Committee to a monthly general, meeting. The rules of the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association may be altered by a two-thirds majority of the General Committee of Management, if notice has been given to each branch Committee 21 days beforehand. No alteration, however, is valid until registered. The rules of the Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, may be altered at a special general meeting, if the proposed changes have been read at three previous monthly meetings, and those of the Warpdressers' Association may be altered with the consent of the majority of the members at any general meeting.

(c.) Contributions and benefits.

(*c.*) The amounts of the entrance fees and contributions and of the benefits provided for members, are given in the tables below. All three societies contain regulations with regard to arrears of contributions. After these have reached a certain amount, the member in question is suspended from the benefits of the society, and in the Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, and the Warpdressers' Association the member is excluded if his arrears are not paid off, in the former case before they reach 24*s.*, and in the latter before they have accumulated for 12 months.

TABLE of Contributions in Associations of Employed, Yorkshire.

(Tabulated Rules, Nos. 386, 388, and 389. Digest, Vol. I., p. 23. Digest, Vol. II., p. 9, and further Correspondence.)

—	West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association. No. 386.	Bradford Overlookers' Provident Society, No. 3. No. 388.	Bradford Warpdressers' Association. No. 389.	Bradford and District Machine Wool-Combers'. Association.	Leeds and District Willeyers' and Fettlers' Union.
Entrance fee - -	——	Age under 26 years, 10*s.* Age 26 to 30 years, 15*s.* Age 30 to 34 years, 21*s.*	3*s.* 6*d.*	1*s.* 3*d.* for men. 6*d.* for women.	Age on entry :— 18 to 25 years, 2*s.* 6*d.* 25 to 30 years, 4*s.* 30 to 35 years, 5*s.* 6*d.* 35 to 40 years, 7*s.* 6*d.* 40 to 44 years, 10*s.*
Contribution - -	1½*d.*, 2*d.*, 2½*d.*, or 3*d.* a week, according to the benefits desired, subject to alterations during a strike.	Age under 26, 2*s.* a month. Age 26 to 30, 2*s.* 2*d.* a month. Age 30 to 34, 2*s.* 4*d.* a month. Also 3*d.* a year to the contingent fund. A levy of 6*d.* is raised when the funds are less than 3*l.* a member.	3*d.* a week. The committee can raise a levy in case of need.	3*d.* a week for men. 2*d.* a week for women.	6*d.* a week for members under 40 years of age on entry. 7½*d.* a week for members over 40.

TABLE of BENEFITS granted by Associations of Employed, Yorkshire.

[§ 373 (c.)] (Tabulated Rules, Nos. 386, 388, and 389. Digest, Vol. I., p. 28. Digest, Vol. II., p. 9., and further Correspondence.) [§ 373 (c.)]

Benefits.	West Riding of Yorkshire Power-Loom Weavers' Association. No. 386.	Bradford Overlookers' Provident Society, No. 3. No. 388.	Bradford Warpdressers' Association. No. 389.	Bradford and District Machine Woolcombers' Association.	Leeds and District Willeyers' and Fettlers' Union.
Accident benefit.	—	In case of disablement through loss of sight or of a limb, a grant of not less than 20*l.*, as determined by a special general meeting.	—	7*s.* a week, or legal assistance in obtaining compensation.	—
Dispute benefit	5*s.*, 7*s.*, 9*s.*, or 11*s.* a week according to the contribution, and 6*d.*, 8*d.*, 10*d.*, or 1*s.* for each child under 11. The Executive may alter these amounts. Victimised members the same.	—	—	10*s.* a week until the end of the dispute. In case of a general strike the Committee may reduce the benefit if necessary. Victimised members receive 10*s.* a week until they obtain employment.	Half the amount of the wages received by members.
Distress benefit	—	—	Grants at the discretion of Committee.	—	—
Emigration benefit.	—	After five years' membership a grant of 5*l.*, if out-of-work benefit has been received for not more than 25 days.	—	—	—
Funeral benefit	—	10*l.* on death of member. 6*l.* on death of member's wife.	—	3*l.* on the death of a member. 2*l.* on the death of a member's wife.	10*l.*; half of which benefit may be drawn on the death of the member's wife.
Out-of-work benefit.	3*s.*, 4*s.*, 5*s.*, or 6*s.* a week for one month (according to contribution), when out of work, through fire, failure, or breakdown.	1*s.* 9*d.* a day for 72 days. 1*s.* 1*d.* a day for 72 days.	5*s.* a week for six weeks. 2*s.* 6*d.* a week for six weeks.	—	9*s.* a week for ten weeks. 4*s.* 6*d.* a week for eight weeks. Six months must pass before the member can be again entitled to this benefit.
Sick benefit	—	10*s.* a week for six months. 5*s.* a week for six months. 2*s.* 6*d.* a week until recovery.	—	—	6*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 3*s.* a week for 13 weeks. Six months must pass before the member can be again entitled to this benefit.

(*d.*) *Funds.* (*d.*) The funds of these associations may be invested by the treasurer or trustees, at the direction of the executive or of a general meeting, or may be deposited in a bank. In the Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, investments and withdrawals must be signed by six members of the Committee and the secretary, but in the other societies the signatures of the trustees and the secretary are sufficient for this purpose.

(*e.*) *Dispute regulations.* (*e.*) The rules of the Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, contain no regulations with regard to trade disputes; but those of the Warpdressers' Association provide that the members concerned in a dispute with their employer must inform the secretary, and he must summon the Committee to consider the matter if necessary. In the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association, the branch Committee must if possible effect an amicable arrangement of any dispute that arises, but in case of failure the general secretary must give his assistance. If the dispute cannot be settled by these means, the General Committee may sanction a strike after carefully investigating the matter.

(*f.*) *Minor regulations.* (*f.*) No support is given to members of the Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, and the Warpdressers' Association, who lose their employment through their own neglect or misconduct. Members of the former society are punished by a fine if they boast of their independence towards their employers on account of their membership of the society; and members of the latter society who leave work for which they have been paid unfinished, are subject to a fine and must return and finish the work or refund the money they had received. Members of the Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, are forbidden to inform non-members of vacant situations, and no member of the Warpdressers' Association may teach the trade to anyone without the sanction of the Committee. Both these societies keep "vacant books" in which are registered the names of members out of work, and all members are expected to inform the secretary or vacant book-keeper of any vacant situation of which they may hear.

(*g.*) *Objects* (*g.*) The objects of these societies fall under three main heads, viz., the provision of benefits, the maintenance of fair wages, and the regulation of the relations between the employers and the employed. The first two of these objects are common to all three associations, but the third is not mentioned by the Overlookers' Provident Union, No. 3, which aims at regulating the relations between the managers or overlookers themselves. This society also reminds its members that excellence of workmanship is required in order to maintain the supremacy of the trade of the district. The West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association desires to protect its members from unjust stoppages, or other injustice on the part of employers, and the Warpdressers' Association wishes to effect an amicable settlement of all disputes with employers by arbitration or otherwise [1].

Joint Boards. 374. Evidence was given by the representatives of the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association with regard to a Joint Committee which their association was then (November 1891) endeavouring to establish in conjunction with the Huddersfield Woollen Manufacturers' and Spinners' Association. It was stated that it had actually been agreed that such a Board should be formed consisting of six workmen and six employers, and that their first duty should be to draw up a minimum wages scale for the district. No decision had been arrived at with regard to a reference to arbitration in case the two sides of the Board should fail to agree [2]. No other Joint Committee in the woollen or worsted industries has been mentioned in either the oral or the written evidence, but it was said that in a few cases the employers allowed "mill committees" to be formed, which act as mediators between the operatives and the firm. Any grievance is then brought before the mill committee and investigated, and disputes are often avoided by this means. In such cases the operatives elect their own representatives on the committees, and pay them for the time thus employed by means of a voluntary yearly levy for the purpose. When women are employed in the mill they are often allowed proportional representation upon the mill committee [3].

[1] Tabulated Rules, Nos. 386, 388, 389. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CXXV. [2] Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 4947–4952, 5135–5138. [3] Digest, Vol. I., p. 19.

[§ 375.] General relations between employers and employed.

375. It has been pointed out that there is only one organisation of employers in the woollen industry, and that is merely a local one, whilst from the table of members in the associations of the employed it will be seen that the only organisation of any great importance or extent is the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weaver's Association, and that in this the percentage of unionists amongst all the employed in the industry is very small. In the oral evidence great stress was laid upon the defective organisation of the employers and operatives in the woollen industry as compared with those in the cotton industry, and the low wages in the former industry compared with those in the latter were attributed in great measure to this cause. The representative of the Batley district of the West Riding of Yorkshire Weavers' Association expressed a desire that the employers in that district should become organised, as those in the Huddersfield district had done, as he thought it would then be possible to promote joint action in securing a uniform rate of wages. It was suggested that one reason of the defective organisation of the operatives in this district was the preponderance of women, who do not care to subscribe to a union because they expect to give up work in the mills when they are married. The poverty and want of education of the workers generally, and the want of fellow-feeling amongst the various grades of operatives were other reasons assigned. Amongst the wool sorters it was said that organisation exists only where the men are ill-treated, and that those who are in regular employment will not join the association (1).

III. SCOTLAND AND IRELAND. Associations of employers.

376. Evidence has been received with regard to three associations of employers in connexion with the jute and linen industries of Scotland and Ireland. These are the Dundee Jute Trade Employers' Trade Committee, the Belfast Linen Merchants' Association, and the Flax Spinners' and Power Loom Linen Manufacturers' Association of Belfast. Only oral evidence has been received with regard to the first of these, and only written evidence with regard to the other two.

(a.) Their extent.

(a.) There is said to be no true association of employers in the jute trade, but the principal employers in the town of Dundee have appointed 16 of their number to form a Trade Committee, which considers all questions of general importance before they are referred to the general body of employers (2). No further evidence has been received with regard to the constitution or regulation of this Committee. The Linen Merchants' Association, which was established in 1872, represents 76 firms of linen merchants and manufacturers in Belfast and throughout the province of Ulster; and the Flax Spinners' Association represents 18 establishments in Belfast and the counties of Antrim, Armagh, Down, and Tyrone, which own about half of the entire machinery engaged in the industry (3).

(b.) Constitution and government.

(b.) Copies of the rules of the Linen Merchants' and Flax Spinners and Power Loom Linen Manufacturers' Associations have been sent to the Commission. In each case the government of the association is in the hands of a Council, a certain proportion of the members of which are elected annually. A chairman or president, secretary and treasurer are the chief officers, and in both societies the Council has the right of appointing Committees for special purposes. The Council meets quarterly or oftener if necessary, and a General Meeting is held annually, and at other times at the discretion of the Council. In the Linen Merchants' Association each firm has only one vote, but in the Flax Spinners' and Power Loom Linen Manufacturers' Association members are entitled to one vote for every 1,000 spindles and one for every 50 looms belonging to them or to the Company which they represent. The rules of the former association may be altered with the approval of two Council meetings, if the change is ratified by a general meeting, and in the latter association rules may be made or altered only at a general meeting after at least three days' notice has been given.

(c.) Conditions of membership and contributions.

(c.) The only necessary qualification for membership in each case is to be an employer or member of a firm engaged in the branch of the linen trade in question, and members are required to give a written notice of withdrawal, which in one case must be of three months' length. There is an annual subscription of 1*l.* 1*s.* and upwards, at the discretion of the Council, to the Linen Merchants Association, whilst members of the Flax Spinners and Power Loom Linen Manufacturers' Association contribute on every spindle and loom in their works, at a rate settled each year by the annual meeting (1). [§ 376 (c.)]

(d.) Trade regulations and disputes.

(d.) Neither of these associations makes any provision in its rules for the regulation of the conditions of employment or for action with regard to trade disputes. It is stated, however, in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission that the Flax Spinners and Power Loom Linen Manufacturers' Association does take action with respect to regulating wages and the conditions of labour and in dealing with matters of difference arising between employers and workpeople, but in such cases is guided in its action by the special circumstances of the case, and not by any fixed system or method. The Linen Merchants' Association has not hitherto taken any official action with regard to wages or the conditions of employment but is ready to arbitrate in case of disputes between members and their workpeople (2).

(e.) Objects.

(e.) The settlement of disputes by arbitration or otherwise is mentioned as one of the objects of the latter association, which also desires to promote the interests of the linen trade by bringing Bills before Parliament or by other means. The objects of the Flax Spinners and Power Loom Linen Manufacturers' Association are to serve as a medium of communication between the members of the trade, and to promote uniform action amongst them so far as is possible without restricting individual liberty (3).

Organisations of employed.

377. The principal associations of employed in the jute and linen industries in Scotland and Ireland with regard to which oral or written evidence has been received are the East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Association, the Dundee and District Yarn Dressers' Association, the Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives' Union, the Scotch Mill and Factory Workers' Federal Union, and the Brechin and Forfar branches of the same, the Irish Linen Lappers' Trade Union, the Belfast and North of Ireland Power Loom Tenters' Trade Union, and the Belfast Flax Roughers' Trade Union. The rules of all these societies, with the exception of the Irish Linen Lappers' Trade Union, have been laid before the Commission, and any information which has been procurable with regard to the membership, contributions, or benefits of the latter society has been incorporated in the tables below.

(a.) Their extent.

(a.) The Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives' Union extends over the district of Dundee, Montrose, Arbroath, Blairgowrie, Barrow-in-Furness, and Perth. All its members are engaged in the jute trade, with the exception of 500 persons at Perth, who are linen operatives. This society was established in 1885 through the agency of the Rev. H. Williamson, a minister of the Unitarian Church of Dundee, who has since held the office of honorary president in the society. His object in organising the workers, the large majority of whom are women, was to enable them to withstand any further reduction in their wages, and since the formation of the union wages have advanced 25 or 30 per cent., as the result of "solicitation" and without strikes. Mr. Williamson had founded similar unions in the districts of Arbroath, Montrose, Brechin, and Kirkcaldy, but in these places counter-movements had been set on foot (4). The Brechin Factory Workers' Union, which was at first united with the Dundee and District Mill and Factory Workers' Union, separated from it in 1888, and in the following year became federated with the Scotch Mill and Factory Workers' Federal Union (5). The latter society comprises the local unions of mill and factory workers at Arbroath, Brechin, Forfar, Kirkcaldy, and Kirrimuir, the Scottish Bleachfield Workers' Union, the Aberdeen Workwomen's Society, and the Ayr Woollen Workers' Society. The Forfar branch of this society was established in 1885 (6). The numbers of male and female members of the various societies, together with the per-centages of females and of unionists in the whole number of workpeople employed are given in a table below.

(1) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 18, 19, 20, 23, 25. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 31. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 771.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 446 and 447. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 771. (3) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 446 and 447. (4) Digest, Vol. I. pp. 32, 33. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 10. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 11,259, 11,264.

[§ 377 (a.)] TABLE showing the Numbers of the Members of Trades Unions in Scotland and Ireland, the Number of Workpeople employed, and the Per-centages of Females and of Unionists. [§ 377 (a.)]

References.	Associations of Employés.	Number of Unionists.			Total Number Employed.			Per-centage of Females.	Per-centage of Unionists.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
Digest, Vol. I., pp. 31 and 32. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 359.	Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives Union.	710 (1)	5,235	5,945	22,750	42,250	65,000 (2)	88·05 (of unionists), 65 (of total).	9·1
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 103.	East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Association.	346	None	346 (3)	500	None	500 (4)	None	69·2
Digest, Vol. I., p. 34 - Answers &c., pp. 859 and 103.	Forfar Factory Workers' Union.	700	1,411	2,111	900	1,900	2,800	66·84 (of unionists), 67·85 (of total).	75·39
Digest, Vol. II., p. 10 -	Brechin Factory Workers' Union.	361	764	1,125	733	1,467	2,200	67·91 (of unionists), 66·68 (of total).	51·13
Digest, Vol. II., p. 12 -	Irish Linen Lappers' Trade Union.	435	None	435 (5)	600	None	600	None	72·5

(1) It was stated that of the 5,945 members of the Union, about 12 per cent. were men. (2) It was stated in the oral evidence that from 65,000 to 70,000 operatives are employed in the jute trade in Great Britain. In a letter dated July 7th, 1893, Mr. Walker gave the total as 65,000, of whom 50,000 belong to Dundee, 8,500 to the district, and 6,500 to other parts of England, Scotland, and Ireland. He stated that 65 per cent. of this total were females. (3) It was stated that the number of members on the roll was 346, but of these only 200 were "financial" members, the remainder being in arrears. (4) There were said to be from 150 to 160 non-unionists. If the exact arithmetic mean, 155, were taken, therefore, it would give a total of 501. (5) The number of members was said to be from 420 to 450. The arithmetic mean of these two numbers has therefore been taken.

(b.) Constitution and government.

(b.) The form of government is very similar in all those societies whose rules have been obtained. In most cases the Executive consists of a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and a Committee of from three to 22 members, and there are also two or three trustees, and two or more auditors. The officers are generally elected at general meetings of the society, and hold office for a year or for six or three months. The Executive Committee meets every week or month, or in one case fortnightly, and general meetings of members are held in the different societies every month, quarter, or half-year. Special Committee or general meetings may also be summoned when necessary at the desire of the president or of a certain number of members. The Executive of the Scottish Mill and Factory Workers' Federal Union is a Federal Council, consisting of representatives from the local unions, in the proportion of one delegate for every 500 members, appointed annually. Disputes between members of the East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Protective Federal Association and of the Belfast and North of Ireland Power Loom Tenters' Trade and Benevolent Trade Union may be referred to the arbitration of three members, and in the latter society and the Flax Roughers' Trade Union members may appeal from a decision of the Committee to the next general meeting. Alterations in the rules may be made by the majority of the members present at a special or ordinary general meeting. In the East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Protective Federal Association the majority must consist of two-thirds of the members present and notice of the proposed alterations must have been given at the previous quarterly meeting, and in the Belfast and North of Ireland Power Loom Tenters' Trade and Benevolent Trade Union propositions for alterations of the rules must be signed by 12 members and laid before the Committee, which must summon a special general meeting to decide them. All alterations in rules of unions federated to the Scottish Mill and Factory Workers' Federal Union must be submitted to the Federal Council for approval.

(c.) Contributions and benefits.

(c.) Particulars with regard to the entrance fees, contributions, and benefit funds of the various associations are given in the tables below. Members who fall into arrears with their contributions are in three societies subject to a fine which increases with the amount of the arrears. In other cases members are suspended from all benefits after their arrears have reached a certain amount; and in all the societies there is a fixed maximum limit of arrears, and members who exceed this are excluded.

TABLE of Contributions to various Trades Unions in the Linen and Jute Industries in Scotland and Ireland.

Dundee and District Yarn Dressers' Association. No. 402.	Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives' Union.	East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Association. No. 400.	Scotch Mill and Factory Workers' Federal Union.	Brechin Factory Workers' Union.	Forfar Factory Workers' Union.	Irish Linen Lappers' Trade Union.	Belfast and North of Ireland Power Loom Tenters' Trade Union. No. 401.	Belfast Flax Roughers' Trade Union. No. 403.
1. *Entrance Fee.*								
1*s.* for full members; 6*d.* for assistants.	3*d.*, 6*d.*, or 9*d.* according to benefits desired. 1½*d.* for half-timers.	2*s.* 6*d.*	—	3*d.* for adults, 1½*d.* for half-timers.	3*d.* for adults, 1½*d.* for half-timers.	—	Age 20 to 25, 1*l.* „ 25 „ 28, 1*l.* 5*s.* „ 28 „ 30, 1*l.* 10*s.* „ 30 „ 32, 1*l.* 15*s.* „ 32 „ 35, 2*l.* „ 35 „ 38, 2*l.* 5*s.* „ 38 „ 40, 2*l.* 10*s.* Trade members pay 5*s.* less in each case than the scale, and if aged from— 40 to 45, 2*l.* 45 „ 50, 3*l.*	1*s.*
2. *Contribution.*								
3*d.* a week for full members; 1½*d.* a week for assistants.	1*d.*, 2*d.*, or 3*d.* a week according to the benefits desired. ½*d.* a week for half-timers.	3*d.* a week levies are raised when necessary.	1*d.* or 2*d.* a week, according to benefits desired. ½*d.* a week for half-timers.	1*d.*, 2*d.*, or more a week, according to benefits desired. ½*d.* a week for half-timers.	1*d.*, 2*d.*, or 4*d.* a week for adults, and ½*d.* or 1*d.* a week for half-timers, according to benefits desired.	6*d.* a week	1*s.* a week for full members. 8*d.* a week for trade members. A levy of 1*s.* is raised on the death of a member. If the funds fall below 1*l.* a member a levy may be raised which may not exceed 3*s.* a member in three months.	4*d.* a week.

377 (c.)] TABLE of Benefits granted by various Trades Unions in the Linen and Jute Industries in Scotland and Ireland. [§ 377 (c.)]

Benefit.	Dundee and District Yarn Dressers' Association. No. 402.	Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives' Union.	East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Association. No. 400.	Scotch Mill and Factory Workers' Federal Union.	Brechin Factory Workers' Union.
Accident benefit	—	Amount fixed by the Committee, but not more than 4*s.* a week for five weeks.	Grants may be made to members incapacitated from work by accident.	—	—
Dispute benefit	10*s.* a week to full members; 5*s.* a week to assistants. Victimised members receive the amount of their wages, if not more than 25*s.* a week until they obtain work or assistance in leaving the district.	The Committee fixes the amount payable to members on strike or locked out. Members who pay 2*d.* or 3*d.* contributions receive double or treble benefit. No benefit is allowed if the funds of the union fall below 50*l.* Victimised members receive legal or other assistance.	Victimised members receive the amount of their wages, if not more than 25*s.* a week, until they obtain work, or assistance in leaving the district.	6*s.* or 12*s.* a week according to contribution. 3*s.* a week for half-timers.	6*s.* a week for every 1*d.* of weekly contribution. Victimised members are protected.
Distress benefit	—	—	—	—	—
Emigration benefit	—	—	Grants may be made to members who wish to emigrate.	—	—
Funeral benefit	—	An allowance is made to the friends of a deceased member of 10*s.* for the first year, and 5*s.* for each year of membership, up to 3*l.*	—	—	—
Out-of-work benefit	—	An allowance is made to members out of work through a break-down of machinery.	7*s.* a week for 13 weeks; 5*s.* a week for 13 weeks, but not more than 7*l.* 16*s.* in 12 months.	—	—
Sick benefit	—	—	—	—	—
Superannuation benefit.	—	—	Grants may be made to members incapacitated from work by old age or infirmity.	—	—
Travelling benefit	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE of Benefits granted by various Trades Unions in the Jute and Linen Industries in Scotland and Ireland—*continued.*

Benefit.	Forfar Factory Workers' Union.	Irish Linen Lappers' Trade Union.	Belfast and North of Ireland Power Loom Tenters' Trade Union. No. 401.	Belfast Flax Roughers' Trade Union. No. 403.
Accident benefit	—	—	40*l.* if permanently disabled.	—
Dispute benefit	Amount fixed by Committee.	15*s.* a week.	14*s.* a week, as long as the society thinks fit.	12*s.* a week.
Distress benefit	—	—	—	—
Emigration benefit	—	—	—	—
Funeral benefit	1*l.* on death of member contributing 1*d.* a week. 2*l.* on death of member contributing 2*d.* a week.	—	Full members 7*l.* and levy of 1*s.* on each member, and 5*l.* on death of wife. Trade members 5*l.* and levy of 1*s.* on each member, and 3*l.* on death of wife.	6*l.* on the death of a member; 4*l.* on the death of a member's wife.
Out-of-work benefit	—	10*s.* a week for length of time varying with length of membership.	10*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 7*s.* 6*d.* a week for 13 weeks. 5*s.* a week until work is obtained.	—
Sick benefit	—	—	10*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 7*s.* 6*d.* a week for 13 weeks. 5*s.* a week until recovery.	—
Superannuation benefit.	—	—	If unable to work at the trade:— 7*s.* a week after 20 years' membership. 8*s.* a week after 25 years' membership. 10*s.* a week after 30 years' membership.	—
Travelling benefit	—	—	—	—

[§ 377 (d.)]

(d.) *Funds.* (d.) The funds are in most cases banked by the treasurer in the names of the trustees, the name of the particular bank in which they are to be deposited being generally mentioned in the rules. The rules of the Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives' Union mention various modes of investment, which may be adopted, but expressly exclude investments in building or loan societies, joint stock banks, or any personal securities.

(e.) *Dispute regulations.* (e.) Members of the Flax Roughers' Trade Union, who are engaged in a dispute with their employer, must inform the president and Committee, whose duty it is to investigate the matter and endeavour to effect an amicable settlement. A strike may not be authorised unless by the consent of a general meeting or the vote of the trade taken by circulars. Members of the Dundee and District Yarn Dressers' Protective Association and the Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives' Union may not strike without the consent of the Committee. The rules of the latter society require that an effort shall be made to refer any dispute about wages or hours to arbitration, and that the Committee shall protect any victimised members. The Scottish Mill and Factory Workers' Federal Union may only support strikes which have been entered upon by the vote of two-thirds of the Federal Council, but the federated unions may take part in local strikes independently of the Federal Union.

(f.) *Minor regulations.* (f.) A fine is imposed upon members of the East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Protective Federal Association who boast of their independence towards their employers, and no support is given to those who lose their employment through misconduct. Members of this society, of the Dundee and District Yarn Dressers' Protective Association, and of the Flax Roughers' Trade Union are subject to a fine if they assist non-members to obtain work, and must try to persuade their fellow workmen to become members. Members of the Belfast and North of Ireland Power Loom Tenters' Trade and Benevolent Trade Union who take charge of more than an average number of looms without the sanction of the society, are expelled, and those of the Flax Roughers' Trade Union who do overwork or transgress the shop regulations are subject to a fine. Members of the East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Protective Federal Association and of the Dundee and District Yarn Dressers' Protective Association are required to inform the secretary as soon as possible, or within 24 hours, of any vacancy of which they may hear.

(g.) *Objects.* (g.) The provision of benefit funds and the protection of the members' interests are the main objects of these societies. The East of Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Protective Federal Association and the Dundee and District Yarn Dressers' Protective Association also wish to promote a friendly feeling among members, and the Flax Roughers' Trade Union desires to regulate the dealings between members and non-members, and the relations between workmen and masters in the trade[1].

General relations between employers and employed.

378. No joint committee or board of conciliation was mentioned in connexion with these industries. It was stated, however, that the formation of the Jute Trade Employers' Trade Committee in Dundee had made it very much easier for the operatives to approach their employers than it had been before, and that friendly and courteous relations had now been established between the two organisations, although at first the employers had endeavoured to boycott the union[2].

IV. MINOR TEXTILE INDUSTRIES. Organisations of employers.

379. The minor textile industries, with regard to which oral or written evidence has been received, are the carpet, silk, lace and rope manufacturing industries.

(a.) *Their extent.* (a.) Copies of the rules of the Silk Association of Great Britain and Ireland, which was founded in 1887, and of the Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association, founded in 1869, have been sent to the Commission, but no further evidence has been given with regard to these associations of employers[3]. It was stated, in the oral evidence, that two associations of employers existed in the carpet manufacturing industry, one of which regulates prices and other matters outside the interests of the workmen, whilst the other fixes the rate of wages and considers any difficulties which may arise with the workmen. The latter association was said to be practically in abeyance, because no occasion had arisen for it to meet during several years, but it still exists as an institution, and would be called together in case of necessity[4]. No further evidence has been received with regard to the constitution and rules of these associations, and no mention has been made of any association of employers in the rope making trade.

[§ 379 (a.)]

(b.) *Constitution and government.* (b.) The executive of the Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association consists of a Committee of 13 members, together with the principal officers, and that of the Silk Association of a Council of at least 25 members with the principal officers. The latter association is divided into districts or sections each of which is represented by five councilmen, with one additional representative for every ten members in the district or section. Any Chamber of Commerce affiliated to the Association may also annually appoint a representative upon the Council. The Council has power to appoint Committees to transact special business when necessary. In both associations an annual general meeting or Conference is held, and special general meetings may be summoned by the secretary on the request of the Committee or Council, or of a specified number of members, a few days' notice of such meetings being required. Members of the Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association have at general meetings one vote for every five machines for which they subscribe, but at Committee meetings only one vote each, and only one partner in any firm may vote at a Committee meeting. The chief officers in both associations are a president, vice-president, treasurer and secretary, in addition to whom the Silk Association appoints one auditor, and the Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association two auditors and three trustees. Alterations in the rules of either association may be made only at an annual or special general meeting after a certain length of notice has been given. In the Silk Association such alterations in the rules must obtain the sanction of a two-thirds majority of the members present, and in the Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association they must have been proposed by five members.

(c.) *Conditions of membership and contributions.* (c.) Any silk manufacturers, merchants, dyers, finishers and others who have a *bonâ fide* interest in the silk industry may become members of the Silk Association on payment of an annual subscription of from 1*l.* 1*s.* to 5*l.* 5*s.*, each 1*l.* 1*s.* subscribed giving a right to one vote. The subscription of members of the Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association is fixed annually at so much for every machine worked, but any member who does not wish to pay on all his machines may send a registered number to the secretary, indicating for which machines he pays. A majority of two-thirds at a special general meeting may levy an additional rate on each machine if necessary. Plain net manufacturers pay only half contributions, and are entitled to half benefits. A specified length of notice of withdrawal is required from members of either association.

(d.) *Benefits and funds.* (d.) Members of the Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association may claim pecuniary assistance if their case is approved by the Committee, and sanctioned by a majority of two-thirds at a special general meeting. The Council of the Silk Association has power to apportion part of the funds to form and support libraries and technical museums, or lectures and scientific classes.

(e.) *Dispute regulations.* (e.) The Silk Association makes no provision for disputes with workpeople, but the Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association requires that no lock-out shall take place unless there is a majority of two-thirds in favour of it, and that when a strike occurs against any member, the names of the men on strike must be sent to the association, and no member may employ men on strike belonging to any factory in respect of which the funds of the association have been voted. In order to prevent disputes between employers and operatives, this association endeavours to work harmoniously with the Lace Trade Board of Conciliation and Reference.

(f.) *Objects.* (f.) The objects of these two associations are very dissimilar in character. The Silk Association wishes "to promote and maintain the silk industry of Great "Britain and Ireland in all its branches, and encourage "the production of raw silk in India and our colonies; "to collect and disseminate amongst its members "useful information and statistics affecting manufacture "and commerce in silk; and to promote technical, "commercial and linguistic education, and any ne-"cessary Parliamentary legislation." The Nottingham Lace Manufacturers' Association, on the other hand, restricts its action to the regulation of the relations between employers and operatives, and wishes "to "promote the trade interests of members by the "introduction and settlement of the best trade rules "and rates of wages, by taking common action on all

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 400-3. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendices XL. and CXXXI. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol, I., 11,028. Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (3) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 444 and 445. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 57.

[§ 379 (*f.*)] "questions affecting the relations between employers "and employed, and resisting unjust demands on the "part of the employed "(1).

[§ 380 (*a.*)]

380. Written evidence has been received with regard to the United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association, the Kidderminster Power Loom Carpet Weavers' Mutual Defence and Provident Association, the Silk Dressers' Trade Society, the Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters, the Associated Trimming Weavers' Society of Leek, the Aberdeen Rope and Twine Spinners and Hemp Dressers' Union, and the East London Rope Makers' Union, and the rules of all these societies, with the exception of that last-named, have been laid before the Commission. This same society is also the only one with regard to which oral evidence was given.

(*a.*) The United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association extends over Heckmondwike, Dewsbury, Wakefield, Leeds, Durham, Kendal, Holme, and Barnard Castle in England, and Ayr, Kilmarnock, Aberdeen, and Bannockburn in Scotland, and contains a very large proportion of the operatives in these districts (1). The Silk Dressers' Trade Society extends over Rochdale, Macclesfield, Horbury, Congleton, Galgate, Brighouse, Halifax, Nottingham, Longway Bridge, and Bentham; but the Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters, established in 1886, and the Associated Trimming Weavers' Society, established in 1871, are both small societies confined to Leek only (2). The East London Rope Makers' Union is composed entirely of women engaged in the jute and rope-making industries in the East End of London, and will be dealt with in the Summary on the Employment of Women. [See §§ 763 (p. 543, 1st col.) and 769, &c.] It was established in 1889 (3).

The numbers of male and female members of these societies, together with the percentages of females and of unionists in the whole number of workpeople employed, are given in a table below.

TABLE showing the Number of Members of various Trades Unions in the minor Textile Industries, the Number of Workpeople employed, and the Percentages of Females and Unionists.

References.	Associations of Employed.	Number of Unionists.			Total Number employed.			Percentage of Females.	Percentage of Unionists.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p, 109.	United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association.	982	None	982	1,022	None	1,022	None	96·08
Answers &c., p. 105 - -	Silk Dressers' Trade Society	590	None	590	950	None	950	None	62·1
Answers &c., p. 104 -	Aberdeen Rope and Twine Spinners' and Hemp Dressers' Union.	70	None	70	110	20	130	15·38	53·84
Answers &c., p. 859. Digest, Vol. I., p. 42.	East London Ropemakers' Union.	None	260	260 (1)	Not known.	1,960	1,960 (2) Women only.	All Unionists.	13·26 Of women only.

(1) In the oral evidence this number was given as 250. (2) In the oral evidence this number was given as 2,500. } According to these numbers the percentage would be 10 per cent. of women only.

[§ 381 (*b.*) *Constitution and government.*

(*b.*) The government of the various societies is very similar. In all cases there is an executive body, styled Committee, Managing Trade Committee, or General Committee of Management, which consists of the principal officers and generally from five to seven other members. In the Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters the Managing Trade Committee contains one member from each twisting shed, and an additional member for every 20 members in the shed. The principal officers in all the societies are a president, secretary, and treasurer, two auditors, and from two to five trustees; these societies have also a vice-president, and two an assistant secretary. The five committeemen in the United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association are elected by the district in which the General Committee of Management is located, and this must not be in the same country for more than two consecutive years, unless it is so decided by the vote of a three-fourths majority at the annual delegate meeting. There is a governing branch also in the Silk Dressers' Trade Society which has the right of appointing the seven committeemen. The three largest societies of which the rules have been received have annual delegate meetings, which are attended in the United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association by six representatives from England and four from Scotland, chosen by the various districts; in the Kidderminster Power Loom Carpet Weavers' Mutual Defence and Provident Association by one or two representatives from each factory according to the number of members, and in the Silk Dressers' Trade Society by one delegate from each branch. In the three smaller societies meetings are held annually, half-yearly, or in one case weekly. Special general or delegate meetings may usually be summoned by the chief officers, or on the request of a certain number of members. Regulations for the government of districts or branches according to the same method as the central government are laid down in the rules of the United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association, and the Silk Dressers' Trade Society, whilst in the Kidderminster Carpet Weavers' Mutual Defence and Provident Association the members at each factory appoint a local Committee, secretary, and auditors. Members of the Silk Dressers' Trade Society who have any dispute with the branch Committee may appeal to a general branch meeting, and from this to the central Executive Committee, whose decision is final. In the Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters, the Associated Trimming Weavers' Society, and the Aberdeen Rope and Twine Spinners' and Hemp Dressers' Union, members may appeal against a decision of the Committee to that of a general meeting, and in the last-named society a further appeal is allowed to arbitration. In this case the member concerned must appoint one arbitrator and the Committee another, and their decision, or that of an umpire chosen by them, must be final. Alterations in the rules of these societies may generally be made only by a special general meeting, or by the annual general meeting if a specified length of notice of such alterations has been given. The rules of the Silk Dressers' Trade Society may be altered at the annual delegate meeting only if three months' notice has been given, and the proposed alterations have been voted on by each branch. If the alterations are proposed by the Executive Committee, two months' notice is sufficient.

[§ 382 (*c.*) *Contributions and benefits.*

(*c.*) Particulars with regard to the entrance fees, contributions, and benefit funds of the various associations are given in the tables below. Members who allow their contributions to run into arrears are usually suspended from all benefits when the arrears have reached a certain amount, and are excluded from the society if they are allowed to run on for a further specified period. In three societies members are subject to a fine of 1*s.* or 6*d.* if they have not paid up all contributions upon the half-yearly or annual meeting night. Any district or branch of the United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association which has not paid its contributions within two months of the time when they are due, is charged 5 per cent. interest upon such contributions.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 444 and 445.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 109. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 105. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 42.

[§ 380 (c.)] TABLE of Contributions to various Trades Unions in the Minor Textile Industries. [§ 380 (c.)]

—	United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association. No. 395.	Power Loom Carpet Weavers' Mutual Defence and Provident Association, Kidderminster. No. 396.	Silk Dressers' Trade Society. No. 397.	Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters, Leek. No. 398.	Associated Trimming Weavers' Society, Leek. No. 399.	Aberdeen Rope and Twine Spinners' and Hemp Dressers' Union. No. 405.
Entrance fee -	Amount not stated.	Full members :— Age on entry 21 to 25, 5*s.* „ „ 25 to 30, 10*s.* „ „ 30 to 35, 15*s.* „ „ 35 to 40, 20*s.* Trade members :— Age below 50, 2*s.* 6*d.* „ above 50, 5*s.*	Full members :— Age on entry 20 to 25, 8*s.* „ „ 25 to 30, 6*s.* „ „ 30 to 35, 7*s.* 6*d.* „ „ 35 to 40, 10*s.* Trade members :— Age on entry, 20 to 25, 5*s.* „ „ 25 to 30, 6*s.* „ „ 30 to 40, 7*s.* 6*d.* „ „ 40 to 50, 10*s.*	5*s.*	Amount not stated.	7*s.* 6*d.*
Contribution	6*d.* a quarter. A special levy may be raised when necessary. Districts may raise levies for local purposes.	1*s.* a fortnight for full members. 6*d.* a fortnight for trade members. A general meeting may raise a special levy when the funds are reduced to 2,000*l.* Branches may raise levies for local purposes.	8*d.* a week for full members. 5*d.* a week for trade members. The Executive Committee may increase the contribution when the funds are below 25*s.* a member. Special levies may be raised during strikes.	6*d.* a week. The contribution may be increased when the funds are below 500*l.*	6*d.* a week, or as determined by the society.	3*d.* a week.

TABLE of Benefits given by various Trades Unions in the Minor Textile Industries.

Benefits.	United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association. No. 395.	Power Loom Carpet Weavers' Mutual Defence and Provident Association, Kidderminster. No. 396.	Silk Dressers' Trade Society. No. 397.	Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters, Leek. No. 398.	Associated Trimming Weavers Society, Leek. No. 399.
Accident benefit	—	25*l.* is granted to members permanently incapacitated.	—	—	—
Dispute benefit	Victimised members are supported from the funds.	Victimised members receive not more than 20*s.* a week.	10*s.* a week until the end of the strike. Victimised members receive 24*s.* a week until they obtain work.	Amount determined by trade committee in case of strikes. Victimised members receive 20*s.* a week.	—
Distress benefit	—	A grant may be made to any member who is obliged to go into a poor house or lunatic asylum.	—	—	—
Emigration benefit.	—	After 4 years' membership, 3*l.* to go to America, or 5*l.* to go to Australia or Cape of Good Hope. After 7 years' membership, 7*l.* to go to Australia or New Zealand.	—	—	—
Funeral benefit	—	Full members :— After 1 to 4 years' membership, 5*l.* After 4 to 8 years' membership, 7*l.* 10*s.* After 8 to 16 years' membership, 10*l.* Over 16 years' membership, 12*l.* Half may be received on the death of a wife. Members who have been superannuated 5 to 8 years, 2*l.*, and more than 8 years, 3*l.* Trade members :— After 1 or 2 years' membership, 1*l.* or 2*l.* After 5 years' membership, 3*l.* After 8 years' membership, 4*l.* After 10 years' membership, 5*l.*	6*l.* on death of member. 4*l.* on death of member's first wife. 2*l.* on death of member's second wife.	After 6 months' membership, 5*l.*, and for every additional year an additional 10*s.* to a maximum of 10*l.* If a member has left the society and re-enters, 10*s.* for each re-admission is deducted from the amount payable.	After 1 year's membership, 8*l.*, and for every additional year an additional 10*s.*, up to a maximum of 10*l.* 3*l.* of these amounts may be paid on the death of a wife.
Out - of - work benefit.	—	—	10*s.* a week for 13 weeks; 5*s.* a week until work is obtained.	—	—
Sick benefit -	—	8*s.* a week for 20 weeks. 4*s.* „ „ „ 2*s.* 6*d.* a week until recovery. The services of a doctor are provided.	8*s.* a week for 13 weeks. 6*s.* „ „ „ 5*s.* „ until recovery.	—	—
Superannuation benefit.	—	Members over 50 years of age who are incapacitated from regular work receive :— After 20 years' membership, 2*s.* 6*d.* a week. After 25 years' membership, 3*s.* 6*d.* a week.	—	After 20 years' membership, 2*s.* a week.	—

380 (d.)] *Funds.*

(*d.*) The funds are, as a rule, to be banked in the names of the trustees or principal officers, or to be invested in such securities as a general meeting may decide, or as are enumerated in the rules of the society. The rules of the Silk Dressers' Trade Society forbid any money being deposited in the hands of private tradesmen or firms.

Dispute ulations.

(*e.*) In both the associations of carpet weavers any trade dispute must, if possible, be settled locally by the branch Committee or secretary, but if they fail it must be referred to the General Committee, which may not sanction a strike, except with the consent of the majority of the trade. In the Kidderminster Power Loom Carpet Weavers' Mutual Defence and Provident Association such consent may be given only by the votes of two-thirds of the members present at a special delegate meeting, taken by ballot. According to the rules of the Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters no strike may take place until the Managing Trade Committee has requested the employers to submit the question at issue to a board of arbitration chosen by themselves and the members of the Society. If they refuse, the matter must be referred to a special general meeting. The rules of the Aberdeen Rope and Twine Spinners' and Hemp Dressers' Union also require the Committee to attempt a settlement by arbitration or other lawful means, before a strike is entered upon.

) *Minor ulations.*

(*f.*) All these societies, with the exception of the Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters, lay down some regulations with regard to apprenticeship. The United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association and the Associated Trimming Weavers' Society only allow one apprentice to be employed for every seven journeymen or seven looms, and apprentices to carpet weaving, trimming weaving, and rope and twine spinning must serve for six years, and those to hemp dressing for four years. The members of the Silk Dressers' Trade Society are required to keep the number of apprentices within due bounds, and no member of the Kidderminster Power Loom Carpet Weavers' Mutual Defence and Provident Association may permit any ineligible person to be taught weaving or to do the work of a weaver. No member of the latter society may work overtime, or may pay for having his work repaired after it has left the loom, under penalty of a fine or suspension from benefits. In two societies a fine is imposed upon any member who boasts of his independence towards his employer, and two refuse support to members who are discharged from their employment for neglect of work or other misconduct. The branch secretaries of the two associations of carpet weavers are required to keep lists of the looms in their districts which are working or not at work, and the general secretary of the Silk Dressers' Trade Society is required to send a list of unemployed members every month to each branch secretary, and all members to report any vacancy of which they may hear to their branch secretary within 24 hours.

) *Objects.*

(*g.*) The rules of the United English and Scotch Carpet Weavers' Association contain no list of objects, but the provision of benefits is mentioned as an object by all the other societies, with the exception of the Aberdeen Rope and Twine Spinners' and Hemp Dressers' Union, which mentions as its only object the protection and improvement of the conditions of work. The Associated Trimming Weavers' Society and the Kidderminster Power Loom Carpet Weavers' Mutual Defence and Provident Association desire to maintain a fair rate of wages, and the latter society aims at regulating the supply of labour, the hours of work, and the relations of workmen and their employers. The Amalgamated Society of Silk Twisters wishes to promote the equitable settlement of all disputes.(1)

int ards.

381. The rules of the Board of Conciliation and Reference for the Lace Trade, Nottingham, have been sent to the Commission. This Board, which was established in 1868, consists of 13 representatives of the Lace Manufacturers' Association and 13 of the Amalgamated Society of Operative Lace Makers. On each side, six representatives are from the levers, four from the curtain, and three from the plain net trade, and all members serve for one year. The board elects annually a president, vice-president, treasurer, and two secretaries, and a Committee of Inquiry, which consists of four employers and four workmen, of whom two must represent the levers, one the plain net, and one the curtain branch on each side. All disputes referred to the Board are in the first instance investigated by this Committee, which may use its influence in settling them, but may not make any award. Should no settlement be thus effected, the dispute must be submitted to that section of the trade with which it is concerned, and if the section is unable to recommend a settlement it must be laid before the full Board, which must proceed to vote upon the question within a period of one month. In case of equal voting, the question must be referred within 14 days to two referees, one chosen by each side, who must appoint an assessor; and if the referees fail to give a decision within seven days, the assessor must be asked to give one within a similar period. The decision of either the referees or the assessor is final and binding upon both parties. If any member of either the employers' or the operatives' association is found guilty, after a careful inquiry, of not complying with the decisions of the Board in respect to the price per rack, &c., he must pay the whole or part of the expenses incurred in such inquiry, and, if an employer, the difference in wages from the time the complaint was made. The associations are held responsible for such payments on the part of their members, and the Amalgamated Society of Operative Lace Makers has full power to withdraw the workmen from the service of an employer who refuses to conform to this rule. The ordinary expenses incurred by the Board are borne equally by the operatives and the employers. It is a regulation of the Board that it will not investigate any dispute unless the operatives are at work.(1) This board is said to have been generally successful in preventing strikes and lock-outs, and for the last 10 years all disputes have been amicably arranged. It is regarded favourably by the more intelligent of the workmen as well as by the manufacturers as a body.(2) No information has been received with regard to any Joint Boards or Committees in the carpet, silk, or rope making trades, nor with regard to the general relations of the associations of employers and of employed in these industries. [§ 381.]

CLOTHING TRADES. Organisations of employers.

382. Evidence has been received with regard to three associations of employers in the clothing trades. These are the Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association, the Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Association and Leather Trades Protection Society, and the Master Tailors' Association, all of which have sent copies of their rules to the Commission.

(*a.*) *Their extent.*

(*a.*) The Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association represents 44 employers or establishments, who together employ a total of 4,500 workpeople, or about two-thirds of the whole number of operatives employed in Leeds.(3) The Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Association and Leather Trades Protection Society was founded in 1882, and now consists of all the boot manufacturers of any importance in London, and of certain leather merchants and boot manufacturers throughout the country.(4) The Master Tailors' Association, which was founded in 1890, includes some 800 firms amongst its members, and has established branches in all the principal towns in the United Kingdom from Perth and Inverness to Plymouth and Brighton, with the exception of London, where there is an independent association of master tailors.(5)

(*b.*) *Constitution and governmen*

(*b.*) The government of the association is in each case in the hands of an executive body, consisting of a Committee or Central Board of a certain number of ordinary members in addition to the principal officers. The officers are a president, one or more vice-presidents, a treasurer, one or more secretaries and auditors, and they are, as a rule, elected annually. The Committee of the Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Association and Leather Trades Protection Society is permitted to delegate any of its powers to a Sub-committee. There are annual or half-yearly general meetings of the members of these associations, and special general meetings must be summoned on the request of a specified number of members. The Master Tailors' Association is the only one which lays down any provisions for branch government, and these are on the same principles as those of the central government. Branches may be established in such centres as the local members and the central board may determine, or existing local associations may become branches by affiliation. Disputed questions which cannot be settled by the Committee or Central Board in any association

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 395-9, and 405.

(1) Tabulated Rules, No. 557. (2) Memorandum on the Rules o Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxvi. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 765; Digest, Vol. II., p. 21. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 12. (5) Digest Vol. II., pp. 29, 32.

[§ 382 (b.)] must be referred to a general meeting, and alterations of the rules may only be made by a general meeting, though the Committee generally has power to make bye-laws.

(c.) Conditions of membership and contributions. (c.) Members of the Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Association and Leather Trades' Protection Society may be merchants, manufacturers, or wholesale and retail traders in the leather, boot and shoe trades, or dependent industries, but members of the Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association must be *bonâ fide* boot manufacturers. The annual subscription in the latter society is 10*s.* for each firm, and in the former there is a minimum annual subscription of 10*s.* 6*d.*, which may be increased by the Committee. The branches of the Master Tailors' Association pay 10*s.* 6*d.* for each of their members to the central fund, and have power to levy local subscriptions. Each branch controls its own funds, and may not draw on the central fund except for special purposes, but the central board may pay the expenses of organising or extending any branch. The Committees of the Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association, and Shoe Manufacturers' Association and Leather Trades Protection Society have the control of the funds, which in the latter association must be applied solely to the promotion of the objects mentioned in the rules.

(d.) Dispute regulations (d.) Each branch of the Master Tailors' Association must appoint an Arbitration Committee, to which all disputes between a member and his workmen must be at once reported. If this Committee fails to effect a settlement, the matter must be undertaken by a branch general meeting, or finally by the Central Board. Disputes between members of the Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association and their workmen must also be referred to the Committee for settlement by arbitration, if possible. Lists of men out on strike are furnished to all members of this society, and any member who employs such a workman is subject to a penalty of 2*l.*

(e.) Minor regulations. (e.) Each branch of the Master Tailors' Association fixes a statement of maximum prices payable to workmen, and members of the Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association who adopt new machinery or systems of work are urged also to adopt the rate of wages usually paid by the firms who use such machinery or systems. If no firm in the town already uses the same, a special committee meeting must be called to consider the question. Members of this association are also urged to make inquiries through the secretaries as to the antecedents of persons applying for work, and are forbidden to offer any inducement to a workman to leave his present situation. Members of the Master Tailors' Association who are guilty of breaking any rule or of not complying with any decision of the association are subject to a penalty, and the Central Board may make it a condition of settlement with the operatives' unions that their members shall cease to work for such members until they comply with the regulations of the Board. The members of the Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Association and Leather Trade Protection Society are required to give notice to the secretary of any information they may receive concerning the affairs of an insolvent debtor, attempts to obtain goods on false pretences, or other matters affecting the interests of members.

(f.) Objects. (f.) The objects of the Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Association and Leather Trades Protection Society, are chiefly directed to the protection of the commercial interests of members, whilst those of the Master Tailors' Association are mainly concerned with the relations of employers and workmen or the conditions of employment. Thus the former society wishes to prosecute fraudulent debtors, to obtain the appointment of officers of the association as receivers or trustees of the estates of bankrupt persons who are indebted to members, to keep a register of indebted persons, and to communicate with mercantile and public bodies and with the law officers of the Crown, in order to suggest measures for the protection of trade, and the improvement of commercial law. The Master Tailors' Association desires to adopt a national time-log, to prevent the continued deterioration of workmen by classifying them and arranging a rate of payment such that the best workmen shall receive the highest wages, and by altering the system of apprenticeship, so as to provide a sufficient supply of well instructed and skilful journeymen tailors; to defend members in case of arbitrary strikes, and to provide for the friendly settlement of disputes or grievances in the trade. The Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association mentions no objects except the general ones of promoting the interests of the trade, and securing uniformity of action among manufacturers. [§ 382 (f.)]

Organisations of employed. 383. Oral or written evidence has been received with regard to 15 associations of employed in the various clothing trades. Three of these, viz., the United Clickers' and Rough Stuff Cutters' Trade Union, the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, and the Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers, belong to the boot and shoe making trade, and four, viz., the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, the Scottish National Operative Tailors' Trade Protection and Benefit Society, the International Tailors' Machinists' and Pressers' Union, and the Bristol Clothiers' Cutters' Trade Association, to the tailoring trade. Four societies are connected with the hosiery trade; these are the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation, the Leicester and Leicestershire Amalgamated Hosiery Union, the United Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Trade and Friendly Society, and the Amalgamated Hand Framework Knitters' Federation. The remaining societies connected with minor clothing industries, are the Amalgamated Society of Journeymen Felt Hatters, the Felt Hat Trimmers and Wool Formers' Association, the Operative Glovers' Society, and the Leicester and District Elastic Web, Garter, Strand, Tabb and Textile Brace Weavers' Trade Protection Association. The rules of all these societies, with the single exception of the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation, have been been laid before the Commission.(1)

(a.) Their extent. (a.) The United Clickers' and Rough Stuff Cutters' Trade Union extends throughout the United Kingdom and to some foreign countries, but the majority of its members belong to London and the district, where they form about two-thirds of the whole number of workpeople employed. The clickers of the Midland counties shoe towns are not yet members of this society. They formerly belonged to the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, but as "it did nothing for them" they gradually left it, and are now practically without any association.(2) The National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, which was formed in 1874, extends over the whole of the United Kingdom. Its principal centres in England are Leicester, London, Northampton, Kettering, Leeds, Norwich, Bristol, Stafford, and Higham Ferrers; in Scotland, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Arbroath, Dundee, and Kilmarnock; and in Ireland, Belfast, Dublin, and Cork. It now includes 45,000 members, of whom only about 600 belong to Dublin as some firms there do not recognise it. The number of members is larger in Belfast, although the firms are smaller in that town than in Dublin. Women form only about 5 per cent. of the union, because until recently no attempt was made to organise them. Since the society was formed it has spent 47,922*l.* 3*s.* on strike payment, 8,486*l.* 10*s.* 4*d.* on compensation for loss, 2,430*l.* 15*s.* 3*d.* on the management of disputes, 4,500*l.* on travelling benefit, 46,321*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* on sick and funeral benefits, and 6,427*l.* 0*s.* 3*d.* on the expenses of management. These sums, together with the estimated branch expenditure of 50,000*l.*, make a total of 166,086*l.* 17*s.* 3*d.*, and the sum available when evidence was given (February 24th, 1892) was 30,026*l.* 1*s.* 5*d.*(3) The Amalgamated Society of Tailors was established in 1866, and extends over England, Ireland, and some towns in Scotland, but the majority of Scottish towns form branches of the Scottish National Operative Tailors' Trade Protection and Benefit Society. The Amalgamated Society of Tailors has 19,000 members, of whom 3,000 are in London, and they form about one-tenth of the whole number of working tailors in the United Kingdom.(4) The Midland Counties Hosiery Federation extends over the counties of Nottinghamshire, Leicestershire, and Derbyshire, and includes about half of the entire number of workpeople who are eligible for membership.(5) The Amalgamated Hand Framework Knitters' Federation also extends over the counties of Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Leicestershire in England, and has, moreover, branches at Roxburgh and Dumfries in Scotland, but only contains a small proportion of the men engaged in hand framework knitting, and not any of the women.(6) The numbers of male and female members of the various societies, together with the percentages of females and of unionists in the whole number of workpeople employed, are given in the following table:—

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 240-52, 404. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 23. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 26. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 30. Tabulated Rules, Nos. 249 and 252. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 18. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 15.

[§ 383 (a.)] TABLE showing the Number of Members in various Trade Unions in the Clothing Trades, the Number of Workpeople employed, and the Percentages of Females and of Unionists. [§ 383 (a.)]

References.	Association of Employed.	Number of Unionists.			Total Number employed.			Percentage of Females.	Percentage of Unionists.
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.		
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 48.	United Clickers' and Rough Stuff Cutters' Trade Union.	1,600	None	1,600	2,500	None	2,500	None	72
Digest, Vol. II., p. 26. Additional correspondence.	National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives.	30,700	1,371	32,071 (42 508) (1)	—	—	—	4·27 (of unionists)	—
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 48.	North-East London Branch of above.	4,944	3	4,947	—	—	20,000	·06 (of unionists)	24·73
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 48.	Aberdeen Branch of above	100	None	100	130	20	150	13·33 (of total)	66·66
Digest, Vol. II., p. 30, Answers, &c., p. 51.	Amalgamated Society of Tailors.	18,200	None	18,200	—	—	182,000 (2)	None in union	10
Digest, Vol. II., p. 13	Midland Counties Hosiery Federation.	3,250	1,500	4,750 (3)	—	—	10,000 (4)	31·57 (of unionists)	47·5
Digest, Vol. II., p. 14. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 50.	Nottingham Branch of above.	1,500	400	1,900	1,950 (5)	6,900 (6)	8,850	77·96 (of total) 21·05 (of unionists)	21·47
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 49.	Leicester and Leicestershire Amalgamated Hosiery Union.	1,516	2,380	3,896	7,516	12,380	19,896	62·22 (of total) 60·98 (of unionists)	19·58
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 50.	United Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Federation.	600	350	950	700	2,350	3,050	77·04 (of total) 36·84 (of unionists)	31·14
Digest, Vol. II., p. 15. Evidence, Vol. II., 13,338-40.	Amalgamated Hand Framework Knitters' Federation.	1,441	None	1,441 (7)	5,000	Not known.	5,000 (8)	Not known	28·82 N.B.—But *see* note as to the nature of the total.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 49.	Operative Glovers' Society	220	None	220	—	—	520	None in union	42·3
Additional correspondence	Amalgamated Society of Journeymen Felt Hatters.	3,524	3,063	6,587	6,517	6,791	13,308 (9)	51·02 (of total) 46·5 (of unionists)	49·49

(1) These figures are taken from a letter from the secretary of the society, received July 24th, 1893. In addition to the 32,071 full members there are 10,437 members serving their probation, making a total of 42,508 members. In the oral evidence the total was given as 45,000. (2) The unionists were said to form about 10 per cent. of the total. (3) The membership was said to be from 4,500 to 5,000 persons. The arithmetic mean of these numbers has been taken. (4) The whole number of persons employed in the trade, including children, is about 30,000, of whom about 10,000 are eligible for membership of the union. (5) The number of male non-unionists was said to be 400 or 500. The arithmetic mean of this number has been taken. (6) The number of female non-unionists was said to be 6,000 or 7,000. The arithmetic mean of these numbers has been taken. (7) This number was given in the oral evidence with regard to the whole federation. The number returned in the answers to the Schedule of Questions is 678, but this may refer to the counties of Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, and Leicestershire only. (8) This total represents only the male workers in the Midland counties. The witnesses stated that they had "no cognizance of the great number of women who are employed," and that the statement of the number of men was approximate only. (9) These figures are taken from a letter from the secretary of the society, dated July 25th, 1893. The total numbers employed include those too young to join the union as well as adult non-unionists.

(b.) Constitution and Government.

(*b.*) With regard to the form of government there is a good deal of difference between the rather complicated regulations laid down by the extensive and highly organised societies, such as the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, the Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers, and the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, and the very simple constitution of the small societies, like the Operative Glovers' Society, or the Amalgamated Hand Framework Knitters' Federation. In all the societies the transaction of the ordinary business is in the hands of an Executive, which consists of certain officers and a Committee or Council, whilst the supreme authority is vested in a larger body, which, in the case of the larger unions, is usually a conference or delegate meeting, and in the smaller ones is often a general meeting of the members. In a few societies one branch is fixed upon as the permanent or temporary locality of the head office, and hence as the seat of government, and this branch has sometimes a peculiar importance in the society. Thus, in the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives the president and treasurer are elected by the votes of branches which are situated within five miles of the seat of government. The principal officers are usually a president, general secretary, treasurer, two or more trustees, and one or more auditors. In the Amalgamated Society of Tailors all the members of the Executive Council act as trustees. Some societies have vice-presidents, and some have assistant secretaries, in addition to the other officers. In the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives and the Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers, each district or section elects an official termed an investigator, whose duty it is to inquire into and attempt to settle all trade disputes. As already stated, in some of the larger societies Conferences or meetings of delegates are held either in place of, or in addition to, the general meetings. Thus, in the Amalgamated Society of Tailors a Conference is held once in three years, which is composed of delegates from the branches and districts, and to which foreign societies of tailors and the women's societies in the trade are also invited to send representatives, and triennial Conferences are also held in the Amalgamated Society of Journeymen Felt Hatters, whilst in the Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers a vote of the union on the propriety of holding a Conference is taken every three years. In the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives a Conference is held every two years, and in all other cases the delegate or general meeting is held annually or more frequently. Special Conferences, or delegate or general meetings may, as a rule, be summoned on the initiative of the Executive or of a certain number of members or of branches. Regulations for branch government are laid down by several societies, and in the larger ones the branches are grouped into districts, and these again have a separate government, which, however, follows more or less closely the form of the central administration. Members who are aggrieved by, or dissent from the decision of, one administrative section of the society may as a rule appeal from it to a higher one. Thus there is generally a right of appeal from a branch Executive to a branch general meeting, and from the latter to the district or central Executive, and in some cases there is a further appeal from this body to a general or delegate meeting, of which the decision must be final. Generally speaking, new rules may be added, or existing rules altered or rescinded, only by a general meeting or Conference of the society. In the majority of cases a certain length of notice of the proposed alterations must have been given before they can be discussed, and in the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, the Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers, the Amalgamated Society of Journeymen Felt Hatters, the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, and the Scottish National Operative Tailors Trade Protection and Benefit Society, such propositions must first be published in the quarterly report of the society.

(c.) Contributions and benefits.

(*c.*) The amounts of the entrance fees and contributions, and of the benefit funds granted by the various associations, are given in the tables below. Members

[§ 383 (c.)] who are in arrears with their contributions for a certain length of time, which varies in different societies from one to six months, are suspended from benefits until they have paid off their arrears and been a certain length of time "clear upon the books." If, however, they allow their arrears to run on for another stated period they are excluded from the society. In some societies members are subject to a fine if in arrears upon the annual meeting night, and in some cases a fine is imposed when the arrears reach a certain amount. [§ 383 (c.

TABLE of Contributions in the various Trades Unions in the Clothing Trades.

(Tabulated Rules, Nos. 240 to 252 and 404.)

—	United Clickers' and Rough Stuff Cutters' Trade Union. No. 240.	National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives. No. 241.	Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers. No. 242.	Amalgamated Society of Tailors. No. 249.	Scottish National Operative Tailors' Trade Protection and Benefit Society. No. 252.	International Tailors', Machinists', and Pressers' Union. No. 250.	Bristol Clothiers' Cutters' Trade Association. No. 251.
Entrance fee	1*s.*	Not less than 1*s.* Women, 6*d.*, entitled only to half benefits.	Shopmates who have not worked in society town 1*s.* If they have worked there more than six months 2*s.* Apprentices free if they join within three months after the expiration of apprenticeship. Clear members of other societies free. Journeymen pay 6*d.* Entrance fee to sick fund 1*s.*	Age under 25 years, 2*s.* 6*d.* Age 25 to 45 years, 6*d.* for each additional year. Apprentices in last year, 1*s.* For all benefits but sick:— Age under 30 years, 2*s.* 6*d.* Age 30 to 40 years, 5*s.* Age 40 to 45 years, 7*s.* 6*d.* For dispute benefit only, 2*s.* 6*d.* Tailors over 45 may pay 5*s.*, which entitles them to all but sick and superannuation benefits.	Age under 25 years 4*s.* „ 25 to 30 „ 5*s.* „ 30 to 35 „ 6*s.* „ 35 to 40 „ 8*s.* „ 40 to 45 „ 10*s.* „ 45 to 50 „ 12*s.* Apprentices joining in last year pay 1*s.* Trade members, 1*s.* 6*d.* New branches, 1*s.* 6*d.* a member.	1*s.*	2*s.* 6*d.*
Contribution	3*d.* Special levies raised during labour disputes.	Weekly contribution not less than 6*d.* Trade members, 4*d.* a week. Members of sick and funeral fund, and women, 3*d.* When trade or sick fund is below 1,000*l.* the council can raise levy of not more than 1*s.* Branches 4*d.* a member weekly.	1½*d.* a week, and 8*d.* a quarter. Sick fund contribution 3*d.* a week. Members leaving society for other work may pay 3*d.* a quarter in addition to usual contribution to belong to sick fund, and 2*d.* a quarter extra to funeral fund. Superannuated members may pay 8*d.* a quarter to the general fund. Levies can be raised when necessary.	Age under 40 years, 8*d.* a week. Age 40 to 45 years, 9*d.* a week. Members of all but the sick fund, and superannuated members, and those over 45 at time of entrance, pay 5½*d.* Emigrants and those who enter for dispute benefit only may contribute 2*d.* entitling them to funeral benefit only.	7*d.* a week. 3*d.* a week for trade members.	2*d.* a week subject to alterations. A levy may be raised when necessary.	3*d.* a week. Before a levy is raised the Secretary submits to the Executive a list of members in arrears and the amount they owe. Such members must contribute 1*s.* in addition to the sum levied each week.

TABLE of Contributions in the various Trades Unions in the Clothing Trades—*continued.*

—	Leicester and Leicestershire Amalgamated Hosiery Union. No. 246.	United Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Trade and Friendly Society. No. 247.	Amalgamated Hand Framework Knitters' Federation. No. 248.	Amalgamated Society of Journeyman Felt Hatters. No. 243.	Felt Hat Trimmers' and Wool Formers' Association. No. 244.	Operative Glovers' Society. No. 245.	Leicester and District Elastic Web, Garter, Strand, Tabb, and Textile Brace Weavers' Trade Protection Association. No. 404.
Entrance fee	1*s.* Women, 6*d.*	Age under 16, 2*s.* „ from 16 to 17, 3*s.* „ „ 17 to 18, 4*s.* „ „ 18 to 19, 6*s.* „ „ 19 to 20, 10*s.* „ „ 20 and upwards, 1*l.*	Amount not stated.	5*s.* London district, 10*s.* Persons over 65 enter for half benefits, pay half entrance fee. Apprentices in their last year if 21 years of age, free.	3*d.*	2*s.* 6*d.*	—
Contribution	6*d.* a week; women, 3*d.* or 2*d.* When funds are below 1*l.* a member a levy can be raised. Extra levy can be laid on members of the out-of-work fund.	1*s.* a week. Boys earning 10*s.* a week pay 6*d.* Superannuated members 6*d.* a quarter, which entitles them to funeral benefit only.	1*d.* a week. A levy may be raised if the funds sink to 100*l.*	6*d.* a week. Sick fund, 2*d.* a week. Apprentices and members 60 years old after 20 years' membership pay 4*d.* a week, or 3*d.* for all except sick benefit. Members leaving trade may contribute 2*d.* for funeral, or 4*d.* for sick and funeral benefits. If the funds are below 10*s.* a member a levy can be raised.	3*d.* a week. Members leaving trade pay 1*d.* a week, and are entitled to funeral benefit.	1*s.* a month. If the funds are too low to meet the claims upon them a levy can be raised.	Not less than 1*s.* 6*d.* a quarter.

[§ 333 (c.)] Table of Benefits in the various Trades Unions in the Clothing Trades. [§ 333 (c.)]

(Tabulated Rules, Nos. 240 to 252 and 404.)

Benefits.	United Clickers' and Rough Stuff Cutters' Trade Union. No. 240.	National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives. No. 241.	Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers. No. 242.	Amalgamated Society of Tailors. No. 249
Dispute benefit	Such sum as the funds allow is granted by the Committee.	If remaining in the branch after 13 weeks' membership, 1s. a day, after 26 weeks, 2s. a day, or 3s. a day if all the men are not ordered out. If member leaves his branch his wife receives 1s. a day and 3d. for each child under 13 for two weeks, after that 6d. a day, and 2d. for each child. Widowed members receive the same allowance for children, and single members supporting invalid parent, brother, or sister receive same as married members. Victimised members receive such amount as branch decides.	If member remains in town, 12s. a week for 10 weeks. If out of town, his wife receives 5s., and 2s. a week for 10 weeks for each child under 13 years of age. Victimised members receive not more than 2l.	Under one month's membership, 10s. a week. Under six months' membership, 12s. a week. After six months' membership, 15s. a week. Superannuated members, 15s., including superannuation benefit. Victimised members, standard rate of wages till employment is found.
Emigration benefit.	—	—	—	—
Funeral benefit	—	3l. on a member's death; 2l. on the death of his wife, or widowed mother if unmarried. No member may receive benefit for a second wife within three years from the death of the first.	5l. on a member's death; 3l. on the death of a member's wife or widow, if the latter has contributed 8d. a quarter. No member may receive benefit for second wife till five years after death of first.	After six months, 6l., and 4l. on the death of one wife. After 12 months, 10l., or 4l. on the death of a wife, and the remaining 6l. on the member's death. Members over 45 after six months receive 6l., or 2l. on death of one wife, and 4l. on their own death. No member can receive benefit for more than one wife.
Out-of-work benefit.	—	—	—	Members thrown out of work through infectious sickness in their homes, if not sick themselves, receive the same benefit as for dispute.
Sick benefit	—	10s. a week for 12 weeks in one year. No member may receive more than 35l. altogether. Women must not exceed 17l. 10s. except as a special grant.	10s. a week for 12 weeks; 5s. a week for six weeks more.	10s. a week for 13 weeks. 8s. " " " 6s. " " " 4s. " " " 3s. 6d. until recovery. Members who have received 18l. 0s. 4d. in two years, get 3s. 6d. until recovery, and are not entitled to further sick benefit till two years have elapsed since their recovery.
Superannuation benefit.	—	—	—	If 60 years of age after 20 years' membership, 5s. a week. After 12 years, 2s. 6d. a week until death.
Travelling benefit	—	A single man leaving branch during dispute, 10s. Married man 5s., or 10s. if his wife goes too, and rail or boat fare not exceeding 6s. Travelling books are issued which entitle members to receive 1s. 6d. a day. No member may receive more than 1l. 10s. a year.	A married man travelling during dispute gets 5s., or with family three weeks pay is advanced to him. A single man receives 1l. Travelling books are issued which entitle members to 20 reliefs of 1s. 6d. in provincial towns, and 2s. in London. Superannuated members receive 6d. in society towns.	Travelling cards are issued which entitle members to receive 1s. 4d. from any branch for 45 days between August 1st and March 31st. No benefit granted April, May, June, July, or November, unless by special order. Benefit not granted twice in the same town within six weeks.

Table of Benefits in the various Trades Unions in the Clothing Trades—*continued.*

Benefits.	Scottish National Operative Tailors' Trade Protection and Benefit Society. No. 252.	International Tailors', Machinists', and Pressers' Union. No. 250.	Bristol Clothiers' Cutters' Trade Association. No. 251.	Leicester and Leicestershire Amalgamated Hosiery Union. No. 246.	United Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Trade and Friendly Society. No. 247.
Dispute benefit	14s. a week.	2s. a day until dispute is settled.	1l. a week for eight weeks.	15s. a week for 17 weeks. 12s. 6d. " " " 10s. " " " Victimised members receive— 18s. a week for 17 weeks. 15s. " " " 12s. " " "	Pay to members legally on strike is regulated by Council. Pay to victimised members settled by Council.
Emigration benefit.	—	—	—	—	—
Funeral benefit	After six months' membership, 5l., or 2l. if wife dies first, and the rest on the member's death. After 12 months', 10l., or 4l. on the wife's death, and the rest on the member's death. 1l. on the death of a child under 14, if insured for 2s. a year.	—	On the death of a member a sum is raised by voluntary subscription.	—	After 1 year's membership, 4l. " 2 years' " 5l. " 3 " " 6l. " 4 " " 7l. " 5 " " 8l. On wife's death after 1 year 2l. " " 2 years 3l. " " 3 " 4l. " " 4 " 4l. " " 5 " 4l. 2l. on the death of second wife.
Out-of-work benefit.	Members thrown out of work by any infectious disease in their homes, if not sick themselves, receive 14s. a week.	—	2s. for each working day for six weeks.	10s. 6d. a week for four weeks. 7s. 6d. a week for four weeks more in 12 months.	—

[§ 383 (c)]

Benefits.	Scottish National Operative Tailors' Trade Protection and Benefit Society. No. 252.	International Tailors', Machinists' and Pressers' Union. No. 250.	Bristol Clothiers' Cutters' Trade Association. No. 251.	Leicester and Leicestershire Amalgamated Hosiery Union. No. 246.	United Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Trade and Friendly Society. No. 247.
Sick benefit	Sick or accident benefit— 10s. a week for 13 weeks. 8s. „ „ „ 6s. „ „ „ 3s. „ until recovery.	—	A sum is raised by voluntary subscription. Members on strike who cannot accept work on account of illness receive 10s. a week for 16 weeks, or until the amount of dispute benefit to which they are entitled is made up.	—	8s. a week for 12 weeks in one year.
Superannuation benefit.	If unable to earn more than 10s. a week— After 10 years' membership, 2s. 9d. a week. After 15 years' membership, 3s. 3d. a week. After 20 years' membership, 4s. a week.	—	—	—	—
Travelling benefit	Members travelling on account of dispute receive cards which entitle them to 1s. a day and 2s. on Saturday. No member can receive benefit on more than 50 days in one year or twice in one place within six weeks.	—	Not more than 1½d. a mile, or not more than 1l. altogether.	—	—

[§ 383 (c)]

TABLE of Benefits in the various Trades Unions in the Clothing Trades—*continued.*

Benefits.	Amalgamated Hand Framework Knitters' Federation. No. 248.	Amalgamated Society of Journeymen Felt Hatters. No. 243.	Felt Hat Trimmers' and Wool Formers' Association. No. 244.	Operative Glovers' Society. No. 245.	Leicester and District Elastic Web, Garter, Strand, Tabb, and Textile Brace Weavers' Trade Protection Association. No. 404.
Dispute benefit	Not more than 5s. a week for six months. From 1s. 3d. to 2s. 6d. a week for six months more.	12s. a week. 1s. a week for each child under 12 for not more than 13 weeks. Victimised members receive 16s. a week and 1s. for each child for 13 weeks.	7s. a week for 13 weeks. Victimised members receive 8s. a week.	—	10s. a week. Victimised members receive 12s. a week for 12 weeks, after which their case is considered by Committee.
Emigration benefit.	—	—	—	After one year's membership, 10s. After two years' membership, 1l. After four years' membership, 1l. 10s.	—
Funeral benefit	—	6l., and 4l. on the death of a member's wife. Members may receive benefit for a second wife, if registered for 5s. within six months after marriage. Members' widows entitled to funeral benefit on payment of 1d. a week.	4l.	—	—
Out-of-work benefit.	—	10s. a week, and 1s. for each child under 12 for 13 weeks, if out of work through fire, failure, or retirement of employer. 6s. a week and 1s. for each child under 12 for 13 weeks, if through slackness of trade, temporary stoppages, or breakdown.	6s. a week for 13 weeks.	10s. a week. No member may receive benefit for more than 12 weeks in 12 months.	—
Sick benefit	—	8s. a week for 13 weeks. 4s. „ „ „ 2s. 6d. „ 26 „	—	—	—
Superannuation benefit.	—	—	—	If permanently disabled after three years' membership, not more than 2l. at any one time, at discretion of Committee.	—
Travelling benefit	—	—	—	Travelling expenses granted at discretion of Committee. No member can receive benefit more than once a year. After five years' membership 5s. is given in addition to the travelling expenses.	—

[§ 383 (d.)] (d.) Funds.

(d.) With regard to the investment of funds, the mode to be adopted is usually left to the discretion of the executive, or of a general or delegate meeting. The rules of several societies direct that the funds shall be deposited in the Post Office Savings' or other banks, generally in the names of the trustees.

(e.) Dispute regulations.

(e.) Members involved in a dispute with their employer are generally required to lay the case at once before the secretary or Committee of the branch, or in societies which have no sub-divisions, before the general secretary or Executive Committee. These officials must investigate the matter, and endeavour to effect an amicable settlement, but if they are unable to do so, a general branch meeting, or a general or delegate meeting of the society, must be summoned to consider the question. Before a cessation of work may take place the consent of the central Executive must be obtained, or, if the strike is a general one, the vote of the whole union must in some cases be taken. If the Council of the Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers refuses to sanction a strike in any section, that section may refer the matter to the arbitration of three arbitrators, one of whom is chosen by the Council, one by the section concerned, and one by the section nearest to it. The Council of this society and that of the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives may at any time appoint fresh investigators to inquire into the conduct of a strike, and to take further measures in order to bring it to a close. Each branch of the latter society must endeavour to form a board of conciliation and arbitration, and when such boards are formed branches must arrange with the employers to give or take three months' notice before enforcing an advance or a reduction of wages. The Council and members of the Amalgamated Society of Boot and Shoe Makers are required by their rules to submit any dispute to arbitration, if requested to do so by the employer, and members or branches of the Amalgamated Society of Tailors receive no support from the Society if they have refused to submit to arbitration. The Council of the Amalgamated Hand Framework Knitters' Federation claims a right of mediation in all disputes, subject to the decision of the delegate meeting. The rules of the Amalgamated Society of Journeymen Felt Hatters state that all picketing is under the control of the Executive Council, to which the general and district secretaries must submit weekly reports of the dispute, and which can declare a strike closed at any time.

(f.) Minor regulations.

(f.) Amongst the minor regulations laid down in the rules there are several which concern apprentices. Thus six societies endeavour to restrict the number of apprentices who may be employed in one shop; the Amalgamated Society of Journeymen Felt Hatters do not allow apprentices to be employed by firms which have journeymen under agreement; and the United Rotary Power Framework Knitters' Trade and Friendly Society requires members to engage their own lads, and not to take anyone of whom they do not approve, but forbids them to entice away boys from their previous employers under penalty of a fine. No objections are made to the system of piece-work by these societies, but in the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives members who work for employers who use lasting and finishing machines are required to work on day wages. Members, both of this society and of the Amalgamated Society of Tailors are, however, forbidden to introduce work on day wages into shops where piece-work is the custom. The members of the latter society are also forbidden to work for middlemen or sweaters. The rules of four societies refuse any support to members who lose their employment through misconduct, and members of the English and Scotch societies of tailors who leave unfinished work for which they have been paid are suspended from all benefits until they have refunded the amount. Several societies inflict some penalty upon members who find work for non-members whilst there are any members unemployed. The maximum number of working hours is fixed by two societies, and a standard rate of wages is mentioned in a few cases. Female labour is mentioned only in the rules of the Scottish National Operative Tailors' Trade Protection and Benefit Society, which forbids its members to teach, or prepare or finish work for women, and allows them to refuse to work with women if female labour has been introduced into a shop against their will. The Executive Committee of this society must, however, assist in organising the women employed in the trade. The majority of these societies have some regulations with a view to providing work for unemployed members, and as a rule a register of unemployed members is kept, which must be signed by them daily, or at stated intervals. In the larger societies the branch secretaries are required to send periodical reports to the general secretary, of the state of trade and the number of unemployed in their districts, and the general report of the whole union is furnished to each branch. Fares are in several instances paid for members who remove to a branch where there is a prospect of their obtaining work. [§ 383 (f.)]

(g.) Objects.

(g.) The objects of these associations are various, but those which occur most frequently are the provision of benefit funds, and the maintenance or advance of wages. The establishment of an uniform rate of wages throughout the trade is an object of the United Clickers' and Rough Stuff Cutters' Trade Union, the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, and the Felt Hat Trimmers' and Wool Formers' Association. The second of these societies, the International Tailors' Machinists' and Pressers' Union, and the Bristol Clothiers' Cutters' Trade Association also aim at obtaining uniform hours of labour. The abolition of the sweating system is mentioned amongst the objects of the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, and the International Tailors' Machinists' and Pressers' Union, and three societies of boot makers, and one of tailors, desire the establishments of workshops, or the improvement of those that exist. The regulation of the system of apprenticeship or of boy labour is mentioned by a few societies, and the United Clickers' and Rough Stuff Cutters' Trade Union wishes to abolish piece-work, and to abolish the custom of a week's notice on either side. A few societies also desire to regulate the relations of employers and workmen, and the Felt Hat Trimmers' and Wool Formers' Association endeavours to settle disputes amicably and without strikes. Several societies put forward objects of a more general character, such as the furtherance of the interests and welfare of the members, socially, morally, and intellectually, and the advancement and prosperity of their trade; and in some instances stress is laid upon the necessity for the mutual assistance and co-operation of trades unions in the same or in different trades.

Joint Boards. (a.) Their history

384. (a.) Boards of conciliation and arbitration exist at present, or have been in existence, in connexion with the three chief branches of the clothing trades, viz., hosiery, boot and shoe making, and tailoring. The Nottingham Board of Arbitration and Conciliation for the hosiery and glove trade, which was established in 1860, was the first permanent and systematic board of the kind in England. The trade in question had for some years suffered from constant strikes and lock-outs, and it was in order to avert a proposed general lock-out that Mr. Mundella in 1860 persuaded the manufacturers to meet some of the workmen in a friendly conference. Great difficulty was at first experienced in overcoming the mutual suspicion and hostility of the two sides, but the result of this action was the formation of the Board of Arbitration and Conciliation, which worked with the greatest success for some 20 years. More recently, however, difficulties have arisen, and the Board has fallen into disuse and become practically extinct (1) It was stated, by a representative of the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation that the alleged cause of the breaking up of the Board was, that with the new machinery the men got excellent wages up to a certain time, and then refused to adhere to the Board; but that the real cause of failure was, that the interests of the three or four classes of workmen represented on the Board were not identical. The workmen were said to be in favour of reviving the Board, but the employers are opposed to it.(2) A Conciliation Board for the hosiery trade on the model of the Nottingham one was formed in Leicestershire in 1868, and has had a very similar history, both as regards its great success during many years, and its subsequent failure.(3) It was stated that the periodical meetings of this Board had been dropped since 1884, and that when there had been occasion to refer to it in 1886, it was "in such a state of decomposition" that it could not be got together. The reason of the failure was alleged to be that "the "employers had lost confidence in themselves, and the "workpeople had lost confidence in the employers, and "in themselves, and consequently the board of arbitra- "tion, though it existed, was not called into operation, "because they had no faith in it."(4) A Board of Arbitration and Conciliation for the boot and shoe trade

(1) Memorandum on the Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation, p. xxxvi. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 87. (3) Memorandum on the Rules of Boards of Arbitration and Conciliation p xxxvi. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 87.

[§ 384 (a.)] at Leicester has been in existence since 1875, and is said to have been, on the whole, successful, and similar Boards in this trade were established in Northampton some four or five years ago, and in London in 1890, and are also in existence at Kettering and Bristol.(1) A Board of Arbitration and Conciliation, which existed in the Leeds boot and shoe trade, was broken up by the action of the workmen in 1881, in consequence of a reduction in wages following upon an arbitration. A Joint Committee of six manufacturers and six workmen was then formed, which worked satisfactorily in the settlement of disputes, and made what was known as an addendum or addition to the wages list for classes of work of recent introduction. This Committee was, however, broken up in 1890 in consequence of a lawsuit, in which Mr. Judge was engaged, when the employers were believed by the workmen to be acting against him, although "apparently on terms of the greatest "friendship."(2) It was stated by Mr. Lilley, Chairman of the Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Society, that the London Board of Conciliation had been brought into existence by the Manufacturers' Association, and at first in opposition to the wishes of the workmen. A Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for this trade had indeed been formed in 1884, in conformity with an agreement which closed a five weeks' strike in that year, and sat for several weeks. The London "third-"class statement of wages," which was drawn up by this board was rejected by the men that same year, but the members who belonged to the first and second sections of the Board continued to meet until the autumn of 1887, when further negotiations took place with a view to forming a general Board, but these fell through as the men declined to accept the principle of arbitration. Negotiations were resumed on several occasions, until after a strike of 17 days' duration, a joint conference took place between the representatives of the employers and workmen early in 1890, at which it was finally agreed that a Board of Arbitration and Conciliation should be constituted. This Board has worked satisfactorily since then.*(3) A general arbitration board for the tailoring trade of Great Britain and Ireland was established in 1891, and consisted of six employers elected by the Master Tailors' Association of Great Britain and Ireland, and six workmen, of whom two belonged to the Scottish National Operative Tailors' Society, and four to the Amalgamated Society of Tailors.(4) This Board, however, proved to be quite ineffectual in settling the first disputes submitted to it, and before the end of the year the operatives' associations withdrew from it entirely. Very contradictory accounts have been given of the cause of its failure, but it seems to have been chiefly due to the mutual distrust of the two sides.(5)

(b.) Their organisation.

(*b.*) The rules of the Board of Arbitration and Conciliation for the Hosiery and Glove Trade of Nottingham and District, and of the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Boot and Shoe Trade of London have been obtained by the Commission. The Hosiery and Glove Trade Board consists of 11 manufacturers, who are elected by a public meeting of their own body, and 11 operatives, elected by a meeting of the various branches of the trade, and the London Boot and Shoe Trade Board consists of eight manufacturers and eight workmen, elected by general or special meetings of their own bodies. The elections in each case are annual, and the members of both Boards appoint every year a president or chairman, vice-president or vice-chairman, one or two secretaries, and a Committee of Inquiry, consisting of four members. These Committees of Inquiry must investigate disputes in the first instance, and endeavour to effect an amicable settlement, but failing to do so must report them to the Board. Ordinary Board meetings are held once a quarter, and on a request, signed by three members, being sent to the president or secretary specifying the nature of the business for consideration, a special meeting must be summoned. If at any meeting both the president and vice-president are absent, the members present elect a temporary chairman. In the Hosiery and Glove Trade Board the chairman has a casting vote in addition to his ordinary vote, but in the London Boot and Shoe Trade Board a deliberative vote only. The latter Board has a rule that the number of voters upon each side must be equalised by the withdrawal by ballot of the number of members who are in excess upon either side, and that no member may vote upon a question in which he is directly interested. In both cases alterations of the rules may be made only at a quarterly meeting or special meeting convened for the purpose, and notice of proposed alterations must be given one month beforehand. Any expenses which are incurred by these Boards must be borne equally by the employers and the operatives. Any complaints submitted to the Boards or Committees for investigation must be embodied in writing, stating clearly the nature of the question at issue, such statements to be sent in one week or three days before a Board meeting. The rules of the Hosiery and Glove Trade Board require that a month's notice of any desired advance or reduction in the rate of wages must be given before the Board can consider the matter, and the London Boot and Shoe Trade Board lays down that any changes in modes of working which involve alterations in the hours of labour or the scale of payments must be matters of notice, and, so far as possible, of arrangement beforehand, so as to avoid needless subsequent disputes. It is also required in the rules of this Board that any complaint on the part of the workmen must first be brought before the employer or his representative, and if no settlement takes place the representative of the union must see the employer. If he cannot settle it, the work in dispute, or portions of it, must be marked by the employer and workmen's representatives, and submitted to the Committee of Inquiry. In case of disputes, work must be given out and received, and payment made, as previously, until the decision of the Board, or if the dispute concerns a new class of work, the decision of the Committee of Inquiry is binding until that of the Board is given. If any suspension of work takes place on either side the Board may refuse to inquire into the matter in dispute until work is resumed, and will take the fact into account in considering the case. The rules of the Hosiery and Glove Trade Board make no provision for reference to arbitration, but in the London Boot and Shoe Trade Board, two arbitrators, who must both be practical men, must be elected, one by the employers, and the other by the workmen, and these must elect an umpire, to act if called upon. Any question which is referred by the Board to the arbitrators must be argued before them by the chairman and vice-chairman of the Board, or by any two members, of whom one must be a workman and one an employer, and the arbitrators have power to call witnesses, and to require the production of books and documents by any or either of the parties to the dispute in question.(1) [§ 384 (b.)]

General relations between employers and employed.

385. In the hosiery trade organisation appears to be very incomplete amongst the operatives, and is non-existent upon the side of the employers. The failure of the Conciliation Boards is chiefly due to this fact, and in Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire there is said to be much discontent on account of the different prices paid by various employers. In Leicester and the neighbourhood, however, the relations of employers and operatives in this trade are said to be fairly good.(2) In the London Boot Clickers' industry the relations of the employers and operatives are very unsatisfactory, as the employers have opposed and refused to recognise the men's union, and disregarded an attempt made by the union to enter into negotiations with a view to establishing a board of arbitration. In the other branches of the London Boot and Shoe

* The following extracts are taken from the "Times" of July 10th and July 20th, 1893:—

"*Arbitration in the Shoe Trade*:—The National Federation of Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Associations has ordered the immediate suspension of all shoe-trade arbitration boards throughout the country. This step, which, if persisted in, will lead to numerous strikes in all the shoe-making centres of England, has been taken by the employers in consequence of a strike at Messrs. Smith, Son, and Company's factory at Bristol, where the men's union object to the introduction of what is known as the team system. It is a condition of all the arbitration boards that there shall be no strike or lock-out in the matter to be arbitrated upon; but the men's union declines to allow the men to go back unless the cause of the strike, the new system of labour, is removed. Notices have been sent to the members of arbitration boards in all the trade centres that there will be no meetings for the present."

"The strikes and the notices for a lock-out in the boot and shoe trade were formally withdrawn, yesterday, by both the National Federation and the National Union handing the requisite notices to Sir Thomas Wright, who at once telegraphed them from Leicester to the various centres affected. The whole of the questions in dispute will be referred to the National Arbitration Board, of which Sir Thomas Wright is president, and, failing an agreement, they will be referred to Sir Henry James, the umpire, whose decision will be final. Sir Thomas Wright is also formulating a scheme whereby substantial guarantees will be required from both sides for the prevention of strikes and lock-outs."

For the recommendations of the Sub-Committee appointed in August 1892, to draw up a code of rules for the prevention of strikes and lock-outs in the boot and shoe trade generally, *see* the Appendix to this Summary on p. 276.

(1) Memorandum on Rules of Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration, p. xxxvii; Digest, Vol. II., pp. 88, 89. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 20, 21. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 12, 13. (4) Tabulated Rules, No. 578. (5) Memorandum on the Rules of Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration, p. xxxviii. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 90, 91.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 554, 555. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 14, 15, 17, and 18.

[§ 385.] Trade, however, good relations have prevailed since the formation of the Board of Arbitration and Conciliation, and similar conditions exist in Northampton. In Leeds also the relations between employers and men in the boot and shoe trade are said to be good upon the whole, although difficulties have arisen through the refusal of unionists to work with non-unionists (1). The relations between the organisations of employers and workmen in the tailoring trade are still far from good, and the master tailors complain that the men refuse to recognise their association, although they recognised that of the operatives. They believed that the men regarded their association as "an upstart affair," because it had only been established for two and a half years, whereas the Amalgamated Society of Tailors had existed for 26 or 27 years. The operatives stated that they suspected the Master Tailors' Association of being a "mere bogus affair," as they had never been able to ascertain of whom it was really composed. They had broken off negotiations with this society on the subject of a national time log, because they did not consider it able to enforce its decisions, but they would be willing to meet the masters again, so soon as they were better organised (2).

2. CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION.

oncilia-on. 386. The existing and proposed Boards of Conciliation or Joint Committees in the textile and clothing trades have already been considered amongst the organisations, and it has been seen that there is a very large consensus of opinion in favour of such systems for the settlement of disputes. In the textile trades, it is true, that comparatively little has yet been done in the actual establishment of such boards, but a desire for them is expressed by both employers and operatives, and the still imperfect organisation of some branches of the trades appears to be the chief obstacle in the way of their further development. In the clothing trades, upon the other hand, two long established and very successful boards in the hosiery trade have recently fallen into decay, and are practically extinct, but a new group of boards which have arisen in the boot and shoe trade seem to have already had a fair amount of success, and to be likely to continue in operation.

rbitration, pinion in vour of. 387. There is a wide-spread feeling in favour of arbitration in the clothing and textile trades, with the exception of the cotton industry in Lancashire. It is, however, difficult to select from the evidence many arguments or many instances in support of this favourable attitude. The terms Conciliation, Arbitration, or Mediation are used somewhat indifferently by the witnesses, and no particular distinction is drawn between the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration, the Board of Arbitration, and the individual arbitrator. But in theory, at least, they are in favour of some system of arbitration as a last resort, on the general ground of the desirability of avoiding dead-locks and strikes. In spite of unsatisfactory attempts in this direction, especially in connexion with the less highly organised trades, and those in which there is no definite system of conciliation, a general tendency towards this method of settling disputes is observable. This attitude towards arbitration has not, however, generally speaking, resulted in the insertion of a clause in the rules of the associations providing for reference to arbitration before a strike or lock-out may take place, nor in the formation of Boards of Arbitration.

xperience f arbitra-on. 388. A clause providing for arbitration exists, however, in the rules of the Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives' Union, the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, and the Employers' Association in the same trade, and the President of the Dundee Operatives Union stated that the workers were "favourable to arbitration," and "quite willing to act up to the rule."(3) Mr. Inskip, of the Boot and Shoe Operatives' Union, recommends local boards of conciliation and arbitration, and in the case of a federation of employers, a central board in addition. "I am of opinion," he continued, "that had such a board been in existence the lock-out "at Bristol would not have taken place, and the "consequent loss to the union and to the employers "would have been avoided." It may be noted in corroboration of this opinion that the dispute was brought to a close when referred to arbitration.(4) It appeared from the evidence of Mr. Lilley and Mr. Freak, who represented respectively the masters' and the men's associations in the boot and shoe trade, that the system of arbitration which now prevails in London and Nottingham was the "outcome of strikes," and had not been brought about without a good deal of difficulty, on account of the opposition of the men. "This," they stated, "has now been overcome," and the boards of arbitration which have been established provide a carefully graduated system by which the intervention of the arbitrator is reserved for extreme cases. "The union (has) agreed in writing that under "no circumstances shall the men leave off work. In "fact, if they leave off work, they are out of court for "coming to the board." "As a body," said an employer, "it has been absolutely loyal to the board."(1) The recent history of arbitration in the tailoring and hosiery trades has been less successful. In both cases however, the witnesses expressed themselves strongly in favour of this method of settling disputes.(2) Reference was made to more or less unsuccessful attempts in the direction of arbitration, in which, according to the evidence of the men, the difficulty appeared to lie chiefly in the unwillingness of the employers to submit to that method of settlement. Mr. Inskip mentioned a dispute on a technical point in the boot and shoe trade at Bristol, which was referred to the arbitration of Mr. Manfield, member for Northampton, but the employers afterwards procured an alteration of the award and the dispute broke out again. "We persisted in having the dispute referred "(again) to arbitration, and after the men had been "locked out some weeks, the employers consented, and "the verdict of the umpire, who was a manufacturer, "was in favour of the workmen."(3) Mutual distrust and misunderstanding appeared to be the cause of the failure of the recent attempt at arbitration in the tailoring trade. According to one witness one of the difficulties arose from the demand of the men for local arbitration in the particular dispute, while the master tailors wished all points at issue to be settled by general arbitration for the whole trade. Other difficulties arose with respect to the method as well as the scope of the proposed arbitration, and the men's union broke off negotiations with the employers' association. But both sides appeared equally favourable to the principle of arbitration in itself.(4) Mr. Taylor, a member of the Irish Linen Lappers' Trades Union, stated that his union had offered to refer a dispute that was then going on to arbitration, but that the Linen Merchants' Association refused to agree to this step. In consequence, they were at a "dead-lock," though the men were "perfectly willing to abide by the offer." He considered that a court of arbitration in Belfast would be "very desirable," but as "(they) were only two years in existence, they could scarcely act first."(5) Mr. Ward, assistant secretary to the Gas Workers' and General Labourers' Union, gave similar evidence with regard to a strike that had been going on for 23 weeks at Berry's Serge Factory in Devonshire. "We have "approached the employer several times and offered "to submit the case either to arbitration or to the "Plymouth Board of Conciliation, but he has refused "point blank."(6) Various attempts are being made to supply some system of arbitration, which may be taken advantage of by any trade, where there is no express provision for settling any dispute that may arise. These partake of the character of arbitration, conciliation, and mediation, though they are differently named in the several instances. The object of the "Mayor's Arbitration Board" which has recently been established at Leicester is that "in case little differences "could not be settled by the people themselves, there "should be a sort of appeal board."(7) Mr. Wates, a partner in a worsted spinning firm, and the President of the Chamber of Commerce, was appointed chairman. He stated that the board was composed of men "representing totally different trades," because it was thought that this would result in a more "unbiassed" and "dispassionate" treatment of the questions submitted to it. Appeal was only to be made to the supreme board in the last resort, when the individual board of arbitration belonging to the particular trade had come to a dead-lock. He thought that this contingency was likely to arise, because as these local boards were composed of "an equal number of em-"ployers and employed . . . I always feel that "the weak point is the want of an umpire, who should

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(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 22, 24, and 25. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 29, 31. Digest, Vol. III., p. 12. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 11,031-2. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 16,077-79.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 15,816-32, 15,893-95. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 90, 91. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 16,077-79. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 87. Vol. III., p. 153. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 13,186-9, 13,266-70. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 24,032. (7) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 13,666-7.

[§ 388.] "be, so to speak, outside it all."(1) A somewhat similar board was described by Mr. Arnold Forster. The Bradford Board of Conciliation was constituted under the auspices of the Bradford Chamber of Commerce, and having in this way an external origin was of necessity a "permissive body," and only took action on the invitation of the two parties. No provision is made for the appointment of an umpire in the rules of either of these boards. The former, it was stated, had not been in existence long enough for its services to be called into requisition, but the members of the latter on one occasion were equally divided and no settlement was possible.(2) The "original idea" of the board on this point, Mr. Arnold Forster added, "might have to be amended." The Leeds Board of Conciliation was formed in 1890, and has been instrumental in settling several disputes. Mr. Beckworth, president of the Board, and of the Leeds Chamber of Commerce, explained that its object was to "mediate" between the two parties, when disputes arose which could not be settled by the boards of arbitration in the separate trades. When a dispute occurs the board proffers its services, but until both sides are willing to accept them, no steps are taken. The word "arbitration," he added, "has not been "found acceptable, and, as a matter of fact, in working "these things we have found that mediation is really "what is wanted." The points of difference are gradually narrowed down, and "by mutual mediation" a settlement has been arrived at in two cases at least.(3) Corroborative evidence as to this board was given by the vice-president and the secretary, both working men.

Arguments against arbitration.

389. The opposition to arbitration in this group of industries comes exclusively from the textile trade in Lancashire. With one doubtful exception all the employers in the district as well as the operatives are of opinion that disputes are most satisfactorily settled by the joint committees or local boards of conciliation. "It is very much better," Mr. Rawlinson stated, "to "throw the responsibility of an important decision "upon those whom the decision will affect, than "to throw it upon independent parties."(4) Moreover, it is urged these boards are composed of practical men, acquainted with the technicalities of the trade, but it is impossible to find an arbitrator who is both impartial and competent. "I am afraid," Mr. Wilkinson stated, "a difficulty would arise in selecting the referee. If "the employers had to select a man, naturally we know "on which side he would be, and ditto with the men. If "they could agree on a suitable man and a man who "could understand the technical points, then it might "do."(5) Again, Mr. Birtwistle asserted that the employers, on one occasion, "said that it was a matter "that no one but an employer himself could under-"stand. The operatives, on the other hand, would "scarcely trust an employer to be a referee. There is a "lot of technical knowledge required to solve these "questions which we believe none but ourselves under-"stand thoroughly."(6) "I do not think," said Mr. Rawlinson, an employer, in reference to a refusal to submit a dispute to the arbitration of the late Bishop of Manchester and Lord Derby, "that it would have "been prudent to entrust the destinies of a great trade "to the opinion of any single individual who neces-"sarily could not know anything of the details and "intricacies of the trade,"(7) and Mr. Mawdsley, Secretary of the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners, and a member of the Commission, expressed the opinion that "if (we) had arbi-"tration (we) would have much less wages than (we) "are getting now. Arbitrators generally go for a "certain standard of profit for capital, generally speak-"ing it has been 10 per cent. We are opposed to the "system altogether: we have tried it. Mr. Thomas "Hughes was our arbitrator at one time, and he gave us "a reduction of wages when profits were bigger than "they were when we got the last advance." This witness mentioned another case in which Mr. Hinckes, M.P., was appointed umpire, by the arbitrators chosen by either side. "The operatives did not get any [§ 389.] "advance, though, if they had been organised as we "are, there is not the slightest doubt that they would "have had 5 per cent. They would have come out on "strike for it and they would have got it within a "week."(1) Another objection to arbitration which was raised by Mr. Noble, an employer, was to the effect that "it generally takes a half course, and these settle-"ments are not, as a rule, satisfactory."(2) This view was supported by an operative, who added that, "in "most arbitration cases the arbitrator simply splits "the difference between the two disputants, irrespective "of the merits of the case."(3) So much was arbitration distrusted that Mr. Birtwistle stated "the "difficulty is to induce people to accept it."

Method of arbitration. Compulsory or voluntary arbitration.

390. There is not much evidence on the question whether arbitration should be compulsory or voluntary, but the great majority of the witnesses either implicitly or explicitly expressed their preference for the voluntary system. Mr. Judge, representing the Leeds branch of the Boot and Shoe Operative Union, stated that he "failed to see how compulsory arbitration "could be carried out. If an award were made by a "Government official, and the men were told they "must take it, and then a man said, 'Well, I give in "'my notice, I will not work any longer,' I would not "care to see that made a penal offence, which it must "be in order to make compulsory arbitration worth "anything."(4) "You cannot compel a man to work," Mr. Beckworth added, "and you cannot compel an "employer to go on with his employment of labour. "You can only bring to bear the force of public "opinion."(5) On the other hand, three employers and one trades union official were in favour of compulsory arbitration. "Unless an umpire was a permanent "official and his award enforceable by law, disputants "would rarely agree in the selection of an umpire," said Mr. Simpson, a cotton manufacturer, and the only advocate of arbitration in the Lancashire textile industry. Mr. Gordon, a master tailor, also desired to see the compulsory settlement of all disputes by boards of Conciliation and Arbitration. "If an employer would "not submit to the award," he added, "we would turn "him out of the association."(6) Mr. Simpson admitted the difficulties involved in any proposal of this nature, but the only definite attempt to meet them was made by Mr. Freak, president of the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, and Mr. Lilley, chairman of the Boot Manufacturers' Association and of the London Board of Conciliation and Arbitration. These witnesses proposed that "an Act should be passed setting up a "tribunal to which appeal should be made." This Act should require boards of Conciliation and Arbitration to be registered in a similar way to a public company, and the magistrates' court should be the court to which appeal should be made to enforce the decisions of the registered boards. Any dispute arising should first be submitted by the secretary to the sub-board of arbitration, then, if necessary, to the full board, then to the arbitrators, and finally to the umpire. As to the enforcement of the decision of the board by the magistrate, it was stated that if two parties entered into a contract to abide by the decision of a tribunal, this decision must be enforced by a penalty similar to that which attaches to any breach of contract. This would be more practicable if the law required every man to sign a contract to submit to arbitration, in which case the association would cease to act, "they would become "individuals entering into a contract." Other difficulties, it was suggested, might be met by the bestowal of legal powers on the board, in the direction of "coercive authority." Fines might be imposed on either masters or men who wished to leave the association rather than submit to an award. The "legal "remedy would be very seldom put into force, except "in extreme cases; the knowledge that there was some "sort of legal sanction would have a great moral effect "on both sides." What was really wanted, it was stated, was an effective authority by which the associations of employers and the trade unions could control their own members.(7)

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 87, 88. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 12,657-65, (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 58. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 9732. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 15,565-77. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 2460. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I. 1809. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I. 1333. (7) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 2442.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 774-6. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 3959. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 1337. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 12,060. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 15,586. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. I., 15,352-3. (7) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 33,217, 33,219. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 153-4.

C. TRADE DISPUTES.

1. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

[§ 391.] Effect of organisation on trade disputes.

391. It appears from the evidence given in connexion with the textile and clothing industries that, either with the greater development of personal intercourse between employers and employed, or with the increase of organisation among them, strikes tend to become much less frequent and severe. Thus, a representative of the firm of Southwell and Co. stated that strikes were very infrequent in the carpet trade. "I have "always felt," he added, "that we have owed a great "deal of our exceptional peace . . . to seeing a "good deal of the men and knowing them and interest- "ing ourselves in them . . . and if employers "could do a little more in that direction I have always "thought that that would avoid many strikes, because "... there would be sympathy between the men "and their employers. A very great deal depends on "the personal element in these discussions. . . . I "feel certain it is much better, without calling in "anyone to deal with the employers and employed "direct in the first instance."(1) It was, however, urged by the greater number of witnesses that organisation on both sides was the best preventive of disputes. "A good organisation of employers and a good "organisation of workpeople," Mr. Mullin stated, "tend to lessen disputes and bring about speedy settle- "ments." The operatives "want every employer to "join the Employers' Association, and then, we think, "the biggest part of the strikes will be averted." Members of the Employers' Association are better informed as to the customs of the trade, and where "masters and men" are through their representatives "brought into closer contact and more frequent asso- "ciation with each other a better understanding" prevails. Thus, Mr. Noble stated that "with the closer "connexion and feeling that has come into operation "of late years between the two unions . . . a better "feeling is being established." This understanding has tended to grow year by year, while "the disputes "have become less and less." If the employers would cultivate a closer relationship with the officials "of the operatives' associations it would be the means "of preventing strikes."(2) In the comparatively unorganised industries, evidence was also given to the effect that the tendency to dispute was lessened with the development of organisation. The case was mentioned of a strike of women in 1891 at the Pier Cordage Works, Millwall, on the conclusion of which the manager said that "if he had known he was going to have an "organised strike, he would not have held out at all."(3) In the East Scotland Power Loom Tenters' Association disputes were stated to be "still becoming less, especially "where the men workers can claim the intervention of "a union."(4) Mr. Jonathan Peate asserted that he had "very strong reasons" for believing that "as the "workers become more organised a better state of "things will exist in the future between workmen and "employers."(5) It may be noted that although, in the industries under consideration, proposals of arbitration offered by one side concerned in the dispute have in a few cases been refused by the other, conferences, attempts at mediation or arbitration have preceded most of the important strikes.(6)

Causes of trade disputes.

392. The great majority of strikes in the textile and clothing industries have been caused by disputes connected with wages, and Mr. Holmes stated that "Where "the trade is organised, it is very seldom indeed that "a strike is agreed upon by the association for any- "thing else."(7) "In the cotton industry of Lancashire "reductions in wages are a fruitful source of strikes,"(8) and threatened reductions have also caused strikes among the jute workers of Dundee and the dyers of Bradford. Strikes for an advance of wages (9) have occurred among the spinners at Bradford and the dyers' labourers at Hawick, while others have been caused by the absence of a standard rate or scale.(10) One case is mentioned of a strike for a reduction of wages.(11) With regard to unionism, it was stated that "Another "source of strife in the boot trade is the antipathy of "employers to see the chosen representatives of the "workmen in case of dispute."(12) "Overbearingness "of union" was given as the cause of a dispute in a boot factory at Carmoustie.(1) And in the Hinckley and Leicester districts, and in one case at Colchester strikes have been caused by refusals on the part of employers to recognise the union.(2) In one instance it was stated that "the employer has locked out eight "men . . . simply and solely because they are mem- "bers of a trades union; there is no dispute about "price."(3) The introduction of labour-saving machinery has been the cause of several disputes.(4) In other instances disputes are said to have arisen from the employment of women and boys instead of men.(5) A few instances were given of strikes caused by refusal of compensation for bad material,(6) long hours of work,(7) and the conduct of officials.(8) Personal, local, and technical causes (9) were mentioned as having given rise to minor disputes in the boot and shoe trade in particular.

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(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 72; Vol. I., p. 54. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 54. (3) Digest, Vol. I., p. 53. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 256. (5) Digest, Vol. I., p. 54. (6) Abstracts on "Strikes and Lock-outs," Digest, Vols. I. and II. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 48. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 49. (9) Digest, Vol. I., p. 49. (10) Digest, Vol. I., p. 49; Vol II., p. 61. (11) Holmes, 12,726; Digest, Vol. II., p. 62. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 63.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 601. (2) Digest, Vol. II. pp. 63, 65. (3) Holmes, 12,789; Digest Vol. II., p. 63. (4) Digest, Vol. I., p. 49. Vol. II., pp. 63, 64. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 61, 63. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 257, 639. (6) Digest, Vol. I., p. 49. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 216, 653, 875. (8) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 49, 50. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 253, 255, 601. (9) Digest, Vol. I., pp. 49, 50. Vol. II., p. 64. (10) Holmes, 832. (11) Rawlinson, 2730–1. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (12) Rawlinson, 2638, 2730–6. Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. (13) Rawlinson, 2630. Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. (14) Holmes, 834. Digest, Vol. I., p. 50. (15) Rawlinson, 2727. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (16) Rawlinson, 2448. (17) Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (18) Rawlinson, 2441. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (19) Rawlinson, 2450. (20) Rawlinson, 2442. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (21) Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (22) Gee, 4923. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (23) Gee, 4923. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51.

2. SPECIAL STRIKES.

Textile Trades.

Cotton trade, N. and N.E. Lancashire 1883–4.

393. In 1883–4 a strike took place in the cotton trade which affected the whole of North and North-East Lancashire, but which "on account of the threats by "the employers to lock out the whole of the districts(10) located itself practically in Blackburn. For a long period before the strike it was stated that business "had been very bad," "there were many failures," and many works "were closed through bankruptcy." "Employers," Mr. Rawlinson added, "were driven "either to reduce their wages or to close their works;" "it was a simple choice between the two."(11) The matter in dispute was a proposed 5 per cent. reduction in wages, over which the two sections of the joint committee of the Employers' and Workmen's Associations failed to agree. This reduction, it was stated, "was "considered a fair reduction by the leaders of the "operatives."(12) "As a matter of fact, the weavers in "Preston, Accrington, Burnley, and other districts "accepted it," but "in Blackburn, Darwen, and "Padiham they over-ruled their leaders."(13) The strike began in December 1883 and ended in February 1884. In the end a compromise was effected between the masters and men, in which the terms of settlement were "that the work should be resumed with a 5 per "cent reduction until June 1884."(14) "The operatives, "therefore, went back to work upon the same terms as "those against which they struck, but an arrangement "was made that the whole subject should be reviewed "in the May following."(15) This undertaking was carried out, and as trade had slightly improved in the interval,(16) the 5 per cent was restored in the first week in July. Arbitration(17) was stated to have been proposed by the operatives as a means of settling the dispute, but was declined almost unanimously(18) by the employers. The persons suggested as arbitrators were the late Bishop of Manchester and Lord Derby. The Secretary of the North and North-East Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association stated that, had the arbitration been accepted, "the employers "would have suffered more loss; there would have "been more machinery standing, and altogether the "state of things with the 5 per cent. advance would "probably not have been better than it was with the "5 per cent. reduction."(19) He added that he "did not "think it would have been prudent to entrust the "destinies of a great trade to the opinion of any single "individual who necessarily could not know anything "of the details and intricacies of the trade."(20)

Power loom weavers, W. Yorkshire. 1883

394. A considerable strike occurred in 1883 among the power loom weavers of the West Riding of Yorkshire.(21) About 1881 an attempt had been made by the workpeople to get the firms in the district to pay a uniform rate of wages. "To a certain extent they "were successful. There was no employers' associa- "tion at that time." (22) In consequence of the action, however, the employers organised and "after some "considerable time" (23) brought out a statement of wages. "The men said that it was not good enough,

[§ 394.] "and they refused to accept it. That was the cause "of the strike." The strike lasted 12 weeks, and resulted in the men's acceptance of the scale after a few concessions had been made. It still involved a reduction of wages, which fell more heavily upon the women than the men. The reason given for this was that "at the time there were considerably more men "weavers in the trade than women weavers and . . . "the attention of the committee . . . was directed "more to the question of men's labour than of women's "labour.(1) It was stated that the want of organisation in the trade was "very bad,"(2) and that "the "women were very badly organised; even worse than "the men.(3) The scale even in its modified form was "forced upon the workmen"(4); they had no share in drawing it up,(5) and "nothing but the pinch of "hunger," it was stated, "drove them to accept it."(6) The strike was said, however, to have left the union richer than when it began, because at first it had practically no funds, "but levies were laid as far as possible "to meet the expenditure which was going out."(7)

Jute and linen workers, Forfar 1889.

395. In 1889 a strike took place among the jute and linen workers of Forfar.(8) A demand was made for an increase of wages of 5 per cent. "because of an increase "that had been conceded at Dundee;"(9) the demand was denied, and the men in two of the factories of the town struck work. In one they were successful in three days in gaining their demand; in the other they "could not get the employers to respond reasonably "about the matter."(10) After they were out two weeks, all the other firms in the town locked out their operatives. For 10 weeks the number on strike was 500, and the total number both on strike and locked out by the employers was 2,400. At the end of that time the dispute was settled by conciliation, through the influence of Dr. Thornton, the town clerk. The men earning less than 20*s.* got an advance of 5 per cent.; those earning less than 17*s.*, an advance of 7½ per cent. There was no increase in the women's wages, because "the union's funds and all the money collected . . . "were exhausted, and the employers also were pre-"sumably tired of the dispute."(11) A promise was given that the women's claims should be considered in the spring of 1890, but this had not been fulfilled by 4th December 1891. The concession of the employers, Mr. Roy asserted, was "a promise that looked larger "than it was in reality. The number who were to "participate in the rise was comparatively so small "that it was not as much as if they had given 5 per "cent. to the women alone, who were the parties who "struck."(12) The strike cost the Factory Workers' Union about 2,400*l.*(13)

Spinners Shelley Road Mill, 1890.

396. In 1890 a strike occurred at the Shelley Road Mill, Preston, belonging to Messrs. Hartley Brothers.(14) "The spinners alleged that their earnings has been "reduced in consequence of bad material put in by "Hartley Brothers"(15) and claimed compensation. It was stated by a representative of the mill-hands that the strike was due to mismanagement (16) on the part of the manager; but this charge was contradicted by the chairman of the Cotton Operatives Society of Preston.(17) The secretary of the North and North-East Lancashire Cotton Spinners' and Manufacturers' Association asserted that in the first instance "it was "a very trumpery dispute; 30*s.* would have settled "it."(18) The employer, however, refused compensation; and when the representative of the Cotton Operatives Association saw him and intimated that they would demand it, brought the matter before the executive of the employers, who refused to give him permission to pay the claim. The secretary of the Employers' Association went through the mill, saw the material, and acknowledged that the spinning was bad but refused compensation, "as it was the principle of "the thing they objected to."(19) The strike began on 23rd January 1890, when a legal notice was given and the mill picketed. Implicit instructions were given to the pickets that under no circumstances were they to use violence, but several cases of intimidation were reported. Five persons were summoned and convicted,(20) and the Preston Association paid the fine in one case "because from the evidence that they had "they did not believe the man had been guilty of the "charge that was preferred against him."(1) Mr. Rawlinson stated that "there was a good deal of shouting "and hooting. Hartley Brothers imported hands, and "they were sent back again and terrorised."(2) Mr. Wilcock, one of the imported hands asserted, but the statement was denied by Mr. Stewart, that when they went to work they found that the machinery had been loosened in order that injury might result.(3) The employer carried on his work during the strike by means of imported labour, and "had half the machinery "running for a considerable portion of the time."(4) The strike lasted about six months, and was finally settled by the local union. The individual strikers were not consulted(5), and it ended in the men "re-"turning to work on the same terms that they came "out."(6) They considered that they could have settled it better themselves "when they saw Mr. Hartley "about three weeks before."(7) About 1,800*l.* was spent in strike pay by the Operatives' Association during the strike, and 1,500*l.* was paid by the Employers' Association to Messrs. Hartley Brothers as compensation for the loss they incurred.(8) [§ 396.]

CLOTHING TRADES.

Hosiers, Leicester, 1888.

397. A strike occurred in 1886 among the Leicester hosiers.(9) Prices were "very unequal," and a meeting was held between employers and employed, and a uniform list of prices drawn up, signed by representatives of both sides. It was stated by one of the employers that "as soon as the lists were issued, there "seemed to be some misconception on the part of the "people that their own representatives had not secured "quite as good lists as they might have done, so they "struck against their own representatives really."(10) A representative of the employed, however, stated that the strike "arose first through one of the employers "endeavouring to supersede men by boy labour,"(11) and that after this strike had continued some time, "the employers combined, taking us, as they thought, "at our weakest, and endeavoured to introduce a "reduction all round. The result was a general strike "throughout the town, and an entire stoppage of the "whole of the factories."(12) The Mayor of Leicester mediated between the two sides, and a list was arranged which "was not a reduction all round, but "was more of a revision. In some cases it was an "advance; in some cases it was a reduction; but on "the whole we stood pretty much where we were "before."(13)

Tailors at Southport, 1891.

398. About a month after an arrangement had been made for the settlement of all disputes by arbitration, the operatives in Southport sent their employers a circular demanding "an advance of ½*d.* per hour on our "present prices, *i.e.*, 5*d.* and 5½*d.*"(14) The employers of the Southport Branch of the Master Tailors' Association refused this demand, and the result was a strike.(15) The branch therefore requested the intervention of the executive of the Master Tailors' Association, which, according to its settled policy, advised a reference to the General Arbitration Board. The employers agreed to this course, but the workmen would only agree on condition that any increase of pay which the board might grant should date back to the day the men resumed work. The condition was granted and work was resumed. On May 11th, 1891, the following award was issued by the board: "We recommend the masters "in Southport to pay the advance of ½*d.* per hour "demanded by the men, on condition that the classi-"fication of material, as printed in the time log, be "strictly adhered to; the machine to be used at the "discretion of the employers."(16) The Southport workmen refused, however, to abide by this decision, or to submit to further arbitration, and again went out on strike. For eight weeks the executive of the Masters' Association made efforts to put an end to the strife. During this time the employers were able to get their work done and carry on their business. The men therefore demanded an individual undertaking from two members of the executive, Messrs. Allen and Johnston, not to assist the Southport masters on pain of the immediate withdrawal of the workmen from the firms of which they were partners. The undertaking was declined, but arbitration as to the justice of the demand was offered. The men's union refused it, and withdrew the workmen. The Liverpool branch of the association then unanimously resolved to lock out all

(1) Gee, 4929. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (2) Gee, 5113. (3) Gee, 5178. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (4) Gee, 5117. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (5) Gee, 5116. (6) Gee, 5115. Digest, Vol. I., p. 51. (7) Gee, 5077. Digest, Vol. I., p. 53. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 53. (9) Roy, 11,274. (10) Roy, 11,360, (11) Roy, 11,279. (12) Roy, 11,212. (13) Digest, Vol. I., p. 53. (14) Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (15) Rawlinson, 2174. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (16) Stewart, 2968. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (17) Billington, 4768. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (18) Rawlinson, 2473. (19) Billington, 4730. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (20) Billington, 4764. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52.

(1) Billington, 4735. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (2) Rawlinson, 2670. (3) Wilcock, 3226; Stewart, 3158, 3162. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (4) Rawlinson, 2674. Digest, Vol, I., p. 52. (5) Stewart, 3030. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (6) Rawlinson, 2472. (7) Stewart, 3035. Digest, Vol. I., p. 52. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 53. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 64. (10) Tyler, 13,664. Digest, Vol. II., p. 64. (11) Holmes, 12,710. (12) Holmes, 12,712. Digest, Vol. II., p. 64. (13) Holmes, 12,713. Digest, Vol. II., p. 64. (14) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXV. (15) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXV. Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (16) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXV.

[§ 398.] union workmen till the men withdrawn from the two firms returned to work. After the strike had lasted for eight weeks the Liverpool men had to return without the undertaking they struck to enforce, and the Southport men were induced, by the exhaustion of their funds, and the apparent hopelessness of the struggle, to submit to independent arbitration. The first question submitted to the arbitrator was whether under the award of May 11th "day wage and machine men" were entitled to an advance of ½*d.* per hour. The operatives contended that they were, the employers that they were not, on the ground that they were paid at a higher rate than 5*d.* and 5½*d.* an hour, and were therefore not included in the demand. The arbitrator's decision was as follows: "The representatives of the "men contended that the refusal of the employers to "pay this 'back money' to 'day wage and machine "men' was a breach of the award. I do not agree "with this, By paying the advance (and the back "money) to men previously receiving 4½*d.* and 5*d.* "per hour, the employers have, in my opinion, complied "with the decision of the Arbitration Board upon this "point . . . I think the Southport employers acted "wisely in advancing the wages of their 'day-wage "and machine men,' but had they done otherwise "I could not have said that they were refusing to "comply with the award."(1) The second point submitted was the classification of materials. According to the secretary of the Master Tailors' Association "this question of classification lay at the bottom of "the dispute at Southport,"(2) The men contended that if the employers forced goods which had hitherto been paid first-class into the second-class scale, the advance of ½*d.* per hour was "illusory." On the other hand, an employer stated that "in Southport they had "put nearly all the common and inferior tweeds into "the first class."(3) It was, however, conceded before the arbitrator that the employers intended by giving a "new reading" to the classification of goods to prevent the operatives getting the full advantage of an advance of ½*d.* per hour. He decided that, "in his opinion, a "new reading was not authorised by the award."(4) No change should have been made in the classification without either the previous consent of the operatives or an appeal to arbitration, and as the employers sought the change, they should have taken the initiative to put the arbitration rules in force. The arbitrator finally advised the consideration of Mr. Gordon's proposal that "the two executives should make up "bunches of patterns into first and second class "material for the guidance of employers and employed "at Southport."(5) That course has not been adopted, however, "and at the present time it is still an open "question; we cannot get the men to submit these "bunches for consideration."(6)

3. PICKETING AND INTIMIDATION, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act.

399. With regard to the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act,(7) it appears from the evidence that the opinions of employers and employed differ very widely. The representatives of the employés were almost unanimously agreed that "the seventh section of the Act is "a danger to trade unionists,"(8) especially to those in positions of authority. It is stated in that section that:—"Every person who, with a view to compel any other person to abstain from doing or to do any act which such other person has a legal right to do or abstain from doing, wrongfully or without legal authority:

"1. Uses violence to or intimidates such other person, or his wife or children, or injures his property; or,

"2. Persistently follows such other person about from place to place; or,

"3. Hides any tools, clothes, or other property owned or used by such other person, or deprives him of or hinders him in the use thereof; or,

"4. Watches or besets the house or other place where such other person resides, or works, or carries on business, or happens to be, the approach to such house or place; or

"5. Follows such other person with two or more other persons in a disorderly manner, in or through any street or road, shall, on conviction by a court of summary jurisdiction, or on indictment as herein-after mentioned, be liable either to pay a penalty not exceeding 20*l.*, or to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three months, with or without hard labour. [§ 399.]

"Attending at or near the house or place where a "person resides, or works, or carries on business, or "happens to be, or the approach to such house or place, "in order merely to obtain or communicate information "shall not be deemed a watching or besetting within the "meaning of this section." Mr. Judge stated, however, that he had been convicted on the sole ground of having written a letter to an employer to the effect that if he continued to discharge men because they were seen speaking to him, his men would be withdrawn and his premises picketed. This was held to be an illegal threat, and Mr. Justice Stephen emphatically stated that a threat causing any kind of fear was an offence. This decision was, however, overruled by the Court of Appeal. Mr. Judge considered that the use of such language should be dealt with under the ordinary Police Act. He "would not justify the offence, but "would modify the punishment."(1) Mr. Marston was of opinion that "the 7th section of the Conspiracy Act "operates very arbitrarily against trades unions, and "ought to be abolished,"(2) and Mr. Keir proposed "to "wipe the 7th section of the Act altogether out of the "Statute Book, and treat a man who tries to intimi-"date his fellow man under the common law." He denounced the clause as one "directed distinctly "against trades unionists. It creates an offence, and "it punishes you for the offence afterwards."(3) As regards picketing, Mr. Inskip considered that the workmen have been unduly interfered with,(4) but that they already have sufficient rights under the Act if properly interpreted(5). "We only want our right of obtaining "and communicating information recognised."(6). He desired, therefore, "that the Act should be so amended "that magistrates and the clerks who advise them "should not have the power they now have of reading "the 7th section without reading also the saving "clause."(7) A resolution was stated to have been carried unanimously at a meeting of the Amalgamated Society of Tailors at Liverpool, in August, 1891, to the effect "that this conference is of opinion that section 7 "of the Conspiracy and Property Act of 1875 ought to "be brought into accord with the saving clause of that "section, seeing that there have been several instances "where the meaning of the Act has been misconstrued "in courts of summary jurisdiction and superior "courts, thereby causing needless expense and anxiety "to trade unionists."(8) The employers, on the other hand, with one exception, would like to see the laws of picketing made a little more stringent.(9) Reference was made by several to the great difficulty of obtaining convictions.(10) Mr. Simpson held that "the only way "of dealing with the difficulty is to do away wholly "with picketing . . . . . I should make "it a point of damages . . . . . I "think it would be much easier to get juries to give "damages in a civil action than it is to get justices to "convict."(11) Mr. Russell "would certainly put down "picketing by legal means,"(12) and Mr. Allen "would "not allow pickets of more than one person."(13) Mr. Gordon "would like to see a sufficient protection "afforded to those men who are willing to continue "their labour for the employers,"(14) and Mr. Noble thinks "that the law should make it an offence to "follow and hoot at the hands and to intimidate them "in various ways, though without doing them bodily "injury."(15) Mr. Rawlinson, on the other hand, held that the law is strong enough. "It is in the impossi-"bility of administering it in the spirit in which it was "drawn that the difficulty lies."(16) He could, however, suggest no specific alteration either in the law or in its mode of administration.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXV. (2) Gordon, 13,534. Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (3) Gordon, 15,334. Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXV. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXV. (6) Gordon, 15,334. Digest, Vol. II., p. 65. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 70, Vol. II. p. 108. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 108. Judge, 12,119.

(9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 109; Judge, 12,126 7. (2) Digest, Vol. I., p. 70; Marston. 9,405. (3) Keir, 14,774; Digest, Vol. II., p. 109. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 109; Inskip, 16,180. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 109; Inskip, 16,056. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 109; Inskip, 16,057. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 109 Inskip, 16,056. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 109. (9) Gordon, 15,355; Digest, Vol. II., p. 110. (10) Simpson, 2299 300; Rawlinson, 2863; Yates, 7824; Digest, Vol. I., pp. 70, 71. (11) Simpson, 2301–4; Digest, Vol. I., p. 70. (12) Digest, Vol. I., p. 71; Russell, 3635. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 110; Allen, 4236. (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 110; Gordon, 15,390. (15) Noble, 4,011; Digest, Vol. I., p. 71. (16) Rawlinson, 2,862, Digest, Vol. I., p. 70.

APPENDIX.

RULES FOR THE PREVENTION OF LABOUR DISPUTES IN THE BOOT AND SHOE TRADE.*

At the conference of the Federated Associations of Boot and Shoe Manufacturers and the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives, held in August 1892, a sub-committee was appointed to draw up a code of rules for the prevention of strikes and lock-outs, and to secure the reference of all trade disputes to arbitration. This sub-committee accordingly recommended that a permanent board of conciliation and arbitration should be established in each trade centre, and that every question affecting the relations of employers and workmen, collectively or individually, should be submitted for settlement to such local boards. The constitution and rules of the London Board of Conciliation and Arbitration were recommended as a model for other centres. All disputes should be at once referred to the secretary of the local board, and by him to the investigators, or, failing these, or in the event of their being unable to settle the matter, to the committee of inquiry. Any question which cannot be decided by the committee of inquiry must be referred to the local board of arbitration and conciliation to decide or refer to the arbitrators or umpire. If, for any reason, a local board is unable to appoint arbitrators or an umpire, the president of the Federated Associations and a member appointed by the executive of the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives are empowered to appoint the arbitrators, and failing their decision the matter must be referred to an umpire appointed at an annual conference between the executive committee of the Federated Associations and a committee of an equal number representing the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives. If the employers or operatives desire to amend the existing prices or conditions they are required to give at least three months' notice, to come into operation at the beginning of a season, and if it is decided by the local board that the proposed change involves a new principle, it must be referred to the conference, pending the decision of which no steps must be taken to enforce the change. It is particularly urged that on no account should there be any cessation of work, at the instigation of either employers or employed.

* Minutes of Evidence Vol. III., Appendix CXIV.

GROUP C.

SUMMARY of the EVIDENCE, oral and written, received by GROUP C. of the ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR.

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NOTE.

IN accordance with a Resolution of the Commission, the Secretary was directed to prepare Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written) received by the Committees. This Evidence includes:—

1. The Minutes of Evidence, with Appendices.
2. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
3. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards.
4. The Rules of Accident, Sick, and Superannuation Funds handed in to the Commission.
5. Certain other Documents handed in or forwarded to the Commission, but not printed with the above.

Under the head of Chemical, Building, and Miscellaneous Trades, these include:—

Letters from five doctors, testifying to the injurious effects of the long hours upon shop assistants, especially upon females; handed in by Mr. Milligan.

Report of the London United Trades' Committee of Carpenters and Joiners upon the "Eight Hours' Movement," &c.; handed in by Mr. Dew.

6. Further Correspondence on certain subjects.

N.B.—The following official sources of information have also been consulted:—

(i.) Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions, Fifth Report, 1891.
(ii.) Report on the Strikes and Lock-outs of 1891, issued by the Board of Trade.
(iii.) Returns on Hours of Work, ordered by the House of Commons, on the motion of Mr. Broadhurst (375, 1890).

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PART II.—CHEMICAL, BUILDING, AND MISCELLANEOUS TRADES.

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.*

1. WAGES.

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[§ 400.] I. BUILDING AND COGNATE TRADES. Sources of information.

400. The following tabular statement of the average weekly wages of various classes of workmen in the building and cognate trades has been drawn chiefly from the Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891 published by the Board of Trade, and from the written evidence given in to the Commission, which has been supplemented in a few cases by the oral evidence taken.

[§ 400]

TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Wages in the Building and Cognate Trades, arranged in descending order.†

References.	Class of Workmen.	Weekly Wages. £ s. d.	REMARKS.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 160–163.	Bricklayers -	1 12 6⅜	In the returns for 108 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average weekly wages of bricklayers are found to be 32*s.* 5⅜*d.*, and in the returns for 177 districts given by the Operative Bricklayers' Society they are found to be 32*s.* 7½*d.* The amount given in the table is the mean of these two results.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 189–192.	Plumbers - -	1 12 6⅛	In the returns for 112 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average weekly wages of plumbers are found to be 31*s.* 8½*d.*, and in the returns for 107 districts given by the United Operative Plumbers' Association they are found to be 33*s.* 3¾*d.* The amount given in the table is the mean of these two results.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions for 1891, pp. 193–197.	Masons - -	1 12 3¼	In the returns for 119 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average weekly wages of masons are found to be 31*s.* 10⅝*d.*; in the returns for 136 districts given by the Operative Stonemasons' Friendly Society they are found to be 31*s.* 11½*d.*, and in the returns for 46 districts given by the United Operative Masons' Association of Scotland they are found to be 32*s.* 11⅝*d.* The amount given in the table is the average of these three results.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 185–188.	Plasterers -	1 12 3	In the returns for 111 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average weekly wages of plasterers are found to be 31*s.* 2½*d.*, and in the returns for 94 districts given by the National Association of Operative Plasterers they are found to be 33*s.* 3½*d.* The amount given in the table is the mean of these two results.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendices XXX. and XXXIII. Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions for 1891, pp. 176–179.	Carpenters and joiners.	1 12 0⅜	In the returns for 118 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average weekly wages of carpenters and joiners are found to be 30*s.* 9⅛*d.*; in the returns for 298 districts given by the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners they are found to be 32*s.* 0½*d.*; in the returns for 86 districts given by the General Union of Operative Carpenters and Joiners they are found to be 33*s.* 11¾*d.*, and in the returns for 100 districts given by the Union of Associated Carpenters and Joiners they are found to be 31*s.* 4¼*d.* The amount given in the table is the average of these four results.

* The few suggestions with regard to the publication of statistics, given in the oral and written evidence, have been dealt with in the Summary of the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, under the head of "Labour Department."

† The returns from which the averages have been obtained are for 1891 in all cases except in those of coopers, coachmakers, and brickmakers, in which it is not stated whether they are for 1890 or 1891. Returns of rates of wages in the various districts and for the various classes of workmen for July 1893, have been sent to the Commission by the National Association of Master Builders. These show several local changes in rates of wages, but the alterations made by them in the general averages are so slight that it has not been considered necessary to point them out.

§ 400.] TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Wages in the Building and Cognate Trades, arranged in descending order—*continued.* [§ 400.]

References.	Class of Workmen.	Weekly Wages. £ s. d.	REMARKS.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions for 1891, pp. 180–185.	Painters - -	1 10 11¾	In the returns for 109 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average weekly wages of painters are found to be 28*s.* 6¾*d.*; in the returns for 48 districts given by the Amalgamated Society of House Decorators and Painters they are found to be 32*s.* 4*d.*, and in the returns for 66 districts (of house painters only) given by the National Amalgamated Society of Operative House and Ship Painters and Decorators they are found to be 32*s.* 0½*d.* The amount given in the table is the average of these three results.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.	Slaters - -	1 10 6⅝	This is the amount of the average weekly wages of slaters as found from the returns for 93 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders.
Digest, Vol. II., pp. 54–55. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 54–57.	Coopers - -	1 10 4¾	This is the amount of the average weekly wages of coopers as found from the oral and written evidence relating to six branches of the Mutual Association of Coopers and the Coopers' Branch of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 198–200. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 40–45. Digest, Vol. II., p. 44.	Cabinet makers -	1 9 9¾	In the returns for 51 districts given by the Amalgamated Union of Cabinet Makers the average weekly wages are found to be 32*s.* 4½*d.*; in the returns for 16 districts given by the United Operative Cabinet and Chair Makers' Society of Scotland they are found to be 29*s.* 4¾*d.*, and in the answers from eight branches of the Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association they are found to be 27*s.* 8½*d.* The amount given in the table is the average of these three results, and is further corroborated by the oral evidence of the Secretary of the Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association, who stated that the average earnings were under 30*s.*, although in good shops more was earned.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 409–415.	Coachmakers -	1 6 5¼	This is the amount of the average weekly wages of coachmakers as found from the written evidence of nine employers.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 375–381. Digest, Vol. II., p. 40.	Brickmakers -	1 6 1½	This is the amount of the average weekly wages of brickmakers as found from the written evidence of seven employers and the oral evidence of a representative of the Operative Brickmakers' Society of Nottingham.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.	Plasterers' labourers.	1 1 1⅜	This is the amount of the average weekly wages of plasterers' labourers as found from the returns for 105 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.	Masons' labourers	1 0 9¾	This is the amount of the average weekly wages of masons' labourers as found from the returns for 114 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.	Bricklayers' labourers	1 0 8⅛	This is the amount of the average weekly wages of bricklayers' labourers as found from the returns for 109 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders.

Note.—In the tables given in by the National Association of Master Builders the rates of wages per hour are given alone. In order to find the average weekly wages, the average rate per hour was first determined, and this multiplied by what was found to be the average number of hours worked per week.

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401. It will be noticed that there is considerable uniformity in the rates of wages thus obtained for the different classes of workmen, those of all workmen engaged in the building trades proper (with the exception of the labourers) lying between 30*s.* 6¼*d.* and 32*s.* 6½*d.* There are, however, in all these classes of labour extensive local variations. Thus the rates per hour quoted by the United Operative Plumbers' Association vary from 5½*d.* in Londonderry to 10*d.* in London, and those quoted by the Operative Bricklayers' Society vary from 5*d.* at Cromer to 9*d.* in most of the large and northern towns.

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402. In the majority of these trades there have been recent advances in wages, which are attributed to trade union efforts, and in some cases to the effect of strikes. Thus during the year 1891 there were advances in the rate of wages in—

96 branches of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners,
46 branches of the Operative Bricklayers' Society,
45 branches of the United Operative Plumbers' Association,
31 branches of the National Association of Operative Plasterers, and
28 branches of the Operative Stonemasons' Friendly Society,

as well as numerous similar advances in the branches of smaller societies. (1) The alterations that have taken place in the weekly wages of masons in some of the larger towns of Scotland since 1869 are shown in the following table. (2)

(1) Statistical Tables, &c. for 1891, pp. 163, 174, 188, 192, 196. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.

[§ 402.] TABLE of Masons' Weekly Wages in Seven Years in Seven Towns in Scotland. [§ 402.]

Town.	1869.	1872.	1876.	1880.	1884.	1888.	1891.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Aberdeen - -	—	1 7 7½	1 9 9	1 6 6¾	1 6 6¾	—	—
Ayr - -	1 6 1½	1 7 7½	1 16 1½	1 5 6	1 7 7½	—	—
Dumfries - -	1 8 6	1 7 7½	1 16 1½	1 9 9	1 9 9	1 9 9	—
Dundee - -	1 5 6	1 7 7½	1 12 2¼	1 6 6¾	1 10 9¾	1 9 9	1 12 11¼
Edinburgh -	1 7 7½	1 7 7½	1 18 3	1 5 6	1 7 7½	1 9 9	1 14 0
Glasgow - -	1 7 7½	1 9 9	2 0 4½	1 5 6	1 9 9	1 9 9	1 12 11¼
Inverness - -	1 4 11½	1 4 11½	1 11 10½	1 6 6¾	1 6 6¾	1 10 9¾	1 10 9¾

Note.—Wherever two rates have been given for one year the arithmetic mean has been taken.

It will be seen from the above table that there was a general reduction in masons' wages in Scotland between the years 1876 and 1880, and in the oral evidence this was attributed to the effect of the City of Glasgow Bank failure in 1878, after which "there was an entire stoppage" of the building trade in the district. (1) Since 1880 wages have gradually risen again, but have not yet recovered the 1877 rate. A similar movement took place in the wages of carpenters and joiners in Glasgow and of masons in England at the same time. (2)

Mode of payment.

403. Wages in the various branches of the building trades are as a rule calculated by the hour and paid weekly. In Scotland the wages of carpenters and joiners are said to be paid fortnightly in some cases, and in Dublin they are calculated by the day instead of the hour, whilst in a few small towns in England they are calculated by the week. (3) Piece-work is much disliked by the builders' trades unions, several of which forbid their members to work in this manner. It is stated that piece-work leads to a reduction of wages and to work of an inferior quality. It is, however, seldom practised except in "sweating" shops, and in making staircases, for which special hands are necessary. Task-work is also disliked and not recognised by the unions. (4) Cabinet makers are paid according to three different systems, by time-work, piece-work, or lump-work. In piece-work the workman undertakes a piece of furniture at a certain price after reckoning minutely the cost of every detail. In lump-work, on the other hand, the details are not taken into consideration, but the employer gives out a piece of furniture to be made at a price fixed by himself or the workman on a mere guess as to what the cost will be. Something is then paid on account each week until the article is finished, when the balance is made up. This system is much disliked by the workmen, who regard it as a form of sweating, and speak of "the rotten system of lump-" work, getting full pressure out of the best workmen " and rating the others at the same level." In the best shops payment is by the hour or the day. (5) The substitution of cheap furniture for high-class work is, however, said to be on the increase, and this is attributed partly to the large number of foreign Jews who have entered the trade both in London and Leeds, and who learn to make only certain parts of a piece of furniture which is divided up between several persons. These foreigners carry on the trade in their own houses or in "shanties," and work long hours for very small wages. They sell their work to furniture dealers, and as they must be paid before 2 o'clock on Saturday in order to buy wood for the following week's work, if they are too late to cash their cheques at a bank they are obliged to take them to another salesman to cash them for a small commission. Or if they cannot sell the work at all they leave it in pawn, on the understanding that they will receive whatever price it fetches minus the commission and a small advance which is made upon it to enable them to buy wood. In other cases the employers pay their foreign workmen in advance, in order to keep them bound to work under very unfavourable conditions. (6) Coach makers are as a rule paid by piece-work, though weekly wages are also common, (1) and coopers are paid either by day-work or on piece-work according to prices fixed by mutual agreement. In the Newcastle district there are said to be three sections of coopers' work, viz., tight work for dairy produce, and dry work for the brewery and the spirit trades, and a standard price is fixed for each article. (2) On the East and West coasts of Scotland all the journeymen coopers engaged in making barrels for fish agree to make a certain number every week, from 20 to 30, and are paid by the week, thus working by a kind of task-work. (3) Task-work is also mentioned in cabinet making, but no particulars are given with regard to its nature. (4)

Sub-contracts.

404. The sub-contract system in building is a frequent subject of complaint upon the part of the workmen, who explain that their grievance only refers to those cases in which a master builder allows some of his workmen to undertake part of a building on their own responsibility, or in which the sub-contractors do not provide materials, but simply pay the wages of the workmen. In the first case the work is sometimes sub-let to the men on the promise of a certain payment, but without any written agreement. It is said that they accept the work at a price too low to allow of any profit, and when they ask for the balance due to them the employers find fault with the work and refuse it. (5) In the second case the sub-contractors have no reputation to lose and therefore pay low wages, adulterate the materials, and scamp the work. "Sub-letting practically means that the same " amount of work is squeezed out of four men by a " scamping system that would in an ordinary way be got " out of five men . . . . In bricklaying . . . . . " a certain master will take the job of laying bricks on " a certain building at so much a thousand or so much " a yard. Then he will employ . . a couple of men " who are well known in the trade as 'bell-horses.' Pro- " bably they are two of the strongest men he can get; " he will give them, perhaps, 3*d.* or 4*d.* an hour more " than he will give to the other men, and they take the " corners and some of the leading parts of the building, " and push the line up as fast as they can. The general " line of men who are working along it have to keep " up level as the line is moved, otherwise they are dis- " charged." (6) A similar complaint is made of the "sweating" employers in the outlying districts of London, who are said to choose their foremen simply on account of their power of driving the workmen, although they may be quite ignorant of the higher technicalities of the trade. Ready-made carpentry is said to be made by the cartload for jerry builders in sweating shops of this kind. (7) The trades unions have, however, no objection to the form of sub-contracting which is usual when a large contractor undertakes the whole of a building and sub-lets the various branches of the work, still retaining the responsibility of the whole. It was stated by some employers that the sub-letting of portions of the work which require special skill is an advantage to all concerned, and that

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 37. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., 17, 833–844. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 34, 39. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 33, 34, and 48. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 36, 38, and 48. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 29 and 31. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 41, 44. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 44, 45. (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 45, 46.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 53, 408. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 54, 55. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 57. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 41, 45. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 40 and 42. (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 43 and 47. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 36.

[§ 404.] plumbing, plastering, marble, mosaic and smiths' work are generally recognised as specialities. In some cases the architect specifies in the agreement that the plumbing or plastering shall be sub-let, and even mentions the name of the man who is to take it. The effect of this system upon wages is said to be good rather than the reverse, for while ordinary master builders only pay the wages current in the trade, specialists often pay ½*d.* an hour more in order to secure the best workmen. (1) A form of sub-contracting is common in coach-building according to which the employer gives out the work to certain men "who are "selected for their good qualities, and who engage the "men who work under them; they are also responsible "for the excellence of the work, and pay the men they "engage." The workmen, however, complain that these piece-masters, or sub-contractors, make their profit by getting the men under them to work as cheaply as possible, and that "in some shops one man "has all the work, much to the loss of the other men "employed." (2) The system of sub-contracts appears to prevail in some districts amongst cabinet makers and coopers, as at High Wycombe, where "most of the "polishing and a large per-centage of the upholstering "and some parts of the back-making are paid through "a sub-contractor;" and at St. Helens', where coopers are paid through a sub-contractor "in two or three "shops out of six"; whilst in other neighbourhoods the system is almost unknown. (3)

Variations of wages.

405. In all branches of the building trades there are considerable local variations in wages, as has been already pointed out. These variations are in some cases attributed to want of organisation rather than to any local differences in the circumstances of the labourers, and amongst house painters they are said to be due to the employment of unskilled men who "scamp" their work and to the severe competition amongst the workmen. (4) Insufficient scope for variations in wages was complained of by a non-unionist representative of the carpenters and joiners, who stated that the influence of the trade unions reduced wages to a dead level, so that the masters were unable to pay higher wages to the superior workmen. He did not advocate a strict classification of the workmen with regard to wages, but thought that the foreman might be allowed discretional power in the matter. Several employers supported his view of the tendency of the unions to make the wages of good and bad workmen equal. (5) There are considerable local variations in the wages of cabinet makers, and it is stated that the wages of coachbuilders vary more with the locality and the shop than according to skill. They are generally highest where the union is strong, but the latter has made no attempt to establish a uniform rate of wages throughout the kingdom, as this would be impossible under the present system of different classes of workshops. It has, however, endeavoured to keep up the general rate of wages, and to establish higher ones in the high-class shops. (6)

Irregularity of employment.

406. Work is irregular in all the building trades, as some branches are directly dependent upon the season and weather, and their irregularity affects the other trades. There is least irregularity from this cause amongst carpenters and joiners, but even for them work is very scarce during January, February, and March. (7) Brickmakers, bricklayers, and stonemasons appear to suffer most in this respect, and are said to be "em-"ployed six months in the year, and stopped in wet "weather," or to be fairly well employed in the summer, and subject to starvation in the winter. (8)

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 40. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 15, 16. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 53, 408. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 41, 55, 57. (4) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 34 and 42. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 36. Digest, Vol. III., p. 15. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 33 and 37. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 116, 117.

[§ 406.] Similar complaints were made with regard to house painters, a large proportion of whom are unemployed from October to March. The representatives of two societies of house painters considered that far more painting could be carried on in the winter than was customary, and suggested that if public work were done during the slack time it would render employment more regular. (9) In other trades the employment is said to be fairly regular, except for some seasonal fluctuations Thus coachmakers have usually a slack season during the winter, and are very busy in the spring, whilst for cabinet-makers "the first quarter of the year is gene-"rally very quiet, the summer busy, and August and "September slack, and then till Christmas good." (2) The coopers' trade is often dependent upon some other industry, the fluctuations of which affect the coopers directly. Thus at St. Helens it depends upon the bleaching powder trade; at Hull upon the oil trade; on the east and west coasts of Scotland upon the fishing; and at Belfast upon the whiskey trade. (3)

Allowances and deductions.

407. There are very few allowances in addition to wages mentioned in these trades, but coopers employed by breweries are generally given an allowance of beer, and those employed on the west coast of Scotland sometimes have free lodgings and food provided for them. Food is also sometimes provided for Jewish cabinet makers. (4) There are as a rule no fines or deductions from wages in the building trades, with the exception of occasional deductions for the purpose of insurance. The payment of railway fares by the men in going to their work was mentioned as a grievance by two witnesses, one of whom referred to the large amount of money spent in this manner by the lath-renders, whose work is very irregular, and who are obliged to take a job wherever they can get one. (5) The other witness, himself an employer, desired that employers should be legally bound to pay the railway expenses of men sent to work in the country. (6) Attention was also called to the fact that carpenters provide their own tools, which cost from 10*l.* to 25*l.*, and the witness therefore recommended that employers should provide a watchman to take care of them. (7) Deductions from wages to pay for the use of gas or other artificial light are common in the case of cabinet makers, and often amount to 6*d.* a week, and one large firm at Hull is said to stop 5 per cent. on all earned by the piece amongst chair-makers, but amongst coopers and coachmakers the only direct stoppages are for loss of time. (8) Both coopers and cabinet makers are required to provide their own tools, which for the former are worth about 4*l.* a set, whilst those of cabinet-makers are worth about 15*l.* a set, and cost 1*s.* a week for grinding and repairs. (9)

II. PRINTING AND COGNATE TRADES.

Sources of information.

408. The oral and written evidence which has been received with regard to the wages of workmen engaged in the printing, bookbinding, and cognate trades is summarised in the four tables below. The rates which have been quoted in these sources for the various districts of the Scottish Typographical Association and the Bookbinders and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union have been compared with those quoted in the "Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions" for 1891, and when a difference occurred the rate quoted in the tables is that given in the latter publication, as it is probably of a more recent date than the one given in the evidence. Any divergence of this kind has, however, been noticed in the remarks on the tables.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 42. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 130. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 141, 142, 143. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 43, 55, 57. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 14. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 41. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 34. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 43, 46, 47, and 55. (9) Digest, Vol. II. pp. 44 and 54

[§ 403.] WAGES of Members of the Typographical Association in different Districts, and of the Dublin Typographical Provident Society. [§ 403.]

References.	District.	Weekly Wages. Jobbing, &c. (Time Work).	Weekly Wages. Newspaper Work (chiefly Piece-Work). Morning Papers (Night Work).	Weekly Wages. Newspaper Work (chiefly Piece-Work). Evening Papers (Day Work).	REMARKS.
		s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 63	Dublin Typographical Society.	35 0	-	-	Not a branch of the Typographical Association.
Answers to Schedules of Questions - p. 75	Liverpool	34 0	44 0	—	
" " " p. 78	Southport	34 0	—	—	
" " " p. 73	Birmingham	33 0	45*s.* to 50*s.* (average).	36 9 32*s.* 6*d.* (weekly papers).	
" " " p. 75	Holmfirth and District.	33 0	38*s.* (average)	33*s.* (average).	
" " " p. 73 Digest, Vol. III., p. 62.	Belfast	32 6 (minimum).	40*s.* (average)	35*s.* (average)	It was stated in the oral evidence that although 32*s.* 6*d.* is the recognised minimum rate, many men earn 35*s.*, and a few of the best 37*s.* 6*d.*
Answers to Schedules of Questions - p. 73	Bradford and District	32 0	—	—	
" " " p. 75	Leicester	32 0	—	—	
" " " p. 77	Oldham	32 0	36*s.* (average)	-	32*s.* establishment wages; 36*s.* 6*d.* average of all piece-work.
" " " p. 79	Sunderland	32 0	—	—	
" " " p. 75	Hull and District	31 6	-	-	Class of work not stated.
" " " p. 77	Preston and Chorley	31 6	-	-	Class of work not stated.
" " " p. 80	Wolverhampton	30 6	36*s.* (average)	—	
" " " p. 80	York	30 6	-	-	Ordinary hands, 29*s.*; superior hands, 30*s.* to 32*s.* The arithmetic mean of 29*s* and 32*s.* has been taken.
" " " p. 72	Ashton-under-Lyne and District.	30 0 (minimum).	-	-	Class of work not stated.
" " " p. 74	Bristol	30 0	40 0	32*s.* (weekly papers).	
" " " p. 77	Oxford	30*s.* (average)	-	-	Skilled labour, but class of work not stated.
" " " p. 77	Potteries and District	30 0	—	—	
" " " p. 79	Stockport and District	30 0 (minimum).	—	—	
" " " p. 79	Wigan	30 0 (minimum).	-	-	Class of work not stated.
" " " p. 78	Scarborough	29 0	-	-	Wages are said to be 28*s.* to 30*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. Class of work not stated.
" " " p. 78	Shrewsbury	28 0	-	-	Wages said to be 26*s.* to 30*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. Class of work not stated.
" " " p. 76	Newry and Armagh	26 3	-	-	Wages at Armagh from 20*s.* to 27*s.*; at Newry 25*s.* to 32*s.* 6*d.* The arithmetic mean of 20*s.* and 32*s.* 6*d.* has been taken.
" " " p. 79	Tunbridge Wells	26 0	-	-	Class of work not stated.
" " " p. 74	Carnarvon	25 0 (standard).	-	-	"Standard" wages. Class of work not stated.
" " " p. 74	Exeter	23 0	-	-	Wages are said to be 22*s.* to 24*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. Class of work not stated.
Digest, Vol. III. - p. 62	Waterford	22 0 (minimum).	-	-	In some offices the minimum is 20*s.*, in others 24*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. Best hands earn 35*s.*

Note.—The average wages throughout the Typographical Association were said to be from 31*s.* to 32*s.* for jobbing printers, and from 40*s.* to 42*s.* for men employed on daily papers. (Digest, Vol. III., p. 56.)

WAGES of Members of the Scottish Typographical Association in different Districts.*

References.	District.	Weekly Wages. Jobbing, &c. (Time Work).	Weekly Wages. Newspaper Work (chiefly Piece-Work). Morning Papers (Night Work).	Weekly Wages. Newspaper Work (chiefly Piece-Work). Evening Papers (Day Work).	REMARKS.
		s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 83. Statistical Tables. Digest, Vol. III., p. 60.	Glasgow	34 0	40 0	35 6	In the oral evidence it is stated that although the recognised minimum rate is 34*s.*, a large proportion of the men earn 36*s.* 6*d.* or 39*s.*
Answers &c., p. 85. Statistical Tables.	Paisley	34 0	-	-	The Answers &c. give the rate for 1890, viz., 30*s.*
Answers &c., p. 83. Statistical Tables. Digest, Vol. III., p. 60.	Edinburgh	32 3	40 0	35 0	The rate is given as 32*s.* to 32*s.* 6*d.*, and the arithmetic mean has been taken. The Answers &c. give the minimum rate for 1890, viz., 30*s.*
Answers &c., p. 82. Statistical Tables.	Dumbarton and District.	31 6	-	-	The Answers &c. give the minimum rate for 1890, viz., 30*s.*
Answers &c., p. 83. Statistical Tables.	Hamilton	30 0	—	—	
Answers, &c., p. 81. Statistical Tables.	Aberdeen and District	29 0	37 6	30 0	The rates given in the Answers &c. are 27*s.* minimum for day work, 42*s.* to 50*s.* average for piece-work on morning papers, and 37*s.* 6*d.* establishment wages for same.
Answers &c., p. 84. Statistical Tables.	Kilmarnock	28 6	-	-	The Answers &c. give the rate for 1890 viz., 27*s.*
Answers &c., p. 82. Statistical Tables.	Dumfries	27 0	—	—	
Answers &c., p. 85. Statistical Tables.	Perth	27 0	—	—	
Answers &c., p. 84. Statistical Tables.	Oban	26 6	-	-	The Answers &c. give the rate for 1890 viz., 25*s.*
Answers &c., p. 81. Statistical Tables.	Arbroath	26 0	-	-	The Answers &c. give the minimum rate as 25*s.*
Answers &c., p. 82. Statistical Tables.	Ardrossan	26 0	—	—	
Answers &c., p. 85.	Bute	25 0	—	—	
Answers &c., p. 83. Statistical Tables.	Kelso	25 0	—	—	

* For full details see the table in Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pages 244–45. The general average for jobbing and book work obtained from the returns in this table is 28*s.* 9½*d.*

[§ 408.] WAGES of Members of the Bookbinders' and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union in different Districts.* [§ 408.]

Reference.	District.	Weekly Wages (Minimum).	REMARKS.
		s.	
Statistical tables, &c. for 1891	Barrow	33	33*s.* is the highest minimum rate quoted in any district.
„ „ Answers to Schedules &c., p. 90	Liverpool	32	
„ „ „ „ p. 91	London	32	In the Answers &c. it is said that about half the trade are paid at the minimum rate, and the average of the whole trade is about 35*s.* 6*d.* The average of the higher wages is about 39*s.*, the highest rate 55*s.*
„ „ „ „ p. 92	Newcastle and District.	32	
„ „ „ „ p. 92	Sheffield	32	In the Answers &c. the rate is given as 31*s.* to 45*s.*
„ „ „ „ p. 86	Birmingham	30	The Answers &c. give the minimum rate as 27*s.*
„ „ „ „ p. 86	Bolton	30	
„ „ „ „ p. 87	Durham	30	
„ „ „ „ p. 88	Edinburgh	30	In the Answers &c. the rate is given as 30*s.* to 35*s.*, with a few above and below these amounts.
„ „ „ „ p. 88	Glasgow and Paisley.	30	
„ „ „ „ p. 89	Halifax	30	
„ „ „ „ p. 87	Derby	29	22*s.* is the minimum for unskilled labour quoted in the Answers &c.
„ „ „ „ p. 87	Chesterfield	28	
„ „ „ „ p. 89	Hanley	28	
„ „ „ „ p. 89	Hull	28	
„ „ „ „ p. 89	Leicester	28	In the Answers &c. the rate is given as 28*s.* to 32*s.*
„ „ „ „ p. 91	Londonderry	28	In the Answers &c. the rate is given as 24*s.* to 28*s.*
„ „ „ „ p. 90	Lincoln	26	In the Answers &c. the rate is given as 22*s.* to 32*s.*
„ „	Ipswich	24	24*s.* is the lowest rate quoted in any district.
„ „	Kendal	24	
„ „ Answers to Schedules, &c., p. 92	Shrewsbury	24	

* For full details, see the table in Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, page 247. The general average obtained from the returns in this table is 28*s.* 10·93*d.*

WAGES of different Classes of Workmen in Printing and Cognate Trades.

References.	Society.	Weekly Wages.	REMARKS.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 56	London Society of Compositors.	38*s.* average for day work 55*s.* for night work. 46*s.* 6*d.* total average.	Men employed on night work earn an average of from 50*s.* to 60*s.* The arithmetic mean is taken.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 95. Digest III., p. 57.	Printing Machine Managers' Trade Society.	35*s.* (average)	In the written evidence it is said that 30*s.* is a fixed minimum, but many members get from 32*s.* to 40*s.* In the oral evidence wages are said to vary from 35*s.* to 80*s.* or 100*s.*
Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 93. Statistical Tables, &c. for 1891.	Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers.	32*s.* 6*d.* average for United Kingdom.	Local variations from 28*s.* at Aberdeen to 42*s.* in London.† Minimum recognised by Society is 30*s.* a week, but the majority are said to earn more, and in some cases 47*s.* 6*d.* or 50*s.*
Digest, Vol. III., p. 80	National Union of Paper Mill Workers.	42*s.* 6*d.* average for machine men. 36*s.* 6*d.* average for beaters. 18*s.* average for machine assistants. 21*s.* 6*d.* average for beaters' assistants. 29*s.* 7½*d.* (total average).	Average wages for machine-men are said to be 35*s.* in the North of Scotland and South of England, and 50*s.* in the Midlands and North of England; wages of beaters vary from 28*s.* to 45*s.*; those of machine assistants from 15*s.* to 21*s.*, and those of beaters' assistants from 18*s.* to 25*s.* In all these cases the arithmetic mean has been taken, but this is probably below the true average, especially in the case of the machine men.
Digest, Vol. III. p. 55	Lithographic Stone and Zinc Preparers' Society.	25*s.* for polishers and shifters 28*s.* for grainers. 30*s.* for leading hands. 27*s.* 8*d.* (total average).	It is said that these rates are fixed by the Union, but that some employers pay less.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 58	Printers' Labourers' Union.	20*s.* on day work 27*s.* 6*d.* average on newspaper work. 23*s.* 9*d.* (total average).	Night work is paid at 6*s.* 6*d.* a night, newspaper work is paid 25*s.* or 30*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.

† For full details, see the table in Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, page 246.

Recent advances in wages.

409. It will be seen that the recent changes are all in the direction of an increase in wages, which is attributed in all cases to trade union efforts. Thus, the wages of lithographic stone and zinc preparers were said to be very low before the formation of the Union, but after the men had been organised for about 12 months they drew up the wages' scale quoted in the table, which has been accepted by many of the employers. (1) The members of the London Society of Compositors had earned on an average 36*s.* a week ever since 1866 until 1891, since when their average weekly earnings have been 38*s.* (2) The formation of the Printers' Labourers' Union has also resulted in a considerable advance of wages, as the men now receive 20*s.* for a week of 54 hours, and 6*s.* 6*d.* a night in addition; whereas before they were organised they earned only 12*s.* or 14*s.* for day work, and 4*s.* for night work. (1) In Glasgow printers' wages were raised in 1891 from 32*s.* 6*d.* to 34*s.* a week, whilst 20 years earlier they only earned 25*s.* for a considerably longer week's work; and in Belfast also wages have risen conjointly with a reduction in hours. (2) During the year 1891 advances in wages were gained in nine branches of the Scottish Typographical Association, seven branches of the Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers, and two branches of the Bookbinders and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union. (3)

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 55. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 58. (2) Digest Vol. III., pp. 60, 62. (3) Statistical Tables, &c., pp. 244, 245, 247, 248.

[§ 410.] Mode of payment.

410. Printers are usually divided into two classes, of those who receive fixed weekly wages or so-called establishment wages, and those who are paid by piece-work, generally at the rate of so much per thousand "ens," an "en" being the standard unit used in calculating the amount of type set. Time wages are generally paid to men engaged upon jobbing or book work, whilst those engaged upon newspaper work are paid by the piece, and receive higher rates for work done at night. The piece rates are generally fixed according to a more or less elaborate scale which varies with the type used and the arrangement of the matter, and allows for extra payments in special cases, as for foreign languages or provincial dialects, interlined manuscripts, &c. Piece-work is said to be sometimes a cause of difficulty, since it induces the men to work excessive hours in order to increase their earnings. A complaint is also made that in offices in which both the time-work and piece-work methods of payment are in force there is a tendency to give all the "fat" or especially remunerative work to the men on fixed wages. (1) Bookbinders and machine rulers receive time wages as a rule, which are calculated by the hour and paid weekly, but in some cases they work by the piece. (2) Amongst paper mill workers there is said to be no uniformity with regard to the mode of payment of wages. In some mills the work is done on a piece-work scale, and in others the men are paid a fixed weekly wage with a bounty upon every ton of perfect paper produced above a certain amount. This is objected to on the ground that the bonus is only paid to those who have the practical driving of the mill. (3) Task-work is said to exist only in one district among printers and in two districts among bookbinders and machine rulers, and there appears to be practically no sub-contracting in the printing and kindred trades. (4)

Variations in wages.

411. It has been seen in the above tables that there are considerable local variations in the wages of printers, bookbinders and machine rulers, lithographic printers, and paper mill workers. The trade unions generally fix a minimum rate of wages for all their members, but in non-union offices the rates paid are sometimes below the minimum, whilst in other districts or firms the average wages are often considerably above it. Amongst lithographic printers, however, the union rate is said to practically govern the wages of non-unionists. As some branches of these trades afford scope for considerable skill and artistic ability, there are frequently wide differences in the earnings of individuals engaged in the same office or on the same kind of work, so that it is difficult to obtain a true average. (1)

[§ 411.]

Irregularity of employment.

412. The printing and book trades are to some extent seasonal, the summer being a slack time as a rule. This is especially the case in newspaper printing, the busy and slack periods of which depend upon various events which recur with more or less seasonal regularity, such as the sessions of Parliament, races, cricket matches, &c. In a few cases the irregularity of employment is partly attributed to the number of apprentices employed. (2)

Allowances and deductions.

413. No mention is made in these trades of any allowances in addition to wages. Fines are mentioned in a few instances and are generally said to be inflicted only for loss of time. They are objected to by the English and Scottish Typographical Associations. (3)

III. Gas, Coal, Chemical, and Kindred Trades. Sources of information.

414. The tabular statement of rates of wages in the gas, coal, chemical, and kindred trades has been rendered difficult by the fact that the rates given in the evidence are generally those earned by particular witnesses or paid by individual firms in certain selected cases only, and further by the fact that when averages have been quoted, very contradictory evidence has in some cases been given by the representatives of the employers and the employed. The information upon which the following table of average wages is founded is therefore neither so wide in extent nor so accurate in character as that available in the case of the building, printing, and cognate trades, but the nature of the information and the method of dealing with it which has been adopted are pointed out in the remarks upon the table.

TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Wages in the Gas, Coal, Chemical, and kindred Trades arranged in descending order of Wages.

References.	Class of Workmen.	Weekly Wages.	REMARKS.
		£ s. d.	
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37, 41, 48, 50, and 52. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XLVIII.	Coal porters, loaders, and fillers, &c.	2 10 0	A representative of the Coal Porters' Branch of the Gasworkers' and General Labourers' Union stated that men employed on unloading coal earned 16*s.* 8*d.* a day, but were employed only for four or five days a week in summer and two days in winter. If three days a week is taken as the average for the year, the average weekly wages are 50*s.* The witness, however, considered that the average weekly wages throughout the year were 45*s.*, but the former calculation is more in accordance with that given by Mr. Gardner, who stated that the average wages earned by each man during nine successive discharges of one ship had been 16*s.* 11*d.* a day, and the number of days of employment in the week two to four. If three days a week is taken as the average, therefore, the weekly wages would be 50*s.* 9*d.* Three days may, however, be too low an average since the general manager of the Commercial Gas Company stated that the men unloading coal earned an average of 15*s.* a day for 250 days in the year, which would give an average weekly wage of 70*s.* 6*d.*, and a table given in by the chief engineer of the Gas Light and Coke Company shows the average yearly wages paid to the men in 12 different gangs of coal fillers to have been 178*l.* 10*s.* 4⅛*d.*, which gives an average weekly wage of 68*s.* 10⅛*d.* On the other hand the secretary of the Coal Porters' Union stated that the average of Mr. Gardner's men was 31*s.* 10*d.*, and the general average of coal porters 29*s.* a week.*

* Mr. Locket stated that the wages of six men loading out of trucks had averaged 49*s.* 2*d.* for 26 weeks, and this closely approaches the amount given in the table. He further quoted the average wages of trolly men employed by three different firms as 51*s.* 1*d.*, 42*s.* 8*d.*, 41*s.* 11*d.* respectively.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 88, 91, 92. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 80. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 74, 89, 91.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 91 93, 95. Digest Vol. III., p. 54. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 155, 172. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 73, 78, 88, 91.

§ 414.] TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Wages in the Gas, Coal, Chemical, and kindred Trades arranged in descending order of Wages—*continued*. [§ 414.]

References.	Class of Workmen.	Weekly Wages. £ s. d.	REMARKS.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37, 38, 40, 43, and 44. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 25,696 and 26,706.	Gas stokers and firemen.	1 13 6¾	In the returns from 110 gasworks given by Mr. Valon the average wages of stokers are found to be 30*s.* 7¼*d.*, and those of firemen 31*s.* 11½*d.* The arithmetic mean, 31*s.* 3⅜*d.*, has therefore been taken as the average wages of the two classes. Mr. Livesey gives the wages at the Old Kent Road Station of the South Metropolitan Gas Company of stokers working on the two-shift system as 39*s.* 6*d.*, and those of stokers working on the three-shift system as 33*s.* 6*d.* The arithmetic mean, 36*s.* 6*d.*, has therefore been taken as the average wages of stokers. Mr. Trewby gives the average wages of scoop-drivers, stokers, and firemen at the Beckton works of the Gas Light and Coke Company as 33*s.* to 35*s.* The arithmetic mean, 34*s.*, has therefore been taken. Mr. Duxbury gives the wages of stokers at the Darwen Gasworks as 5*s.* 5*d.* a day, which would give a weekly wage of 32*s.* 6*d.* In all these cases the wages are calculated for a week of six days only, and are therefore below the full week's wages which would include a certain amount of Sunday work, generally paid for at a higher rate. The amount given in the table is the average of the above four results.
Digest, Vol. II., p. 49. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 21, 22. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Appendices XCVI. and C.	Chemical workers	1 12 6	Both Mr. King and Mr. Mitchell agree in giving the general average of weekly wages for all classes of chemical workers as from 30*s.* to 35*s.* The amount given in the table is the arithmetic mean of these amounts. This is also in close agreement with the amount, 33*s.*, quoted by Mr. Greig as the average wages of red lead workers employed in the desilverising process. It must, however, be noticed that the average wages of men engaged in "special processes" are higher than those quoted by Mr. King and Mr. Mitchell, which include all classes. Thus in the tables handed in by the United Alkali Company the average wages of men employed in the vitriol, saltcake and bleaching powder departments are found to be 38*s.* 6*d.* in the St. Helens district, 39*s.* 8¼*d.* in the Widnes district, and 41*s.* 3½*d.* in the Tyne and Scotland district.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 22–23. Further correspondence.	Copper workers -	1 9 4½	In the smelting department copper workers were said to earn 5*s.* 4*d.* or 6*s.* a day according to the tonnage worked. The arithmetic mean, 5*s.* 8*d.*, has therefore been taken as an average day's wages, which would give an average weekly wage of 34*s.* In the finishing department the average wages of the various classes of workmen whose wages have been given were found to be 4*s.* 1½*d.* a day, which would give an average weekly wage of 24*s.* 9*d.* The arithmetic mean of these two results has been taken as the average rate of weekly wages for all classes of copper workers.*
Digest, Vol. II., p. 51	Salt workers -	1 7 0	Mr. Ward gave the ordinary wages of a salt boiler as 26*s.* and of a fireman as 28*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken as the average weekly wages of both classes of salt workers.

* In a letter dated November 4th, 1892, Mr. Wignall gave the following rates of daily wages, which differ slightly from those given in his oral evidence. Copper plate roller men, 4*s.* 10*d.*; drawing on roller men, 4*s.* 9*d.*; finishing roller men, 5*s.*; plate furnace men, 4*s.* 0*d.*; drawing on furnace men, 3*s.* 10*d.*; finishing furnace men, 3*s.* 3*d.* (1st hand) and 8*s.* (2nd hand); picklers, 4*s.* 4*d.* It is these rates which have been used in finding the above average.

ne length the week ed in cal- lating ages.

415. For the sake of uniformity the wages in the above table have in all cases been calculated for a week of six days (or less in the case of coal porters), although, as pointed out with regard to the gasworkers, it is usual in some trades to work for some part at least of Sunday, and in these instances a full week's wages would be above the average quoted.

ecent in- ease in ages.

416. In the majority of these trades there has been some increase in wages during recent years, and this is generally attributed, by the men at any rate, to the influence of their improved organisation. Statements in tabular form were given in by Mr. Valon and Mr. Livesey showing the increase that has taken place in the wages of men employed in or about gasworks. That of Mr. Valon is compiled from the returns received from 110 gasworks, and shows the number of men whose wages have been increased by certain rates of per-centage since 1887.(1) It may be summarised as follows:—

Class of Workmen.	Under 5 per cent.	5 per cent. to 10 per cent.	10 per cent. to 15 per cent.	15 per cent. to 20 per cent.	20 per cent. to 25 per cent.	25 per cent. to 30 per cent.	30 per cent. to 35 per cent.	35 per cent. to 40 per cent.	40 per cent. to 45 per cent.	45 per cent. to 50 per cent.
Yard labourers	377	749	1,553	203	24	229	—	—	—	—
Mechanics and artizans	256	322	95	75	53	43	(25 per cent. to 38 per cent.)		—	—
Stokers	359	1,090	761	962	111	227	1,074	99	84	716
Firemen	—	155	196	34	62	—	194	6	—	45

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 25,696.

[§ 416.] Mr. Valon stated that he had chosen the year 1887 as the basis of comparison because it was in that year that the Gasworkers and the General Labourers' Union had been formed, and he considered that the increase in wages had been due in part at least to combination amongst the men. (1) Mr. Livesey, on the other hand, was of opinion that the advances were in no way due to the trade union, since before the formation of the Gasworkers' Union the labourers and stokers, who had no union, had received the same advances as the artizans who belonged to unions. (2) The table given in by Mr. Livesey shows the gradual increase which has taken place in the wages of gasworkers employed at the Old Kent Road Station of the South Metropolitan Gas Company since 1838, and may be summarised as follows:—(3)

Year.	Rates of Daily Wages.		
	Yard Labourers.	Fitters and Mechanics.	Stokers.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	
1838 - -	2 6	4 3	3*s.* 8½*d.*
1840 - -	3 0	4 9	4*s.* 0*d.*
1850 - -	3 1½	5 6	4*s.* 0*d.*
1860 - -	3 3	5 6	4*s.* 3½*d.* (and in 1866 5*s.*).
1872 - -	4 0	5 9	5*s.* 2*d.* and 1*s.* 6*d.* a week.
1880 - -	4 2	6 3	5*s.* 2*d.* and 1*s.* 6*d.* a week.
1889 - -	4 3	6 3	5*s.* 2*d.* and 1*s.* 6*d.* a week.
1890 - -	4 7½	6 8½	5*s.* 4*d.* (on three-shift system), 6*s.* 4*d.* (on two-shift system), and 1*s.* 6*d.* a week.

It was stated that in the Darwen Gasworks wages were fairly stationary from 1882 to 1887, and that at that time the wages of retort-house work amounted to 2*s.* 9·4*d.* per ton of coal carbonised, but during the three years 1890, 1891, and 1892 the cost of the same work had been 3*s.* 6·1*d.* per ton; (4) and a table was given in by Mr. Trewby which showed that the cost in wages per ton of coal carbonised by the Gas Light and Coke Company had been in 1888, 5*s.* 1·71*d.*; in 1889, 5*s.* 8·94*d.*; in 1890, 6*s.* 9·97*d.*, and in 1891, 6*s.* 7·97*d.* (5) It was stated that in the finishing department of the copper works at Swansea the general average of wages was the same at present as 10 years ago, "because in "1873 the men formed a union, struck for an advance "of wages," and obtained an average increase of 5 per cent. They then became disorganised, and the masters are said to have taken advantage of the fact to enforce continual reductions, until the wages were 25 per cent. less than before. Since the formation of the Copper Workers' branch of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union the men had, however, succeeded in winning back this 25 per cent. (6) The representatives of the United Alkali Company stated that the wages of chemical workers are considerably higher than they were 20 years ago, and Mr. King stated that a general increase of wages throughout the trade had taken place since the formation of the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union. The wages of the white lead workers on the Pattinson process on the Tyne are also said to have increased by 4*d.* a day since the formation of the Tyneside National Labourers' Union. (7)

Mode of payment.

417. Some form of piece-work is generally adopted in all these trades, and amongst the London coal porters it is said that no other method would be possible on account of the irregularity of the work. Coal porters and fillers are paid by the ton, sack, or chaldron, according to the nature of the work. (8) Amongst chemical workers piece-work is more general than time-work, but some particular classes of workers, such as the sulphur burners, are paid by the shift. The copper workers at Swansea are nominally paid by the ton, but it is said that the ton they handle actually weighs 23 cwt., and that sometimes their work is not weighed at all, or is weighed upon machines which require a weight of 50 lbs. to be put into the scale before it moves, or in which the weights are covered up so that the men cannot see them. (1) The salt workers are paid by the ton if working at lump salt, and by the day if working at bulk salt. (2) In gasworks the retort hands are in some cases said to be paid by the task, a certain amount of coal being carbonised in each shift. (3) The only mention of a sub-contract system is amongst the chemical workers, where it is said that the system is unfair to the men, since the sub-contractor who only superintends the work gets double as much wages as the workers. The latter consider that a foreman might be appointed at a weekly wage to superintend them in place of the sub-contractor. (4) [§ 417.]

Variations in wages.

418. There are local variations in the wages of gas and chemical workers, and the average wages of the latter class are said to be considerably lower in Scotland than in England. (5) Amongst the copper workers at Swansea there are said to be variations of 2*d.* a day in the wages paid in different mills for the same kind of work. (6) With regard to variations in wages, the manager of the Darwen Corporation Gasworks complained that the minimum rate of wages fixed by the men's Union was so high as to be virtually a maximum rate, and that this acted harshly upon the men themselves, since those who were not worth the full rate of payment were entirely debarred from finding employment. (7)

Irregularity of employment.

419. Work is said to be fairly regular for copper and chemical workers, though there has been more fluctuation in the employment of the latter class of workers since the formation of the Chemical Syndicate. (8) In gasworks it is necessary to employ a larger number of stokers during the winter than during the summer, but as the extra hands in many cases work on brickfields, or are employed by the gas companies as yard labourers during the summer, and return regularly to their work every winter, their work may be considered as practically continuous. (9) Amongst the coal porters there is necessarily some irregularity of employment, as their work is to a great extent dependent upon the arrival of ships. It is stated that this is increased by the varying sizes of the cargoes, and that employment would be more regular if the carrying power of the ships were made uniform. The men are said to work four or five days a week in the summer, but only about two days a week in winter. On the other hand, some employers consider that the irregularity of the employment is generally exaggerated. In the Regent's Canal boats are continually coming in, so that the coal porters employed there by the Commercial Gas Company have practically regular work; and those employed at Wapping by the same company find subsidiary work in unloading barges at Stepney during the intervals of their work at Wapping; so that although they only work about 163 days in the year at the latter place, they are employed altogether about 250 days in the year. It is stated that out of the 15,000 coal men employed in London, about 12,000 are permanent workers, and the remaining 3,000 are casual men. The latter do about two days' work in the week in winter, and are employed on all kinds of odd jobs, and go haymaking and harvesting in the summer. The regular men are said to be employed as much as possible, but in very busy times an odd gang of casual men is taken on and paid at the same rate as the regular men. (10)

Allowances and deductions.

420. Very few allowances in addition to wages are mentioned in connexion with these trades. The South Metropolitan Gas Company, however, allots land for gardens to some of its workmen and provides oatmeal and water for the use of the men employed in the retort houses. Some chemical manufacturing companies allow a small bonus to the foremen for "special services," or to men engaged in particularly dangerous or disagreeable work, and in one case an allowance of house coal is made to the married men. (11) The only deductions from wages which are mentioned, with the exception of deductions for sick funds or insurance against accidents and for rent, occur in connexion with the copper workers at Swansea. The employers in this industry have instituted what is described as an "insurance on labour": 1*s.* a week is deducted from wages, and another 1*s.* added by the employer, and this sum is given to the workman at Christmas if his work has been satisfactory. If not, the deducted money alone is paid to him without the bonus. It is also a

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 38. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 44. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 26,706. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XLVII. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 21, 26. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37, 48, and 50.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 20, 21, 23. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 51. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 158. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. (8) Digest, Vol. III. pp. 19, 21, 24. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 43, 44. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37 41, 49, and 50. (11) Digest. Vol. III., p. 45. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 388, 390.

[§ 420.] grievance in some of the copper works that the yards are insufficiently lighted, so that the men are obliged to buy candles to work by. (1)

MISCELLANEOUS TRADES. Sources of information.

421. The information which has been obtained in oral or written evidence with regard to various miscellaneous trades which have not yet been dealt with is contained in the following table. Although the trades are very different in their nature and the conditions of employment, it will be noticed that the average wages in the majority of cases are not very unequal, since in all trades but two they lie between 29*s.* and 23*s.* The exceptions are the glass bottle makers, whose wages are considerably above the average, and the mat-makers, whose wages are considerably below it. [§ 421.]

TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Wages in various Miscellaneous Industries arranged in descending order.

References.	Class of Workmen.	Weekly Wage. £	*s.*	*d.*	REMARKS.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 74, 76. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LXXVII. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 766.	Glass bottle makers	2	2	0	The secretary of the Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society gave 42*s.* as the average weekly wages of each of the three men employed in a group. This is supported by the evidence of a member of the Glass Bottle Manufacturers' Association of Yorkshire, who had taken the average earnings of six men, and found them to be 49*s.* 2*d.* for the maker, 47*s.* 2*d.* for the blower, and 32*s.* 5*d.* for the gatherer, or a general average of 42*s.* 11*d.*, and by the averages given by the Glass Bottle Manufacturers' Association of Lancashire, which are 53*s.* for the maker, 41*s.* for the blower, and 32*s.* 6*d.* for the gatherer, or a general average of 42*s.* 2*d.* These estimates are also very near those obtained from the actual wages paid by an important Yorkshire firm during 42 weeks in the year 1890, which gave an average of 45*s.* 2*d.* for the maker, 43*s.* 2*d.* for the blower, and 29*s.* 9*d.* for the gatherer, or a general average of 39*s.* 4½*d.*(2)
Digest, Vol. III., p. 85 - -	Seed crushers -	1	8	10	It was stated by a representative of the Hull Seed Crushers' Branch of the Dockers' Union that pressmen earn from 30*s.* to 40*s.*, grinders from 24*s.* to 30*s.*, and parers from 21*s.* to 28*s.* The average of the three classes would therefore be 35*s.*, 27*s.*, and 24*s.* 6*d.*, and the general average 28*s.* 10*d.*
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 64, 65, 66, 67, and 71. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 16, 17, and 755.	Bakers - -	1	7	4	27*s.* 4*d.* is the general average which has been obtained from seventeen returns with regard to various districts in the United Kingdom, of which eleven were contained in the oral, and six in the written evidence. It may be noticed that 27*s.* is the arithmetic mean of the average, 25*s.* 4*d.*, obtained from the rates of wages in the North of England, quoted by a representative of the Amalgamated Union of Bakers, and the average wages of bakers in London, 28*s.* 8*d.*, quoted by the London Master Bakers' Protection Society.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 82. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 70, 71.	Pottery makers -	1	6	9¾	26*s.* 9¾*d.* is the average obtained from the rates of wages quoted in the oral evidence of a representative of the United Firemen, Dippers, and Placers' Association, and in the written evidence of four societies of potters and their assistants. The rates of women's wages were not included in obtaining the average.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 96.	Sawyers - -	1	4	6	The Hull Mill Sawyers and Wood Cutting Machinists' Society quotes the rate of wages as 30*s.* for unionists, and 26*s.* for non-unionists, which would give an average of 28*s.*, and the Aberdeen Saw Mill Workers' Society quotes the rates of wages as 16*s.* to 26*s.*, which would give an average of 21*s.* The arithmetic mean of these two results has been taken.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 72 - - -	Butchers -	1	4	0	A representative of the Journeymen Butchers' Society of Birmingham stated that wages varied from 18*s.* to 30*s.* a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 91, 93, 96. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LXXXV.	Shop assistants -	1	3	11	A representative of the National Union of Shop Assistants stated that the average wages of adult male shop assistants, including the value of their board, are about 22*s.*, and a representative of the Liverpool and District Grocers' and Provision Dealers' Association stated that the average wages are 20*s.*, 26*s.*, or 30*s.*, according to grade, which would give a general average of 25*s.* 4*d.* In a table of the wages of shop assistants in Scotland the average wages of qualified male assistants in 16 different trades is found to be 24*s.* 5½*d.* The amount given in the table is the average of these three results.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 79. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 67.	Mat makers -	0	16	10½	In the oral evidence of a representative of the Mat and Matting Trade Society the average wages were said to be about 15*s.*, and in the written evidence from the Cocoa Fibre Mat Makers' Society the average wages are said to be 19*s.* 4½*d.* in London and 16*s.* 3*d.* in the country. The average of these three amounts has been taken.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. (2) The rates of wages quoted for glass bottle makers in this table include overwork paid for according to "catalogue prices." For the present "standard wages," see the following table.

[§ 422.] Recent changes in wages.

422. In those trades with regard to which any information was given as to recent changes in wages there was generally said to have been an advance, although a representative of the London Domestic Servants' Union made the statement, which he was however unable to substantiate, that this class are worse off now with regard to wages and general comfort than they were fifty years ago. (1) It was stated that whereas the wages of bakers in London twenty-five years ago were 24*s.* or 25*s.* a week for a foreman, and 17*s.* or 18*s.* for a second-hand, they are at present 30*s.* for a foreman and 25*s.* for a second-hand, and that in Ireland the wages of bakers had advanced in seventeen towns in 1890 from 12*s.*, 15*s.*, or 16*s.*, to 27*s.* and 28*s.* It was indeed denied by an employer that the advance in Dundalk had been so great as the men had asserted, but he admitted that since the formation of the union wages had risen from 24*s.* to 27*s.* a week. (1) The London seed crushers mention an advance in wages which has taken place since the strike in 1889, before which they were very low. (2) The most complete information with regard to recent fluctuations in wages has been received from the glass bottle makers and is contained in the following table. (3) [§ 422.]

TABLE showing the Fluctuations in the Standard Wages of Glass Bottle Makers since 1845 in the three principal Districts.

—	1845.		1847.	1849.	1853.		1854.		1857.	1860.	1863.	1866.	1872.	1873.	1876.	1878.	1879.	1882.		1883.		1885.	1891.	1892.
	s.	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s. d.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*
Yorkshire District:—																								
Bottle makers	—	—	24	—	—	20	28	30	24	27	27	30	33 0	36	33	30	27	—	27	30	—	—	33	33
Blowers	—	—	22	—	—	24	26	28	22	25	25	28	31 0	34	31	28	25	—	25	28	—	—	31	31
Gatherers	—	—	18	—	—	20	22	24	18	20	20	23	26 0	29	26	24	20	—	20	23	—	—	26	26
Lancashire District:—																								
Bottle makers	21	24	—	26	—	—	—	30	—	—	—	—	30 0	—	—	—	—	30	—	—	—	—	—	33
Blowers	18	21	—	24	—	—	—	26	—	—	—	—	26 0	—	—	—	—	26	—	—	—	—	—	29
Gatherers	15	18	—	20	—	—	—	22	—	—	—	—	22 0	—	—	—	—	22	—	—	—	—	—	25
North of England District:—																								
Bottle makers	20	—	23	20	24	28	—	—	—	—	—	—	30 6	—	—	—	—	29	—	30	28	27	—	29
Blowers	16	—	19	16	20	24	—	—	—	—	—	—	26 6	—	—	—	—	25	—	26	24	23	—	25
Gatherers	13	—	16	13	16	21	—	—	—	—	—	—	23 6	—	—	—	—	22	—	24	21	20	—	22

Note.—The information in the above table is drawn chiefly from the tables handed in by Mr. A. Greenwood and printed as Appendices LXXV-LXXXI. to the Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. These have been supplemented in the case of a few years by the information contained in the tables of glass bottle makers' wages in the Statistical Tables, &c. for 1891.

Mode of payment.

423. Time-work is usual in the less skilled of the miscellaneous trades, piece-work in the more skilled. In the pottery trade the two systems of payment are found side by side, the unskilled workmen being paid by the week, the skilled by the piece. (2) A small amount of task-work is also found in this trade. In the baking and the seed crushing trades payment by time is the rule. In the glass bottle makers' industry a combination of task-work and piece-work prevails; under "standard wages" the workman produces a given number of a certain kind of bottle; what is made over and above the stipulated quantity is paid by "catalogue wages," *i.e.*, so much per gross extra. The men urge that time-wages would be fairer in this trade, since bad metal or tools may prevent the workman from turning out the "number," and so through no fault of his own he loses part of his wages. (3)

Sub-contracts.

424. The practice of sub-contracting was mentioned once in connexion with the baking industry, but the only case in which it would appear to be at all prevalent is in the pottery trade; and here, it may be noted, the allusions to the system all come from the employers, one of whom stated that "practically no profits are made by the sub-contractor." (4)

Variations in wages.

425. Variations in wages are most noticeable in the case of bakers. They are well paid in Lancashire, and especially in Manchester, while in other parts of the country, notably at Norwich, Southampton, and Plymouth, their earnings are very much lower. (5) In Ireland, bakers' wages in Cork are considerably lower than in Belfast or Dublin in spite of longer hours; and again the rate of pay in Belfast is as much as 4*s.* a week lower than that in Dublin. (6) It was stated that in London all the wholesale bakers recognise a uniform rate of wages; other employers admit the desirability of uniformity in this matter, but find a difficulty in the fact that the work is unequal, no two shops out of a dozen working on the same system. (7) There is no standard rate of wage in the case of shop assistants. (8) In some industries something has been done towards doing away with unnecessary variations; the seed crushers of Hull gave evidence that whereas before 1890 "there were hardly two mills in the town who "paid the same rates," and "in one firm they had "three different rates of pay for precisely the same "class of work," the result of the dispute in that year was the establishment of uniformity in this direction. (4)

Irregularity of employment.

426. The most important case of seasonal irregularity of employment among the trades in question is that of the seed crushers, who are employed from November to May, and during the summer months take to painting or dock work. The men admit that the seed must be crushed early if it is to yield its maximum value, and that oil-cake must be sold soon lest it should turn mouldy on the manufacturers' hands. They are of opinion, however, that the season to which the trade is now confined is shorter than necessary, and it is with a view to lengthening it that they have insisted on the abolition of overtime. The employers on the other hand urge that in view of foreign competition any interference with the manufacturers' freedom of policy is very serious, and consider that the workmen do not take "a proper view of the necessities "and exigencies of the trade." (3) The glass bottle makers were also represented as suffering considerably from irregularity of employment, although this circumstance would appear to differ in different branches and localities. A witness from the "Yorkshire District" stated that at the time at which he gave evidence (November 1892) 30 per cent. of the glass bottle makers in the district were out of work, and a large number were idle during three months of every year. He supported his statement by tables giving the returns of workmen and of unemployed. (5) Different views were taken by different employers as to the general accuracy of these representations; one of them admitted that since the McKinley tariff had come into force he had found it increasingly difficult to provide regular work for his hands; others asserted that employment was continuous in the case of the works with which they had to do. (7) The fact would seem to be that the glass trade is to some slight extent seasonal in certain branches, *e.g.*, the mineral water bottle department, and that it is open to employers to either intensify or minimise the irregularity by the arrangements in the

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 88. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 70, 426, 431. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 74. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 16, 427-433. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 66. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 65, 66. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 71, 72. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 91.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 66, 71, 72. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 86. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Appendices LXXV. and LXXXI. (d). Statistical Tables, &c. for 1891, p. 204. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 85. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 85-87. Smith, 31,596. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 74. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Appendix LXXX. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 76, 77, 78.

[§ 426.] works. Some firms make a practice of stopping to repair furnaces in the slack time, between November and February; others have no regular time for repairs, and keep an extra house in which work can be carried on without interruption. The Lancashire Glass Bottle Manufacturers' Association guarantees to the workmen in its employ a portion of the wage in case of accident or stoppage for repairs.(1) Other instances of irregularity of employment are the trades of pork butchers and Covent Garden porters; of the former, more than half are thrown out of their trade in the summer and take work as painters or labourers; the Covent Garden porters are busy in the summer, but in the winter about half of them go to the gasworks or become costermongers; the Union members, however, have permanent employment.(2) Potters and sawyers lose a certain amount of time in the year through inclemency of weather or seasonal causes.(3) Domestic service was alleged by one witness to be a more irregular employment than it was formerly, because the "migratory state of living" of the upper classes led to the engagement of servants by the job or for short periods.(4)

Allowances and deductions.

427. The most important form of allowance to be noticed in the trades under consideration is that which goes by the name of "living in." Domestic service is the typical instance of the "living in" system; the servant receives, in addition to wages, board, lodging, and sometimes clothing. One witness complained of the frequent insufficiency and inferior quality of the food provided, and this complaint was much more strongly urged in the case of shop assistants, of whom considerable numbers are employed under the same system in England.(5) The shopkeepers who gave evidence before the Commission denied that the charge as to bad food was of at all general application;(6) but Mr. Davis, president of the National Union of Shop Assistants, asserted that he knew "as a positive fact" that while employers calculate the board and lodging of an assistant as equal to 10*s.* per week, it does not cost in a large business more than 4*s.* 6*d.* per week; "so that "really this living in system is a remnant of the truck "system, by which the employers make a profit out "of the actual necessities of his employés in addition "to the profits of the business."(7) "Living in" is also customary in the case of barmen and barmaids.(8) It used to be common among unmarried bakers in country towns, but it has been objected to of late by the men as tending to lower wages; in Leicester the strike of 1891 succeeded in abolishing the custom.(9) Bakers in London are generally paid to a certain extent in bread; it is done by agreement, and the employers are of opinion that the workmen are satisfied with the arrangement. It was, however, stated, on the other hand, that if a man could not use the whole allowance in his family he was obliged to sell some of it at a loss. No case of this kind has been tried under the Truck Acts, but since the passing of the amended Act of 1887 several large firms have stopped the allowance and given 2*s.* or 4*s.* in place of it The practice does not prevail in the country.(10) A money allowance mentioned in connexion with the baking trade is known as "sponging money"; workmen who, after baking by night, return to the bakehouse during the day in order to "set the sponge," receive 1*s.* for the journey to and from home.(11) Bonuses in the form of money are given by one or two firms in the pottery trade, either for regularity or on production.(12) Shop assistants are often given a commission on the sale of soiled or unseasonable goods, but it was asserted by one witness that this was really a part of their wages, given in this form with a view to the deduction from it of fines, which cannot legally be deducted from wages.(13) It was from this class that the most serious complaints came on the subject of deductions; it was alleged that fines varying from 1*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* were imposed for every trifling offence; one witness had known girls in the drapery trade (where fines are most common) to lose as much as a fortnight's wages in a period of one or two months, and gave as his opinion that in a house employing 200 assistants probably not more than three would go through a week without some deduction of this nature (14) According to the evidence of an employer, these statements are probably applicable only to large establishments. When the assistants are engaged they agree to conform to the rules of the firm, and thereby agree to pay fines in certain cases; moreover the money obtained from this source is generally devoted to the purchase of books and papers for the use of the assistants.(1) Glass bottle makers are liable to deductions from wages either for incomplete "numbers," or for badly coloured or otherwise faulty bottles; at the Seaham Harbour Glass Works no deduction is made, but the men make a few dozen extra, above the nominal number, to indemnify the employer for bad work or breakages.(2) In the answers from the pottery trade, one or two mentions were made of deductions for the use of wheels and gas,(3) and disciplinary fines were alluded to in one or two cases in various trades. [§ 427.]

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 76, 77. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 766. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 72, 73. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 153, 154, 537, 173. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 88. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 88, 91, 93. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 95, 97. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 91. Davis, 30,778. (8) Digest, Vol. I., p. 45. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 67. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 67, 71. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 67. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 425, 430, 431. (13) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 91, 92. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 91.

(ii.) PROFIT SHARING AND CO-OPERATION.*

Profit-sharing.

428. The representatives of the industries under consideration were almost unanimously in favour of the introduction of a system of profit sharing, but their approval was based upon various grounds. In a few instances the system in itself was valued as being desirable in the interests of both employers and employed, and as giving the men an interest in their work which wages alone cannot give.(4) It was stated that workmen are quite capable of appreciating this method of industrial remuneration in spite of the necessary delay before the receipt of dividends, and that in the glass trade at any rate men were able to save sufficient money to make the introduction of such a scheme feasible.(5) In the majority of cases, however, it is looked upon rather as a "stepping stone in "the right direction"(6); and though likely to produce a better feeling than exists at present between employers and employed, as not adequate to all that is required.(7) Most of the witnesses while stating that they looked beyond profit sharing to a better system had no clearer idea of the goal to which it was tending than that it was a step in the direction of "a wider and "broader co-operation than we have yet grasped at, ". . . a more equitable distribution of wealth."(8) One witness, however, pointed out that profit sharing should lead to a system of industrial partnership, which he defined as "both profit sharing and loss sharing." Under such a system every workman, while receiving the ordinary wages, would have some capital at stake in the business and take his share in the results, whether loss or profit, at the end of each year. This was considered a more equitable plan than profit sharing alone, under which the capitalist had to bear the whole burden of the losses, and also to part with the profits which might have enabled him to meet a period of depression. Capital, he stated, for the purpose of an industrial partnership might be saved from the workmen's wages, and the sums which are now reserved by unions and societies for strikes would no longer be required for that purpose and might also be invested. There are, it was acknowledged, difficulties in the way of such a scheme, since the men might be unwilling to part with their funds which they regard as a weapon of defence; but the Limited Liability Act made the plan practicable if they could be brought to consent to it.(9) Another witness, while heartily approving of Industrial Partnership, feared that profit sharing would not lead to it, because though willing to share in profits the men would be "frightened" by the prospect of a loss.(10) The experience of profit sharing in these industries is very slight. A few experiments of this nature have been made among house painters, but they have been "of such a limited character "that it would be premature to express any opinion "upon the matter."(11) The system was introduced into a coachbuilding firm at Derby but lapsed "owing "to bad trade perhaps." The same firm introduced it into their works at Lichfield, and it is "still in opera-"tion, and on the whole satisfactory."(12) A profit sharing experiment is being made at the pottery works of Mr. A. Brownfield which is being "watched and "supported with great interest by the workmen." The business was valued at 20,000*l.* Mr. Brownfield retained his interest in it in the form of ordinary and

* It appeared convenient to deal with the subjects of profit-sharing and co-operation at this stage, inasmuch as they are methods of industrial remuneration.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 97. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 74, 77. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 70, 71, 431. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 27. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 69, 77. (6) Phillips, 19,121. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 42. Vol. III., p. 39. Livesey, 26,925. (8) Phillips, 19,122-4. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 77, 78. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 78. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 33. Phillips, 19,083. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 694.

[§ 428.] debenture shares. The interest was restricted to six per cent. on debentures, and five per cent. on ordinary shares, and the profits which remained when this interest was paid were divided on a "unique principle." The workmen left in a certain percentage of their wages to form a reserve fund and they received a share in the profits in proportion to this percentage. The operative potters have subscribed some 1,200*l.* as shares towards it. Mr. Owen stated that he "thoroughly approved of "the scheme, and believed it would be successful, "because so much can be contributed to the success of "it by the heads of departments and the workmen "themselves. Even low paid workers may in our "trade spoil the result of everybody else's work "that has gone before, and the co-operation, in "my opinion, is likely to be eminently successful." He admitted that there was one defect in the scheme, that it is only shareholders who derive any benefit. He would like to see it extended to all the workers.(1) The most important instance of profit sharing in these industries is the scheme introduced by Mr. Livesey in the South Metropolitan Gas Company's Works.(2) Mr. Livesey stated that the immediate cause which led the Company to adopt the system was the necessity of obtaining or retaining the allegiance of the workmen, which was "fast passing away" in the autumn of 1889 under the influence of the Gas Workers' Union. The plan was not, however, new; in 1875 a proposal was made to extend the benefits of the sliding scale to officers and workmen, "but the "directors of that day would not entertain it." It was revived in 1886, when an annual bonus dependent on profits was given to the officers and foremen, but it was not till 1889 that profit sharing was extended to the workmen. The scheme as proposed by Mr. Livesey in October 1889 bound any workman who signed the agreement to the Company's service for twelve months during which time he was to "serve the Company "in whatever capacity he might from time to time be "employed at the current rate of wages applying to "such capacity." The Company, on their part, paid the Trades Union rate of wages, and guaranteed that no alteration should be made in wages to the disadvantage of any of the men, and that the workman should receive a share in the profits in addition to his wages. "For the purpose of making a good start" the system of bonuses was to be calculated three years back. No money except in the case of death was to be withdrawn during the first year, nor during the first five years except in cases of death, superannuation, or leaving the service of the Company. A committee composed of equal numbers of workmen and officers was to be appointed to settle details, and it was stated that "the "money will be the absolute property of the men "except in the case of a strike or wilful injury to the "Company in which cases and in those only it will be "forfeited by those men guilty of that conduct."(3) When this scheme was brought before representatives of the men at the Old Kent Road Station the non-unionists at once said, "it is the finest thing we have "ever heard of for working men," and were "exceedingly pleased" with it. The unionists said, "it seems "a good thing but we cannot say anything about it "till we have consulted the executive."(4) At the other stations the unionists did not appreciate the scheme and it was thought that it must drop, but the non-unionists began to ask "why they should lose such "a good thing, because the unionists disapproved of "it." It was therefore resolved to offer a share in the profits to any man who would sign the agreement. Within a week it was signed by 1,000 non-unionists, "practically all the free men."(5) The unionists, however, took objection to certain clauses, and therefore a few alterations were made at a meeting held on November 21st. The first clause objected to was that which bound the men to twelve months' service, although a note appended to the agreement stated that "no obstacle will be thrown in the way of any man "engaged under the above contract who may wish to "leave the Company's employment before the expiration of the period of service therein agreed for, "provided . . . the engineer shall consider that "the services of such can be dispensed with without "detriment to the Company." "Under that agreement," Mr. Blackburn complained, "it all lay with "the engineer; there is nothing for the workman. "You are bound for twelve months and there is no "escape."(6) Objection was also made to the clause binding a man to serve the Company in "whatever "capacity he might from time to time be employed," though it was stated that this was an arrangement to provide continuous work for the stokers during the summer months. The third clause objected to was the "strike or wilful injury" clause, under which, as Mr. Livesey admitted, a man who had signed the profit sharing agreement must not strike, whatever his provocation; and which therefore brought the new system into conflict with unionism. This clause was struck out of the agreement.(1) The fact, however, that three Union men at Vauxhall signed the agreement by stealth and that the Company refused on the request of the Union to dismiss them was made the pretext of a strike, which began in December 1889. As a former workman writing to Mr. Livesey expressed it, "they (the Union) could see that the majority of the "men would sign the agreement, and only be too glad "to do so, in preference to the flimsy allurements of "their Union, therefore they would strike purposely "to crush the profit sharing scheme whilst in the bud, "and before the men could see its many advan-"tages."(2) Mr. Livesey stated that when the strike was over the bonus scheme was much appreciated and its results were extremely good. It had been suggested to him that it might be better to abolish it altogether, but he found that "the only anxiety of the men is to "sign the agreement."(3) Two witnesses employed by the Company corroborated this statement and added that the men "are only sorry that more cannot join "than do join."(4) Mr. Livesey stated that "they "were getting the best results . . . . the work "was never so well done,"(5) and he and Mr. Carpenter, an engineer of the Company, gave instances of the saving of time and material due to the system. "Pre-"vious to the introduction of the system it was a "difficult matter to get the stokers to do the proper "amount of work, they would not put the proper "quantity of coals into the retorts . . . . now I "am told that there is no trouble whatever with the "stokers."(6) Mr. Carpenter stated that the scheme "secures the goodwill of the workman and the desire "on his part to economise all the material, expenditure "and cost of the Company."(7) [§ 428.]

Co-operative production.

429. With regard to co-operative production, opinion in these industries appears to be divided. It was in no instance regarded with unqualified approval or recommended for immediate adoption. Though in one case it was spoken of as "the future remedy for industrial evils"(8) it was more often regarded merely as a palliative. It was stated that it might lead up to, but could not quite reach, the desirable object that those who produce profits should receive at least the bulk of their products.(9) In another instance it was suggested as a means of lessening the competition between employers and employed.(10) On the other hand, it was stated that however successfully the co-operative principle might be applied in distribution, it was inapplicable to manufacturing businesses, in which individual judgment and a certain speculative element were involved.(11) In the baking industry it was stated moreover that the co-operative company is in some centres more oppressive to workmen than private employers, and is "never better."(12) The experience of co-operative production has been correspondingly various, though there are on the whole more cases of success than of failure. No instances were given in the building, glass, or pottery trades. In the cabinet-making industry the majority of the attempts made at co-operation have been successful. Co-operative establishments were started at Oldham, Nottingham, Bath, and Bradford(13) as the result of disputes, and are reported to be doing fairly well; and a new one is in contemplation at Leeds. The Bradford establishment was stated to "make for the public," and is thus exposed to competition; and the Leeds one "would like to" do the same.(14) The only co-operative factory in London is a small one in the East End which employs only four or five men; and an attempt to establish another was made by the Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association, which failed although there was "no opposition to co-"operation in the society and no idea of rivalry."(15) "Too many garret masters and sweaters to contend "with" was given as the probable reason.(16) With

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 82. Owen, 30,465–73, 30,514–20. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 46, 47. (3) Appendix LI. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. Livesey, 26,841. (5) Digest., Vol. III., p. 46. Livesey, 26,864. (6) Blackburn, 23,829.

(1) Livesey, 26,852. Appendix LII. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 46. Livesey, 26,872. (3) Livesey, 26,872. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 36. Marsh and Saggers, 28,271. (5) Livesey, 26,945-6. (6) Livesey, 26,943. (7) Carpenter, 26,969. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 45. Ham, 19,955. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 27. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 69. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 88. (12) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 267. (13) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 45, 46. (14) Whitley, 20,068. (15) Digest, Vol. II., p. 45. Ham, 19,977-85. (16) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 289.

§ 429.] regard to co-operative bakeries a failure was mentioned at Cork; (1) but successful instances were cited at Plymouth, Woolwich, Stratford, Manchester, Leeds, and Bolton. (2) With reference to Bolton, Mr. Jenkins stated that the men "stop at those places a very long "time, much longer than they are in the habit of "doing in private places . . . and take a greater "interest in their work." (3) The system was stated to have been satisfactory among the mat-makers of Manchester, where wages have been raised 60 per cent., (4) and in the printing trade of Newcastle, Gateshead, and Felling-on-Tyne. (5),

opera- e distri- ion.

430. The only instance of co-operative distribution occurs among the London gas workers. A store was started at the time of the South Metropolitan strike, and is worked entirely by the members of the union. The assistants work only 48 hours a week, and they are now doing a trade of 90*l.* or 100*l.* a week. (6)

(iii.) SUPERANNUATION FUNDS.*

tent of erannua- n funds.

431. No mention is made of superannuation funds in connexion with particular works and partially supported by the employers, throughout the industries here under review, except in the gas and coal trades. A fund of this nature exists in connexion with the South Metropolitan Gasworks, which is supported by the joint contributions of employers and employed, and pensions are granted to the workmen in the firm belonging to Mr. Locket, provided that they have been in the service of the Company for over 20 years. (7) No other mention was made of the existence of any funds of this nature, but the desire for their formation, if necessary by legislation, was expressed by a representative of the Gas Workers' and General Labourers' Union, and by the President of the Incorporated Gas Institute. The proposal made by the former witness, Mr. Taylor, was to the effect that old age pensions should be provided by the State by means of a progressive income tax and the imposition of death dues. The wages of the workman, this witness maintained, were such as to make thrift impossible without lowering his standard of life. (8) The latter suggested the formation of a central pension fund by gas companies and corporations "into which "all employers and employed" should contribute "a "fair and equal amount based on per-centage of the "amount received by the employed." These contributions were to be made compulsory by the union of all the gas companies and corporations, or if necessary, by means of legislation (9) It may be noted that the special advantage of the formation of this central fund was that the removal of a man from one works to another would not interfere with the amount of claim he would eventually have upon the general fund. Nevertheless, the compulsory contribution on the part of the employer or corporation would cause an increase in the working expenses, and consequently, at any rate in municipal works, the ratepayers would be taxed for the benefit of the gas workers. This was acknowledged to be an objection.

orkmen's erannua- n fund, uth Me- politan sworks.

432. The rules of the Workmen's Superannuation Fund connected with the South Metropolitan Gasworks were handed in to the Commission. This fund was established in 1855 by the late Thomas Livesey, Esq., secretary to the Company. Its rules were revised in 1864 and again in 1880. In 1887 the amount of the superannuation benefits was increased by the directors, and in 1891 the rules were again revised and the benefits still further increased. The entire management of the fund is undertaken by the Company. The secretary of the Company and any two directors for the time being are appointed honorary secretary and trustees respectively. Any disputes as to the rights of members under the rules of the fund are referred for the time being to the trustees for settlement. Their decision in writing, signed by any two of them, is "final and con- "clusive as to the matters in dispute". (1) Formerly membership of this fund was optional, but in 1885, by the unanimous vote of the workmen, it was made compulsory. (2) The subscriptions, which are payable weekly, vary from 3*d.* to 1*s.*, a higher scale of benefits corresponding to the higher subscription, The Company subscribes annually an amount equal to the amount of the members "gross subscriptions for the "same years as a guarantee of the stability of the "fund." "Back" subscriptions may be paid either in a lump sum or in weekly instalments. Benefits are granted by this fund in case of injury incurred in the discharge of duty in the Company's service, in the case of infirmity which "is not the result of the member's bad "conduct," and in that of old age. "Retiring allowances" are also granted to subscribers of not less than 25 years' standing and not less than 55 years of age, who, "not having received benefit from the fund," desire to retire before they can claim their full pension. A pension is granted to subscribers of not less than 25 years' standing when they attain to the age of 65. Members who retire or are discharged from the service of the Company receive certain specified amounts as compensation. Compensation is also payable either to the widow or young children, or if there be no widow or young children, to any children over 20 years of age, or the father or mother of the deceased member, provided the said member has not received any benefit from the fund. The amount of benefit payable as retiring allowance to members over 55 years of age in case of infirmity, and to members over 65 years of age as superannuation allowance, varies with the rate of contribution paid, the number of years of membership of the fund, and the age of the member in question at the time of joining the fund. Members who joined at the age of 20 and who have paid 6*d.* a week for 44 years are then entitled to an allowance of 22*s.* 6*d.* per week. (3) It may be noted that in the year 1891, 62 annuitants were in receipt of a total sum of more than 16*l.* (4) [§ 432.]

2. HOURS.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF HOURS.

I. BUILDING AND COGNATE TRADES.

Sources of information and method of dealing with it.

433. The following tabular statements of hours have been drawn from the written evidence sent to the Commission and the "Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions" for 1891 issued by the Board of Trade. The information thus obtained has been supplemented where necessary by that derived from the Returns of Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons in 1891. The method that has been followed in dealing with these materials is that explained in the Statements of Hours in the Summary of Group A., Part II. (§115). It must be noticed that some of the returns give the average weekly hours throughout the year, whilst others give the hours for summer and winter separately and do not state what portion of the year is included respectively in these divisions. In such cases the arithmetic mean of the summer and winter averages has been taken to represent the average hours throughout the year, but it is probable that in some of the trades at least the summer hours would be worked for more than six months. In a few instances the hours of work in winter are said to be "from light to dark," and this has been taken as equivalent to 45 hours a week.

* For superannuation benefits in connexion with trade unions, see *infra*, pp. 317, 318.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 53. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 67, 68. (3) Jenkins, 29,411-3. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 343. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 33. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 45, 50. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 27, 28, (9) Digest, Vol III., p. 39.

(1) Rules of Superannuation Fund. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (3) Rules of Superannuation Fund. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Appendix XLIX. Digest, Vol. III., p. 45.

[§ 433.] TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Hours of Labour in the Building and Cognate Trades arranged in ascending order of Hours.* [§ 433.]

References.	Class of Workmen.	Weekly Hours.	REMARKS.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 193–197. Returns on Hours of Work, ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 21–23.	Masons - -	50·80	In the returns for 119 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours for masons are found to be $53\frac{14}{119}$ in summer and $47\frac{295}{476}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $50\frac{381}{952}$. In the returns for 136 districts given by the Operative Stonemasons' Friendly Society the average hours are found to be $52\frac{285}{272}$ in summer and $46\frac{263}{272}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $49\frac{248}{272}$. In the returns for 46 districts given by the United Operative Masons' Association of Scotland the average hours throughout the year are found to be $52\frac{5}{46}$. The number given in the table is the average of these three results. The average obtained for the year 1890 in Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 50·59.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.	Slaters - -	50·84	In the returns for 93 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours for slaters are found to be $53\frac{82}{93}$ in summer and $47\frac{101}{124}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $50\frac{331}{744}$.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.	Masons' labourers	50·95	In the returns for 114 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours for mason's labourers are found to be $53\frac{55}{76}$ in summer and $48\frac{41}{228}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $50\frac{217}{228}$.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.	Bricklayers' labourers.	51·19	In the returns for 109 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours for bricklayers' labourers are found to be $54\frac{10}{109}$ in summer and $48\frac{98}{109}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $51\frac{48}{218}$.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX.	Plasterers' labourers.	51·20	In the returns for 105 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours for plasterers' labourers are found to be $54\frac{1}{210}$ in summer and $48\frac{99}{210}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $51\frac{22}{105}$.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 160–163. Returns on Hours of Work, ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 10–11.	Bricklayers -	51·45	In the returns for 108 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours for bricklayers are found to be $54\frac{5}{72}$ in summer and $48\frac{5}{108}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $51\frac{25}{432}$. In the returns for 177 districts given by the Operative Bricklayers' Society the average hours are found to be $55\frac{99}{177}$ in summer and $48\frac{95}{177}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $51\frac{162}{177}$. The number given in the table is the mean of these two results. The average obtained for the year 1890 in Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 50·03.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 185–188. Returns on Hours of Work, ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, 16–17.	Plasterers -	51·86	In the returns for 111 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours for plasterers are found to be $53\frac{104}{111}$ in summer and $48\frac{117}{222}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $51\frac{1}{148}$. In the returns for 94 districts given by the National Association of Operative Plasterers the average hours throughout the year are found to be $52\frac{69}{94}$. The number given in the table is the mean of these two results. The average obtained for the year 1890 in Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 54·91.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 189–192. Returns on Hours of Work, ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 18–19.	Plumbers -	51·88	In the returns for 112 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours of plumbers are found to be $54\frac{5}{32}$ in summer and $50\frac{79}{448}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $52\frac{158}{896}$. In the returns for 107 districts given by the United Operative Plumbers' Association the average hours are found to be $52\frac{105}{214}$ in summer and $50\frac{31}{107}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $51\frac{257}{428}$. The number given in the table is the mean of these two results. The average obtained for the year 1890 in Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 51·47.

* The Returns from which the hours have been obtained are for 1891 in all cases, with the exception of those of brickmakers and coachmakers, which are for 1890, and those of coopers, in which it is not stated whether they are for 1890 or 1891. Returns of Hours of Labour in the various districts and for the various classes of workmen for July 1893, have been sent to the Commission by the National Association of Master Builders. These show several local changes in hours, but the alterations made by them in the general averages are so slight that it has not been considered necessary to point them out.

[§ 433.] TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Hours of Labour in the Building and Cognate Trades arranged in ascending order of Hours—*continued.* [§ 433.]

References.	Class of Workmen.	Weekly Hours.	REMARKS.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendices XXX. and XXXIII. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 176–179. Returns on Hours of Work, ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 12–15.	Carpenters and joiners.	51·92	In the returns for 118 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours of carpenters and joiners are found to be $53\frac{379}{472}$ in summer and $49\frac{211}{238}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $51\frac{801}{944}$. In the returns for 298 districts given by the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners the average hours are found to be $54\frac{773}{1192}$ in summer and $51\frac{209}{298}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $53\frac{417}{784}$. In the returns for 86 districts given by the General Union of Operative Carpenters and Joiners the average hours throughout the year are found to be $50\frac{171}{172}$, and in the returns for 100 districts given by the Union of Associated Carpenters and Joiners the average hours throughout the year are found to be $51\frac{130}{200}$. The number given in the table is the average of these four results. The average obtained from Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 53·12.
Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXX. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1890, pp. 180–185. Returns on Hours of Work, ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, p. 16.	House painters -	53·06	In the returns for 109 districts given by the National Association of Master Builders the average hours of house painters are found to be $54\frac{213}{218}$ in summer and $47\frac{193}{438}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $51\frac{823}{876}$. In the returns for 48 districts given by the Amalgamated Society of House Decorators and Painters the average hours are found to be $55\frac{1}{98}$ in summer and $53\frac{7}{392}$ in winter. The average for the whole year has therefore been taken as $54\frac{6}{15}$. In the returns for 66 districts (of house painters only) given by the National Amalgamated Society of Operative House and Ship Painters and Decorators the average hours throughout the year are found to be $53\frac{33}{88}$. The number given in the table is the average of these three results. The average obtained from Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 54·96.
Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions for 1891, pp. 198 to 200. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 40–45. Returns on Hours of Work, ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, p. 24.	Cabinet-makers -	53·6	In the returns for 51 districts given by the Amalgamated Union of Cabinet Makers the average hours are found to be 54·4. In the returns for 16 districts given by the United Operative Cabinet and Chair Makers' Society of Scotland the average hours are found to be 51·43. In the returns for 12 districts given by the Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association in Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission the average hours are found to be 54·99. The number given in the table is the average of these three results. The hours quoted in different districts range from 60 to 51, but in 38 cases are said to be 54. The average obtained from Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 54·55.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 54–57.	Coopers - -	54·16	This is the average obtained from six returns to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission. In two cases in which the hours are given as nine a day this has been taken as equivalent to 54 a week.
Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, p. 29. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 53.	Coachmakers -	54·69	This is the average obtained from 47 returns, of which 46 are contained in the Parliamentary Returns on Hours of Labour, and one in the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission. The hours given in these returns vary from 60 to 51, but in 30 returns are said to be 54.
Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 8–9.	Brickmakers -	55·15	This is the average obtained from 36 returns, in which the hours given vary from $67\frac{1}{2}$ to 46. Whenever the hours were given separately for summer and winter the mean has been taken.

Uniformity of hours.

434. It will be seen that there is great uniformity amongst the average hours thus obtained for the various branches of the building trades proper; the hours in all cases except that of the house painters lying between $50\frac{3}{4}$ and 52. The hours of coachmakers, coopers, cabinet-makers, and house painters and decorators all lie between 53 and $54\frac{1}{2}$ and thus approximate closely to the average hours of other skilled industries. The local variations in the hours worked by the same class of workmen are however considerable. Thus the hours quoted by the National Association of Master Builders for masons vary in different districts from $61\frac{1}{2}$ to 47 in summer and from 60 to 40 in winter, and a similarly large range of variations occurs in other trades.

Recent reductions in hours.

435. There have been considerable reductions in the hours of labour in these trades during recent years. Thus the present hours of carpenters in Dublin are 54 a week, but from 1872 to 1890 they worked $60\frac{3}{4}$ hours a week, and joiners in Wales are now working 54 hours where they worked 63 hours about 30 years ago. Similarly masons in Scotland in 1860 worked 57 hours a week, but the hours were reduced to 51 in 1861 in Edinburgh and in 1871 in Glasgow. In Leeds, however, the hours of masons have advanced since 1876 from 48 to 50, although the shorter time is still worked

[§ 435.] in Lancashire; but 30 years ago both masons and bricklayers are said to have worked 60 hours in summer and from light to dark in winter.(1) The weekly hours of coachmakers have also been reduced during a comparatively recent period from 60 to 54. In some districts a 54 hours' week had been obtained before 1879, but the hours were increased in that year to 56½. In Lancashire and Yorkshire, however, they have again been reduced to 54, and a reduction has also taken place in parts of Scotland and Ireland, and throughout the North of England. The hours of coopers in the Leith and Edinburgh district were reduced from 57 to 56 in 1891.(2) This gradual process of reduction in hours may be seen more generally in the following table, which shows the average weekly hours in the various building and cognate trades during the years 1850, 1860, 1870, 1880, and 1890:—

TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Hours obtained from the Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890.*

Class of Workmen.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Bricklayers - -	—	—	—	53·81	50·03
Masons - -	58·36	56·41	54·18	52·21	50·59
Plumbers - -	58·11	56·94	53·35	51·45	51·47†
Carpenters and joiners	—	—	56·35	53·88	53·12
Cabinet-makers -	60·91	60·19	57·09	55·63	54·55
Coachmakers - -	60·94	60·05	57·48	54·94	54·65
Plasterers - -	59·5	59·5	54·75	54·75	54·9†
House painters -	60·15	59·54	55·58	55·20	54·96
Brickmakers - -	57·96	57·53	56·65	55·34	55·15

Overtime. 436. A large amount of overtime appears to be worked by carpenters and joiners. One witness stated that systematic overtime was the greatest evil in the trade, and that he had himself worked from 6 o'clock in the morning to 9 or 10 o'clock at night, and in exceptional cases even till midnight. Overtime was sometimes worked in the West End of London for the convenience of private individuals, but chiefly in the City and the great public thoroughfares. The witness did not, however, wish for the entire abolition of overtime, as it afforded an opportunity for extra savings on the part of energetic men.(3) Several of the unions object to overtime work on the ground that other men are thus kept out of employment, and the Newcastle, Gateshead, and district branch of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners has succeeded in practically abolishing overtime on new work, "only "half-day being allowed to be worked by six men at "the finish of a house or ship; on old work and repairs "no restriction is placed."(4) The Cambridge branch of the National Association of Master Builders on the other hand states that "during summer many work-"men desire to work overtime . . . . particularly "those away from home working in the country."(5) Overtime in the building trades is usually paid for at a higher rate, such as time and a half or time and a quarter. Night shifts are not common except for painters, by whom they are said to be a good deal worked.(6) Sunday work is said to be very rare in the building trade, and only worked as a rule in case of breakdowns in mills, &c. It is usually paid for as double time.(7) There does not appear to be much overtime worked as a rule by either cabinet makers or coopers, although the hours worked by the Jewish cabinetmakers in their homes or sweating shops are excessively long.(8) The members of the Dublin City branch of the Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association are agitating for the abolition of all overtime work in order to provide work for the unemployed, and the National Amalgamated Society of Coopers of Newcastle has been successful in a similar effort and has thus obliged some employers to engage additional men, although with a consequent reduction in the wages of the men who gave up working overtime. The coopers who make herring barrels in the North of Scotland are said to be badly organised, and in consequence to work very long hours for small pay.(9)

437. The tabular statements of hours in the printing and cognate trades have been drawn chiefly from the Answers to the Schedules of Questions issued by the Commission and the "Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions" for 1891 issued by the Board of Trade. The information contained in these sources has been supplemented by that in the oral evidence, and the Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons on the motion of Mr. Broadhurst (375, 1890). It is important to notice that the average hours for different classes of labour for the year 1890 which have been obtained from the last-mentioned returns, most of which come from employers of labour, are in close agreement with the averages obtained from the Answers to Schedules of Questions and the "Statistical Tables, &c." in both of which cases the returns are made by the unions of employed.

TABLE showing the Mean of Returns of Weekly Hours worked by Members of various Societies in the Printing and Cognate Trades.

References.	Society.	Weekly Hours.	REMARKS.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 80—85. Digest, Vol. III., p. 60. Statistical Tables, &c., pp. 244–5. Parliamentary Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 43–44.	Scottish Typographical Association.	53·44	53 9/16 is the average number of hours obtained from the answers of 16 branches of the Scottish Typographical Association, which give hours varying from 54 to 56; and 53 is the average number of hours obtained from the returns of 27 branches of the Association quoted in the "Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions" for 1891, which give hours varying from 51 to 57. The average given in this table therefore is the arithmetic mean of these two results. It must, however, be noticed that in each case only one branch returns 53 hours as the actual number worked, while 10 branches in the former case and 12 branches in the latter give 54 as the actual number. The average obtained from 54 returns for the year 1890 in the Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 52·9.

* In the case of several of these trades the sources of information from which the averages are obtained differ considerably in the different years.

† The averages taken from the same sources as those used for the preceding years are, in the case of plasterers, 54·75, and in the case of plumbers, 51·03, but these averages are modified by those from the additional returns for the year 1890. It is probable that if similar returns could have been obtained for the previous years the increase in hours in 1890 would not appear.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 33, 35, 37, 38, 39, 48. (2) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 54, 55. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 59. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions p. 21. Digest, Vol. II., pp. 57–58. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 75a. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 42. (7) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 40, 42. (8) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 47, 48. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 42. Digest, Vol. II., p. 55.

437.] TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Hours worked by Members of various Societies in the Printing and Cognate Trades—*continued.* [§ 437.]

References.	Society.	Weekly Hours.	REMARKS.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 93. Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. Statistical Tables, &c., p. 246. Parliamentary Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, p. 44.	Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers.	53·66	The average given in the table is that obtained from the returns of 39 branches of the Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers quoted in the "Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions" for 1891, which give numbers of hours varying from 50 to 55. In 18 cases the actual number of hours worked is given as 54. In the oral evidence it was said that the average hours were 54 in England and 51 or 52½ in Scotland, which would give a general average of about 53. In the written evidence the hours were given as from 52½ to 55, which would give an average of 53¾. The average given in the table, which is obtained from more complete data than either of these results, is also seen to lie between them. The average obtained from 11 returns for the year 1890 in Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is $54\frac{5}{44}$.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 58	Printers' Labourers' Union.	54	The regular hours are 54, but one or two nights a week are worked in addition.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 94.	Printing Machine Managers' Trade Society.	54	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 55	Lithographic Stone and Zinc Preparers' Society.	54	
Digest, Vol. III., p. 56	London Society of Compositors.	54	It is stated that 54 is the usual number of hours for day work, and that for night work they are slightly less.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 72—80. Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. Parliamentary Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 42–44.	Typographical Association.	54·02	$54\frac{1}{52}$ is the average number of hours obtained from the answers of 26 branches of the Typographical Association, 16 of which give 54 as the number of hours worked, whilst the others give numbers varying from 51 to 56. In the answer referring to the Association as a whole, it is said that the hours are from 51 to 54, and "generally the latter." In the oral evidence, however, it was stated that the usual hours were about 53 for day work and 52 for night work. The average obtained from 42 returns for the year 1890 in Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is $54\frac{1}{42}$.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 85—92. Statistical Tables, &c., p. 247. Parliamentary Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 44–45.	Bookbinders and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union.	54·12	$54\frac{1}{8}$ is the average number of hours obtained from the answers of 20 branches of the Bookbinders and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union, which give hours varying from 52 to 59; and $54\frac{1}{18}$ is the average number of hours obtained from the returns of 45 branches of the society quoted in the "Statistical Tables and Report on Trades Unions" for 1891, which gvie hours varying from 51 to 56. The average gives in this table is the arithmetic mean of these two results. It must be noticed that 13 branches in the former case, and 27 in the latter, give 54 as the actual number of hours worked. The average obtained from 19 returns for the year 1890, in the Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is $54\frac{3}{19}$.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 63	Dublin Typographical Provident Society.	56	The majority of the offices are said to work 56 hours a week, though a few work 57 hours.
Digest, Vol. III., p. 80	National Union of Paper Mill Workers.	72	The men are employed on two shifts, those on the day shift working 78 and those on the night shift 66 hours a week. The number given is the arithmetic mean of these numbers.

iformity hours.

438. It appears from the above table that there is considerable uniformity in the number of regular hours worked in the different branches of the printing and book trades, the average being close upon 54 in almost every case. The exceptions are a comparatively small society of printers, which is confined to Dublin, and the members of which are said usually to work 56 hours a week, and the National Union of Paper Mill Workers, the members of which work 78 or 66 hours a week, according as they are employed upon the day or the night shift. The conditions of labour of the latter class of workers are, however, in all respects dissimilar to those of printers or bookbinders. (1)

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp 63, 80.

Recent reductions in hours.

439. The hours in the majority of these cases have been considerably reduced during recent years. Thus the members of the Glasgow branch of the Scottish Typographical Association, whose hours were reduced from 54 to 52½ in 1891, are said to have worked 60 hours a week some 20 years ago, and the members of the Belfast branch of the Typographical Association, whose regular hours on newspaper work are now 60 a week, are said to have until very recently worked 70 hours a week. (1) Seven branches of the Scottish Typographical Association and thirteen branches of the Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers succeeded in obtaining a reduction of hours during the

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 60, 62.

[§ 439.] year 1891.(1) The gradual reduction which took place in the average weekly hours of labour in these trades between 1850 and 1890 will be seen from the following table:—

TABLE showing the Means of Returns of Hours obtained from Returns of Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons. 1890.

Nature of Labour.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Letterpress printing (Scotland).	62·9	59·08	55·84	53·14	52·71
Letterpress printing (England and Ireland).	59·45	59·07	57·17	54·27	54·03
Bookbinding - -	59·08	58·64	56·93	54·21	54·15
Lithographic and ornamental printing.	58·16	56·4	55·5	54·61	54·34

It appears from this table that the greatest reduction of hours has taken place in the case of the letterpress printers in Scotland, whose average hours in 1850 were higher than those of any other branch of the printing and kindred trades, whilst they are at present lower than those in any other branch. It is a curious fact that in the other three classes of work the amount of the reduction in hours follows the same order as the extent of the hours at the beginning of the period, so that the four classes which are arranged in descending order in 1850 are in ascending order in 1890.

Overtime. 440. It remains to be noticed that in the above tables no account has as a rule been taken of overtime work, which is often of considerable importance in these trades. The Secretary of the London Society of Compositors stated that overtime was worked to a large extent in many offices, and that it would be desirable to limit it, both for the sake of the men employed and in view of the large numbers of unemployed. He considered that Government contracts were to some extent responsible for this, as official minutes, &c. have to be printed as soon as they come in, at any hour of the day or night.(2) The members of the Printers' Labourers' Union are said to work one or two nights a week in addition to the regular 54 hours. The rules of this Union only allow work on one night in the week, but the efforts to enforce the rule have not been very successful at present. When work is done at night the man works thirty-six hours continuously, with only an hour and an half off the whole time, and although the work is not very laborious it requires constant attention to avoid being caught in the machinery. It is stated that whilst some members were glad of the opportunity of earning extra pay, others objected to overtime work altogether, and would rather that it was worked by the unemployed.(3) The members of the National Union of Paper Mill Workers, who work alternate day and night shifts, complain that they are sometimes required to do two shifts continuously if the man on the other shift is unable to replace them, and urge that a spare hand should be kept, who would be available in such emergencies.(4) Overtime work is generally paid at a higher rate, which in the Typographical Association is said to be 20 or 30 per cent. above the ordinary rate, and in the Scottish Typographical Association to be usually time and a half.(5)

Sunday labour. 441. Sunday work is generally paid at a higher rate if worked by jobbing printers, but newspaper men are obliged to begin work at 4 or 5 o'clock on Sunday afternoon, and this is considered as ordinary time. It is seldom worked by bookbinders and machine rulers.(6)

III. GAS, COAL, CHEMICAL, AND KINDRED TRADES.

Nature of information. 442. It has been found impossible to obtain any general averages of the hours worked in the gas, coal, chemical, and kindred trades, because the only exact information which has been received upon these points relates as a rule to the hours worked in connexion with particular firms or companies, or by individual workmen, and when general statements have been made these are often of a very contradictory nature.

Hours of gas workers. 443. A statement has been given in by Mr. Valon which embodies in tabular form the answers obtained by him from 103 gas companies with regard to the length of the hours worked by their stokers in a week.(1)

TABLE showing the Number of Gas Companies whose Stokers work certain Hours.

Number of Gas Companies.	Number of Hours worked per Week.	
	Range of Variations.	Mean.
49	48 to 58	53
22	60 to 72	66
31	73½ to 84	78·75
1	90	90
103	48 to 90	63·88

The above table shows that in 102 gasworks the weekly hours of stokers range from 48 to 84, whilst in one case they are as high as 90. It is obvious, therefore, that the variations in the length of hours in this industry are too great for a general average to be of value. It appeared, however, from the evidence given by the principal London gas companies, that the stokers in their works generally have eight hour shifts, and that seven shifts are usually worked during the week, and similar evidence was given with regard to the Darwen Gasworks.(2) In this industry the work has to be carried on continuously by day and night, so that the eight hours' system, which was adopted in 1889 at the request of the men, involves three shifts of men instead of the two shifts which were usual before then. It was stated by Mr. Livesey that some men in the South Metropolitan Gas Company's works still preferred to work on the two-shift system, and this plan is adhered to at some provincial gasworks, as at Ramsgate. The work is, however, not continuous throughout the shift. At Ramsgate the retorts are said to be drawn every two hours, and the stokers are able to rest for 50 minutes out of every two hours, and to take their meals in these intervals.(3) Mr. Thorne stated that under the two-shift system at the South Metropolitan works the men rested for one out of every two hours, but that the work was of so exhausting a nature that it would be impossible to stay at it continuously.(4)

Hours of chemical workers. 444. Tabulated statements of the weekly hours of labour of various classes of workmen in different chemical works have been received from the United Alkali Company, and are summarised as follows.(5)

TABLE showing the Weekly Hours of Chemical Workers in different Districts.

District.	Nature of Work.	Hours worked per Week.	
		Range of Variations.	Mean.
Tyne and Scotland.	Vitriol, saltcake, bleaching-powder, alkali, sulphur.	39 to 72	62·99
St. Helens -	Vitriol, saltcake, bleaching-powder, pearl hardening, copper.	36 to 84	63·00
Widnes -	Vitriol, saltcake, bleaching-powder, sulphur, copper.	54 to 81	67·63
	Total - - -	36 to 84	64·5

It must be noticed that in the above table the range of variations refers to the averages of hours worked by men employed in different chemical processes, and not, as in the case of the table of gas stokers' hours, to those worked by different firms. It was stated by Mr. King that the average hours of chemical workers were 112 one week and 56 the next, or an average of 84 hours a week all the year round, but from the above table this would seem to be true only of the men employed in the vitriol department, in which the maximum number of hours are worked in the St. Helens and Widnes districts.(6) Mr. Mitchell stated that sixty per cent. of the Scotch chemical workers work 84 hours a week on an average in alternate day and night shifts. The day

(1) Statistical Tables, &c., pp. 244, 245, 247. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 57, 58. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 80. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 72, 80. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 74, 75, 78, 86, 90, 91. Digest, Vol. III., p. 56.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., 25,696. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 40, 42, 43, 45. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 36, 44. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 32. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Appendices Nos. 1 and 6. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 51.

444.] shifts work eleven and the night shifts thirteen hours as a rule, but when the shifts are changed at the end of the week one works nineteen and the other twenty-two hours. It is said that the work is so hard that the men often cannot work the full hours but are obliged to find substitutes to fill up the time in which their work should be performed, and that there is no fixed time for meals, which the men must take whenever they can find time. Mr. Mitchell admitted that the work was not continuous, but stated that the periods of rest between the charges only lasted half-an-hour, and that the three hours of rest which ought thus to be obtained between the six charges during the day are often encroached upon by "other small things which "take up the time."(1) Mr. King also stated that the English chemical workers were hard at work nearly the whole time that they were on duty, since three charges were made in the 24 hours, and each charge took 6 hours and a quarter, or 18 hours and 45 minutes altogether.(2) Similar evidence with regard to the continuous and laborious nature of the work was given by a representative of the chemical workers in the Tyneside and National Labour Union, but it was stated that the majority of the chemical works upon the Tyne had adopted a three-shift system, which reduced the weekly hours to 56.(3) In the acid manufactories in Glamorganshire the day shift lasts 10 hours and the night shift 14, and it is said that out of each 12 hours more than eight are spent in actual work. The furnaces are charged every 35 minutes, and each charge lasts four or five minutes, but in the intervals the men have to wheel away the ashes and burnt ore.(4) The United Alkali Company have sent in tables to the Commission showing the actual hours of labour which it is estimated are required in the performance of various chemical processes, and which are considerably less than those calculated by the men. Thus it is asserted that in the St. Helens district, although the hours of attendance in the vitriol department are 84 a week, the hours of actual labour are only 28½ a week; and the average hours of actual work of six different classes of chemical workers amount to 30¾ a week, although their average hours of attendance are 60¼ a week.(5) The average weekly hours of chemical workers as obtained from the Returns of Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons in 1890 are as follows:—

Year.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Number of returns -	8	16	24	36	40
Hours - - -	59·75	61·53	60·62	61·13	59·76

It will be seen that the average hours obtained from these returns are below those obtained from the returns of the United Alkali Company quoted above, but that the average hours in 1890 are no lower than they were in 1850, and that they have fluctuated very slightly during the interval. It must, however, be noticed that the number of returns for 1850 is very much smaller than the number of those for 1890, and if the average of the eight returns given by the same persons who gave those for 1850 is taken in each year the following table is obtained:—

Year.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Hours - - -	59·75	59·75	59·25	58·00	55·87

It is possible therefore that there has been a real reduction in the hours of labour throughout the trade which does not appear in the former table.(6)

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445. In the salt industry the hours vary with the nature of the work and are very irregular, the length of the various shifts being fixed by the men themselves. Salt miners are, however, said never to work for more than eight hours.(7) The copper workers in the smelting department work as a rule for 12 hours on six days in the week, and in some works they are said to be frequently kept at work for 24 or even 36 hours continuously. In the finishing department the average hours are 10 in the day shift and seven in the night shift, day and night shifts being worked alternately, but in some works the day and night shifts are each of 10 or 11 hours. The witness who gave evidence with regard to this trade referred to "the abominable system of overtime," and urged that it should be entirely abolished except in special emergencies.(1) The representative of the Coal Porters' branch of the Gasworkers' Union stated that the average hours of coal porters might be roughly estimated at about 40 hours a week, but explained that the work was too uncertain and irregular for any real average to be found. The work must be done at any hour of the day or night when required, but the men are often without any work for the greater part of the week.(2) [§ 445.]

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 19. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. (3) Digest, Vol. III. p. 20. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 22. (5) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XCVI. (6) Returns of Hours of Work, p. 25. (7) Digest Vol. II., p. 51.

446. The question of Sunday labour assumes considerable importance in several of these industries and particularly in that of the gasworkers. Mr. Valon stated that practically the greater number of gasworks worked on Sundays as on ordinary days, and that great difficulties had been found to attend any other system. Attempts to stop work for less than twenty-four hours on Sunday were of little value, "because men who were "changing to night duty had their Sundays spoilt by "having to spend the greater part of the day in bed in "order to prepare themselves for the Sunday night's "work. The system of resting twelve hours on Sunday "also caused increased expense, owing to the waste of "fuel, &c. . . . . Or if the works were stopped "for twenty-four hours the extra labour and anxiety "of having to start a 'dead' works was so great" as to counterbalance the good effect of the day's rest; in fact where the twenty-four hours' rest had been tried the men had requested that work should be continued as before. In the Ramsgate gasworks eight men are employed instead of seven in order that work may be carried on continuously without any man working more than six days a week, and "by a simple system of interchange it was so "arranged that a free Sunday came to every man in "his turn once in seven weeks." This plan had not been found to increase the cost of carbonisation, and the men are physically and morally better for the rest.(3) Mr. Duxbury stated that in the Darwen gasworks the men worked seven days a week, and though a Sunday rest had been tried it had proved unsuccessful and the men had not cared to continue it. They are, however, paid for time and a half during the two Sunday shifts.(4) In the London gasworks all work is as a rule suspended on Sunday between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m., and double time is paid for the work done between 6 p.m. and 10 p.m. The Commercial Gas Company had tried to suspend work altogether on Sunday, but found it impossible to do so for more than twelve hours without injury, and complained that the double pay demanded for the four hours on Sunday evening had raised the cost of production considerably. When work is continuous on Sunday, as sometimes happens in the case of heavy fogs, the company have to pay for five shifts between Saturday night and Monday morning. In the works of the Gas Light and Coke Company no work is done as a rule during sixteen hours on Sunday.(5) Mr. Livesey stated that the plan adopted in the Ramsgate gasworks of one day off for each man in the week had been tried by the South Metropolitan Gas Company but had proved to be unsatisfactory. It was after a conference between all the engineers of the London gas companies and Dr. Gritton, the secretary of the Lord's Day Observance Society, that all work had been stopped for twelve hours on Sunday, but the payment of double time between 6 p.m. and 10 p.m. was demanded by the Gasworkers and General Labourers' Union, and had led to a dispute with that Union.(6) Sunday labour is also common amongst chemical workers, and it is asserted that 50 per cent. of the labour then performed could be dispensed with without serious loss to the masters. If the masters were required to pay double wages for Sunday labour it is thought that the system would be largely, if not totally, abolished. In Scotland the employers are said to make no arrangement for relief on Sundays, so that any free time which the men get is obtained by arrangement with their fellows on the opposite shift. In England, however, Mr. King stated that the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union had partially abolished Saturday night and Sunday work, though he feared that the employers would take the first oppor- Sunday labour.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 23, 24. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37. 48. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 38, 39. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 40. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 42, 43. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 28, 30, 34, 45, 46.

[§ 446.] tunity of reverting to the old system.(1) At the acid works in Glamorganshire the men are employed every other Sunday, which they consider a great grievance. The nature of the work renders seven shifts necessary, and they therefore recommend a relief shift for Sundays.(2) Copper smelters do not work on Sunday as a rule, but "in case a bottom is changed at the end of "a week, and the furnace takes some sand on Saturday," they may have to work on Sunday, and the payment for occasional Sunday work is only 2s., irrespective of the length of time required, which may be as much as fourteen or fifteen hours.(1) [§ 446.]

447. The information which has been obtained with regard to the length of hours in various miscellaneous trades, which have not yet been dealt with, is comprised in the following table:— IV. Miscellaneous Trades. Sources of information.

Table showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Hours of Labour in various Miscellaneous Trades, arranged in ascending order.

References.	Class of Workmen.	Hours per Week.	REMARKS.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 74 and 76. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 61 and 766. Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, p. 33.	Glass bottle makers	49·25	This is the average obtained from five returns of hours, of which two are contained in the oral and three in the written evidence. The hours quoted for the Seaham Harbour Works (59½ a week) were not included in obtaining the average, as the other conditions of employment there differ from those in other works. The average obtained from 15 returns for the year 1890 in the Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 52·31, but some of these returns seem to refer to classes of workmen not included in the former returns.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 96.	Sawyers	55·00	This is the arithmetic mean of the hours quoted by the Hull Mill Sawyers and Wood Cutting Machinists' Society (54 a week) and those quoted by the Aberdeen Saw Mill Workers' Society (56 a week).
Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 70, 71. Returns on Hours of Work" ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, p. 42.	Pottery makers	55·80	This is the average of five returns of hours contained in the written evidence. The hours said to be worked by women only were not included in obtaining the average. The average obtained from 36 returns for the year 1890 in the Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work" is 54·57. The latter returns are given chiefly by employers, whereas the former are given by associations of the employed.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 86, 87. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 69.	Seed crushers	61·83	The seed crushers in Hull are said to work on an average 55 hours, and those in London appear to work about 72 hours a week; 58½ is the length of hours quoted in the written evidence of the Seed Crushers' Society. The amount given in the table is the average of these three estimates.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 64, 65, 66, 67, 71, 72. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 16, 17, 755. Returns on Hours of Work ordered by the House of Commons, 1890, pp. 7, 8.	Bakers	69·83	This is the average obtained from 12 returns of hours, of which seven are contained in the oral and five in the written evidence. A representative of the Amalgamated Union of Bakers stated that the hours ranged from 54 to 100, and that the average was 70 a week. The average obtained from 27 returns for the year 1890 in the Parliamentary Returns of Hours of Work is 56·73. The latter returns are chiefly from employers.
Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 92, 94, 95, 96. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LXXXIV.	Shop assistants	81·47	The representatives of the National Union of Shop Assistants stated that the average hours in retail shops were 82, and that the average hours of 21 warehouse porters and packers had been found to be 96 a week for three months and 78 for the rest of the year, which would give an average throughout the year of 82·5. The average obtained from a table of the approximate hours of shop assistants in various trades in Scotland is 82·89. The average hours of grocers' assistants are said to be 80, and the same length is given for the average hours of shop assistants in Liverpool. The hours given in the table are the average of these five results. The average given by Mr. Langford, viz., 71 hours, was not included in finding the general average, as it referred only to the Old Kent Road.

Range of variations in hours.

448. It may be noticed that the range of variations in hours in the above table is greater than is the case in any of the groups of trades already considered, the hours of glass bottle makers being the shortest, and those of shop assistants the longest, of all the trades included in this section of Group C. Complaints as to the length of hours were made by butchers and domestic servants, but the irregularity in each case was said to be too great for any average to be given. The hours of Covent Garden porters are also very irregular, so that no general statement can be made with regard to them.(3)

Recent reductions in hours.

449. There have been recent reductions in hours of labour in several of these trades, and the gradual reduction which has taken place in the case of bakers, glass workers, and pottery makers, since the year 1850, is shown in the following table.

Table showing the Means of Returns of Weekly Hours obtained from Returns of "Hours of Work" ordered by the House of Commons, 1890.

Class of Workmen.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.
Glass workers*	55·53	55·78	53·87	53·02	52·44
Pottery makers	58·43	58·27	56·69	54·96	54·57
Bakers	70·86	68·68	60·38	60·12	56·73

* This includes other classes of glass workers besides those engaged in making glass bottles.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. Digest, Vol. III., p. 19, 25. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 22. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 72, 73. 88.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23.

[§ 449.] It was stated that in 1890 the hours of bakers were reduced in several towns in Ireland from 105 to 60 hours a week, through the efforts of the Irish National Bakers' Federation.(1) The seed crushers in both London and Hull have also been successful in obtaining a reduction in their hours of labour.(2)

ertime. 450. The trades in which overtime work assumes most importance are those of the bakers and the shop and warehouse assistants. Evidence was given showing that towards the end of the week bakers worked 22, 23, 24, and at one of the Midland towns as much as 34 hours consecutively.(3) For this overtime they sometimes received no extra remuneration, but generally it was paid for at the rate of time and a quarter or time and a half, and it was stated that the men were glad to supplement their wages in this way.(4) The willingness of the workmen did not, however, prevent the long hours from being very injurious, and the extreme exhaustion produced by the continuous work was said to result in many cases in driving men to drink.(5) As regards shop assistants, it was declared that, in addition to long hours, a considerable amount of overtime was worked in all trades; but it was pointed out that this statement did not apply to low class businesses, since in these there was ample time for putting the shop straight in the morning when very little was going on.(6) In small towns, and especially at the seaside, shop assistants work excessively long hours in summer, and less than the general average in winter.(7) Warehouse assistants were described as working three, four, or five hours a day overtime in the busy season, and it was stated that, whereas the salesman had this busy season only about twice a year in each department, the clerks, porters, and packers had perhaps only one month in the year during which they stopped work at the proper time. Neither in this case nor in that of the shop assistants is there any remuneration whatever for this extra work.(8) Another instance of very long hours during the busy season is that of the Covent Garden porters, who are at work in the summer sometimes from 3 a.m. to 10 p.m.(9) The London seed crushers consider that overtime prevails in their trade "to a greater "extent than it should do"; they speak, however, of an improvement in this respect since the strike of 1889, and in Hull the system of overtime has been entirely abolished so far as this trade is concerned.(10)

ight work. 451. Under the heading of night work, again, the chief grievance is that of the bakers, who, both in England and Ireland, work to a very great extent by night. In some parts of England, however, the efforts of the men have resulted in the abolition of night work. This has been the case in Liverpool and Leicester, and in Staffordshire Friday night is the only one on which baking goes on.(11) In Scotland, day-work has prevailed for the last 30 years; though it was stated that recently the keen competition amongst employers had partially broken down the system, and for a short time bakers in one or two centres, Glasgow in particular, had drifted into night work.(12) The workmen contend that the unavoidably unfavourable conditions of the trade are much aggravated by this practice of working at night; they are of opinion, moreover, that night work is quite unnecessary since bread, even when sold new, is seldom eaten until it is at least 12 hours old. In support of this view one witness referred to the six months' trial given in London in 1872 to the day system, and alleged that the customers "did not notice any difference."(13) The employers, on the other hand, stated that the experiment had to be abandoned because of the competition of bakers who worked by night, and that so long as the two systems were in practice side by side it was impossible for day work to succeed. They held that nothing short of legislation could abolish night work, and that in any case its abolition would mean the closing of wholesale bakeries since bread could not be delivered in time to the retail dealers if baked during the day.(14) As regards other trades, day and night shifts are worked by the seed crushers, and also by the glass bottle makers; in the latter case the shifts are sometimes arranged so as to divide the night, one shift working from 3 a.m. to 1 p.m., the other from 2 p.m. to midnight; the proposed three-shift system is objected to on the ground that it would involve regular night work.(1) In the pottery trade a very small amount of night work is necessary in connexion with the kilns.(2) [§ 451.]

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 65. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 85, 86. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 53; Vol. III., pp. 67, 68. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 67. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 16–17, 366–370. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 53. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 95. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 93. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 92. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 73. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 87, 85. Adams, 31,688. (11) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 65, 66, 67, 68; Vol. II., p. 53. (12) Digest. Vol. III., pp. 64, 68. (13) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 266. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 68, 65. (14) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 71–72.

Sunday labour. 452. Bakers work on Sunday nights as a rule, and complaints were made, especially by those in Ireland, of the early hour in the evening at which they have to be at work. Belfast bakers start work at 9 p.m. on Sundays, while at Dublin and Cork the hours for beginning may be as early as 6.30 and 5 p.m. respectively.(3) In addition to this evening work the baker in London and the Midland towns is often required to be at the bakehouse to cook dinners for some four hours on Sunday morning; it was, however, stated that this custom, which is almost unknown in the North, is gradually dying out in London except in very low-class localities.(4) Frequently there is no remuneration for Sunday work, but there is considerable variety in the answers given on this point. Other industries in which a certain amount of Sunday work is found to be necessary are the glass trade, and to a very small extent the pottery trade.(5) Seed crushers in London work on Sunday night, and complain that for the six nights in the week they receive only the ordinary wage, whereas in Hull the men work five nights and are paid for six.(6) Barmen generally work for seven or eight hours on Sundays, but every third or fourth week they have most of the day off.(7) With regard to the shops in poor neighbourhoods which are open for about five hours on Sunday morning, it was stated that as a rule few or no assistants were employed in them.(8)

(ii.) LIMITATION OF HOURS BY LAW OR OTHERWISE.

(a.) EARLY CLOSING OF SHOPS.

Arguments in favour of Early Closing. 453. Reform in the direction of the earlier closing of shops is urged on the grounds that it is desirable and even imperative that there should be secured to those serving in them conditions which render possible "good "health, intellectual improvement, social advantages, "and rights and interests of citizenship."(9) It was represented before the Commission that the desire for these advantages was by no means confined to the employed, but that shopkeepers were at least equally anxious for the shortening of their hours of labour; for though in one sense freer than their assistants, they often, as a matter of fact, worked even longer hours.(10)

(i.) That the present long hours are injurious to health. As regards the length of hours, there is at present no uniformity, and the weekly averages mentioned in different cases ranged from 53 to 93 hours. The former figure was given as the average for the best shops in Manchester, the latter as the maximum in the low class neighbourhoods of Liverpool.(11) Between these two extremes every variety of length of day is found, and the average throughout the country is estimated by the Secretary of the National Union of Shop Assistants at 80 to 84 hours per week.(12) This estimate was, however, characterised as "outrageous" by one witness, who gave 71 hours as the average in the Old Kent Road, a late closing neighbourhood.(13) In the cities of Scotland the average is 82·89 hours.(14) Letters from several doctors were shown, which testify to the injurious effects produced on the health of shop assistants, especially of young women, by the long confinement and standing.(15) The Shop Regulations Act was stated to be too narrow in its application, since it relates only to women and youths under 18, and inadequate in its provisions even for those. It was, moreover, said to be rendered entirely nugatory by insufficiency of inspection.(16) On the other hand, it was pointed out by an employer that the argument as to the prejudicial effects of the present hours of shopmen was not borne out by facts. The death-rate amongst them was precisely the same as that of commercial travellers, who, it was stated, had the advantage of being in the open air during a great part of the day; and shop assistants were remarkably free from sickness.(17) The scanty leisure at their disposal was, however, insisted upon as a serious hindrance to self-improvement; though, for the most part, intelligent men, they are, it is said, cut off from all public

(ii.) That the shop assistant has no leisure for self improvement.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 76, 86. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 426–431. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 64, 65, 66. O'Connor, 28,811. Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. X., XXVIII. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 67, 71. (5) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. XXVIII. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 86. (7) Digest, Vol. I., p. 45. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 96. (9) Milligan, 31,000. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 96. (11) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 94. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 90. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 95. Langford, 3,775. (14) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LXXXIV. (15) Digest, Vol. III., p. 93. Milligan, 30,962–5. (16) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 922, 93. Davis, 30,855–6. James, 31,025. (17) Digest, Vol. III. p. 97.

[§ 453.] and social interests, and, as a result, the average shop assistant and warehouseman "does not know really the "changes that are taking place around him ;" he does not read the daily papers, and could not tell you the " constitution of the present Government, and knows " nothing of the outside world."(1) With a view to remedying this state of things, the shortening of the hours during which shops are open was advocated by witnesses speaking on behalf both of employers and employed.

Arguments in favour of voluntary action in the matter of Early Closing.

454. But the unanimity on the general question was accompanied by considerable difference of opinion with regard to the methods to be adopted. Voluntary, as opposed to compulsory, early closing was warmly supported by two out of the three shopkeepers who gave evidence.(2) They urged that voluntary action was preferable on general grounds to State interference, and that moreover in the case in question it was free from the numerous objections as to matters of detail to which any form of legislation would necessarily be open. They held that compulsion in this matter was an unjustifiable infringement of the liberty of the subject, and that the circumstances were too intricate and the necessities of different classes too varied to be successfully dealt with by any uniform measure. Compulsory early closing would press hard on both buyers and sellers in poor districts ; the wives of working men could not do their shopping early, and it was argued that the result of early closing in London would be that the husbands would be put to the inconvenience of shopping when they left work, and the large establishments would benefit at the expense of the small ones.(3) Shops in the vicinity of stores contend that they are obliged to keep open later than these, or they would lose their custom altogether. Moreover, it was alleged that early closing would mean ruin to the costermongers, who could not, in fairness to the shops, be allowed to be out later, and yet could not otherwise make a living. The ruin of the costermongers would entail great hardship on the poorer classes of buyers.(4) Wholesale dealers again, would, it was asserted, find their business simply "paralysed" if they were unable to work long hours in busy seasons.(5) Finally, an unfair advantage would be given to publicans, since it was not proposed that the regulations should apply to them.(6)

Arguments in favour of legislation in the matter of Early Closing.

455. On the other hand, all the representatives of the shop assistants, and those of two associations composed respectively entirely and partially of shopkeepers, were strongly in favour of legislation as the only means by which satisfactory reform in the matter of closing could be obtained. Voluntary effort was stated to have "miserably failed" to attain the desired end, and arguments were brought forward demonstrating the impossibility of effectual action on the part either of assistants or employers, owing to the circumstances of the case.(7) Shop assistants, it was pointed out, are prevented from organising against long hours by the very fact of those long hours, which leave them no time for intercourse or discussion. Unionism was said to be gradually spreading amongst them, but one witness gave as his opinion that they were 50 years behindhand in organisation. He thought, moreover, that philanthropic associations had delayed improvement in this direction, and had effected little except in the way of "educating the shopkeeper."(8) Employers, again, even if thus "educated," are prevented from successful voluntary action by the fact that the majority who desire early closing are at the mercy of the minority who are opposed to it. "The history of early-closing " movements on voluntary lines . . . showed that " one dissentient could upset and thwart the intentions " of a majority of 40 to 1." "Any voluntary arrange- " ment that may have been established is continually " being jeopardised by the action of one or two " employers, or owing to a new shopkeeper who may " come into the district deciding to keep open later."(9) The opponents of legislation maintain, however, that the force of this argument is greatly exaggerated, and that "with a little courage on the part of the man who " has a little more business, early closing might very " often not be thwarted," and in proof of what voluntary movements have already accomplished one witness instanced his own case, in which the hours had been reduced by 800 per year since he began business nine years before.(1) But the more general view would seem to be that in many cases early closing associations have been "impotent to effect any change whatever," and that the only hope of the shop assistant lies in Parliamentary enactment.(2) It was asserted that three-fourths, if not seven-eighths, of the shopkeepers and the majority of the public were in favour of early closing, and that nothing but competition stood in the way. A London tradesman maintained, however, that the majority was a provincial one, and that London shopkeepers were opposed to compulsion in the matter.(3)

[§ 455.]

Question of local option.

456. Where legislation was desired local option was approved of as giving the employers a voice in the decision. One witness, however, while objecting to legislation in any form on this question objected in particular to local option for London. If the area were to be a County Council one, uniformity would injure a great number of shopkeepers; if it were to be a Parliamentary one, those on the fringe of a section which kept open would suffer by custom leaving them and crossing the boundary.(4)

Half holidays.

457. The weekly half holiday was said to be very general in the large towns in the North of England, and it was recommended that any Bill for early closing should contain a half-holiday clause for the benefit of towns desirous of having it, but the advocates of the shortening of daily hours resented the giving of half holidays "as a sop to stifle agitation for early closing."(5)

(b.) EIGHT HOURS' DAY.

Arguments in favour of an eight hours' day.

458. In the various industries in this group there is a very widespread desire for an eight hours' day, though it is not always very definitely formulated nor have the difficulties involved been fully considered.

(a.) Non-economic. (i.) That it would have beneficial physical, and moral effects, and that it is especially urgent in the case of dangerous and unhealthy industries.

(*a.*) It was alleged that an eight hours' day would have beneficial physical, and moral effects on the workers. It was stated with regard to the gas stokers that "the short hours have tended to make the men " more self respecting and more temperate . . . . " the (friendly) societies have not had so much illness " and have had less claims upon them."(6) An employer in the Yorkshire Glass Workers' Association stated that he "decidedly" thought the eight hours' system would be beneficial to the health of the men, as then they would not be obliged to take their heaviest meal at the hot furnace.(7) Two representatives of the chemical industry stated respectively that those men who were "engaged in three shifts" were "most " decidedly . . . healthier and better than the others," and that though they had slightly less wages they had "greater comfort and health." This was at Messrs. Gaskell Deacon and Company and at "another branch" in Northwich.(8) The workers in unhealthy and dangerous industries make a special claim for the limitation of the hours of labour. The bakers maintain that their trade is "undoubtedly unhealthy" owing to long hours, night work, and impure and hot atmosphere, (9) and a printer demanded the eight hours' day on the ground of the "poisoned air" in which they worked.(10) But the workers in chemical industries present the strongest case. The manufacture of vitriol, caustic, and bleaching powder was stated to be peculiarly detrimental and trying to the health. "It made them " old men whilst they were young men." Moreover, it was stated that the vitriol makers and the caustic makers worked very long hours. One witness desired to reduce the hours in certain exceptionally unhealthy industries to six, while a member of the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union tendered written evidence to the effect that no branch of any trade in England required the eight hours' shift more than the caustic workers. It was stated by an employer that in certain departments in certain works the eight hours' shift had been adopted.(11)

(b.) Economic. (i.) That its adoption is easy in certain industries.

(*b.*) Certain trades claim an eight hours' day on the ground that the conditions under which they work lend themselves especially to its adoption. Such are the gas, glass bottle, and seed crushing industries, where it is desirable that the works should be kept going continuously. Hence the most convenient and in some cases the most economical way of carrying them on is, it is stated, by three eight hour shifts.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 92, Patterson, 31,120. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 95-97. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 96. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 97. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 95. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 96. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94. Johnson, 30,793. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 92. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 93. Johnson, 30,814. Milligan 30,955.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 95. Langford, 32,691. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 94. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90. 97. Davis, 30,796. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 95. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 90, 94, 96. (6) Linton, 25, 453-4. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 147. (8) Steel, 21,552-3. Digest, Vol. III., p. 139. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 146. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 145. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 139.

[§ 458 (b.)]

Thus one gasworker desired the eight hours' day, at any rate in all places where machinery ran continuously for 24 hours.(1) The men claimed that it had worked successfully where it had been introduced, viz., in the South Metropolitan Gasworks, in the Toxteth Park Works, in the Bristol Works, the Commercial Gas Company's Works in Poplar, and the Gaslight Company Works, Beckton Station.(1) Employers in the glass bottle-making trade alleged that they could carry on the business more advantageously by the system of three eight hour shifts than by the present twelve hour shift. The men, however, appear at present to object to the change.(2) The trade of the seed-crushers was maintained by one of the workers to be "peculiarly applicable" to the eight hour shift, as they worked "all "round the clock . . . the mill was running 24 "hours." An employer in the same industry argued that owing to the inconsiderate demands of the men on the question of hours, the engine was now compelled to stop work "something like 33 hours a week" and the men were not employed for more than one-third of their time at the mills. In the stationary, if not retrogressive, state of their trade this was most unsatisfactory. Hence it was claimed that it would be to the advantage of the employers to have the eight hours' shift, because then "their machinery could go, like the corn millers, "from Monday morning to Saturday night."(3) It was further claimed by some of the advocates of the eight hours' day that the output would be "about the same" or "very little less," and that the wages if not actually increased would not be appreciably reduced. Evidence to this effect is given chiefly by the gasworkers, who do not as a rule discuss the question of the cost of production. One of them owned that under the eight hours' day it had increased by 14 per cent., but this he remarked fell "on the consumer." Gas, however, he acknowledged is a "monopoly," and "not "exactly on all fours with articles that have to be "exported and sold in foreign markets in competition "with others."(4) Hence the arguments of the gas workers on this point have only a limited application to the general question. With this reservation, however, the evidence of the gas workers clearly supports the contention as to wages at all events. For instance, the secretary of the Gas Workers' Union claimed that more work was done in eight hours now than was formerly done in twelve. More frequently it is stated either that the output is relatively larger, though absolutely less, or that more work is now turned out in an hour, though the output is necessarily less in eight hours than in twelve. Wages, generally speaking, are maintained, and the majority of gas workers throughout the kingdom are now working eight hours a day for better wages "on the whole."(5) A compositor who stated that his society was in favour of the eight hours' day added that they did not think the cost of production would be increased to any appreciable extent, because the employer would get more work done in the time.(6) A vitriol worker stated that in one firm in his industry where the eight hours' day was introduced the men's wages were only slightly decreased.(7) The most decided opinion on this question, however, was that expressed by an employer in the glass bottle-making industry. An eight hours' day under the three-shift system would, in his opinion, "increase the output "of bottles by 20 per cent., which would mean a very "lessened cost of production." He would then be able to produce a cheap kind of bottle, which is now almost entirely supplied by foreign countries, and the men would still make "splendid wages."(8) The argument that an eight hours' day would check overtime and more especially that it would tend to absorb the unemployed was also brought forward. Thus the secretary of the Coach Makers' Union advocated it, "as the best method of getting rid of the difficulty of "overtime."(9) The glass bottle merchant above quoted stated that an eight hours' day on the three-shift system "would have the effect of employing 50 per "cent. more bottle hands in the trade." A compositor "simply recognised that a kind of abuse exists, in the "fact that the men are allowed to continue on this "work into the night, whilst hundreds of men are "walking about doing nothing . . . an eight hours' "day would bring about a decidedly more satisfactory "state of things."(10) A representative of the house painters gave as one of his chief reasons for a uniform eight hours' day "the vast number of men unemployed," and many others expressed the same view.(1)

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 140. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 147. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 147, 148. (4) Thorne, 25,013-20. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 140, 142. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 144. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 139. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 147. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 83. (10) Bowerman, 23,117.

459. Hence it appears that the advocates of the eight hours' day contend that in this group of industries it is not only perfectly possible in certain trades, but that it can be effected without economic loss to the community, while it would tend to reduce overtime and employ surplus labour. It is further urged that there is an especial need for it in those industries where the conditions are dangerous or unhealthy, and that it would be generally desirable on physical and moral grounds.

Summary of arguments for an eight hours' day.

460. (*a.*) On the other hand, some employers in the gasworks stated that the change to the eight hours' day had been by no means an unqualified success in its effect either upon the quality of the work or upon the behaviour of the men. One of the directors attributed this to the fact that the men got it "too easily." He added, however, "I am bound to say that this year "things have improved and the men are doing their "work in a much more satisfactory manner." One effect of the eight hours' day was predicted to be that "if the men were to earn anything like the money in "the shorter time, the work must be more severe per "hour than it was before" . . . "That would shut "the company out from keeping on their older stokers "or men of inferior physique."(2)

Arguments against an eight hours' day.
(*a.*) *Non-economic.*
(i.) *The eight hours' day in the gasworks has not been an unqualified success.*

(*b.*) Again, it is urged by the opponents of the eight hours' day that in many instances it would be quite impracticable. This is particularly the case in "season" trades and those industries where employment is irregular, owing to the weather, or to other causes independent of the work itself. The secretary of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners said he "could not see his way clear" to support a general eight hours' day as it might not be advantageous to trades such as plasterers, bricklayers, and painters which were subject, more or less, to the severity and inclemency of the weather. A bricklayer stated that as their hours were necessarily irregular, it would be impossible for them to work a uniform eight hours' day.(3) The secretary of the Dublin United Trades Council stated that "season trades" and "trades of "fashion could not work an equal number of hours in "the busy season and in the slack season." A house painter who was in favour on the whole of a legal eight hours' day mentioned the difficulties that stood in his way as his trade was a season one. He also said that most of the men would be against the prohibition of overtime, because they needed it in the summer to wipe off the debts incurred in the winter.(4) The Director of the Salt Union stated that in a considerable portion of their trade it would be "utterly impossible" for an eight hours' system to be carried out at all. The employment of the boatmen and the saltmakers, for instance, is quite irregular, and depends upon the tides and the hours at which the ships come in.(5) A coal porter gave similar evidence, though he desired to see the hours restricted in some way to 48 a week.(6) This argument of total impracticability is also urged on behalf of small tradesmen by the representative of the South London Voluntary Early Closing Association. Should an Eight Hours' Bill be passed he "would not "be able to open his shop till 1 o'clock in the day, if "he wished to keep it open till 9." It would be a "very drastic measure."(7) The increase in the cost of production is stated to be a very serious objection to the eight hours' day, both by industries such as the production of gas, which are not affected by foreign competition, and more especially by those which have to hold their own in the market against cheap continental goods. The employers in the gas companies state that since the introduction of the eight hours' day in their works the cost of production has "increased enormously," because, though the men cannot do so much work in eight hours as they could do in 12 their wages have not been reduced. This increased cost of production is estimated in various works at 16·6 per cent., 10 per cent., and 20 per cent. But owing to other causes consequent on the concession of the eight hours' day, and the further demands of the men, the increased cost of 20 per cent. in the South Metropolitan Gas Company was subsequently raised to 44 per cent., and in another case to 48 per cent. The employers expressed themselves as much disappointed by this result. The increased cost, it was stated, fell partly upon the price of the gas and partly upon the dividends

(*b.*) *Economic.*
(i.) *That in many industries it would be quite impracticable.*

(ii.) *That the increase in the cost of production would injure trade and that the rate of wages could not be maintained.*
(*a.*) *In gasworks.*

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 79. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 143-4. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 78. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 79. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 82. Ward, 21,065. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 142. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 149.

[§ 460 (b.)] (b.) *In other industries subject to foreign competition.*

of the shareholders.*(1) The increased cost of production which would be involved by the limitation of the hours of labour in those trades which are subject to foreign competition is a still graver objection. This is recognised by some of the workers who are distinctly in favour of an eight hours' day if possible. The most striking instance is that of a seed crusher, who said "the thought had struck (him)" that with the shorter hours "the money to pay the extra gang would "have to come out of the profits . . . . or out of the "prices paid for oil and cake. This may mean, in the "face of the great competition already existing with "America, a serious blow to English trade, and instead "of the men being employed 12 hours a day they "would probably not be employed at all."(2) Another witness from the same industry, who was also an advocate of the eight hours' day, acknowledged that there was "not a doubt that foreign competition would "have a detrimental effect upon our own industries." He met the objection, however, thus: "If the only way "that we can conduct any business is on starvation "wages, so that the men who have the work to do "cannot live a decent life, it is as well to let that "business slide."(3) A representative of the carpenters and joiners stated that owing to importation from foreign countries where men worked longer hours for lower wages an eight hours' day would not be satisfactory in England unless it were international.(4) This was corroborated by a representative of the Cork United Trades Society and a member of the building trade. Those who are in favour of an eight hours' day usually assume, if they do not actually state, that there will be no appreciable decrease in wages in consequence. The men in the glass bottle works, however, are strongly against any legal limitation, on the express ground of loss of wages which would result. Thus Mr. Greenwood, the secretary of the Yorkshire Glass Bottle Makers' Society, argued that the system of three eight-hour shifts would leave the workmen only eight hours altogether for work, including meal times, and then "they could not make wages at all."(5) He claimed that the effect on the men's wages in a factory where the experiment had been tried had been "very bad," and that in Germany the three-shift system was "being abandoned." It may be noted that the employers in this industry asserted that under the three-shift system the men would receive higher wages than at present.(6) The Amalgamated Society of Coopers also disapproved of an eight hours' day, because they feared "that they would not be able to "retain the same rate of wages."(7)

Summary of arguments against an eight hours' day.

461. From this evidence it appears that the arguments brought forward by the advocates of the eight hours' day are absolutely contradicted by those of its opponents. The latter assert that, apart from the fact that the conditions of many industries make such a measure impracticable, the increased cost of production would have an injurious effect upon English industries, particularly on those subject to foreign competition, while the rate of wages could not be maintained. It is further stated that the effect of the experiment in the gasworks has not so far been altogether satisfactory as regards the conduct and the work of the men.

Method of procuring an eight hours' day. (a.) *By voluntary effort.*

462. (a.) There is very little evidence in favour of procuring an eight hours' day by voluntary effort in the trades here under review. Some representatives of the carpenters, of the men employed in the London Oil Mills, and of the Cork United Trades Society are in favour of voluntary effort.(8) The latter looked upon State interference as "very dangerous" and "preferred "to rely on the workmen's own efforts."(9) The representatives of the printing trade, with two exceptions, appeared to be distinctly against legal intervention with the question of hours. "They had always believed "in trying to improve their own position." "They "have no wish for State interference beyond what was "absolutely necessary."(10)

(b.) *By legislation.*

(b.) Almost all the trades which advocate an eight hours' day, and they form the great majority in this group, desire to avail themselves of the authority of Parliament. Very few, however, appear to have thought the matter out; a number of slightly different reasons in favour of this course are given, and a variety of more or less vague suggestions and conditions are brought forward with regard to it. A rough classification of the opinions held by the witnesses can, however, be made. A certain number are in favour of State action under certain conditions, but they see the difficulties that are involved, and would prefer the voluntary method if they thought it would be successful. For instance, it is suggested that legislation should be resorted to in certain industries, "Governmentshould "set the example and should introduce the eight hours "into all its workshops;" it should be adopted "in "all places where machinery ran continuously for "24 hours,"(1) in "especially arduous or unhealthy "industries," or it should be both "universal" and "international."(2) Many advocate a legal eight hours' day on condition that there should be much elasticity in its "regulations," with a considerable amount of local liberty. This class, however, is more conveniently dealt with under the head of Trade Option. A large class think that legislation is the only weapon strong enough to effectually shorten the working day; while others urge this method as preferable in itself to strikes. This position is taken up for the most part by the less highly organised industries. Thus the bakers state that having failed to reduce hours by their own exertions, they look in future to the State; four strikes had taken place in Cork during the last 10 years on the question of hours, but none had been successful.(3) A member of the trade added, "I believe that we shall "never get eight hours, nor a universal 10 hours, "unless the State does interfere, and I will tell you "why. We are not in such a powerful condition for "organisation as such bodies as the engineers, the "carpenters, or the typographical printers. We work "in small sections and we have a difficulty in getting "our men together. The influence of an employer "over one or two men is much greater than the "influence of an employer over 100 or 200 men. As a "trade it is a loose trade."(4) In the same way the representative of the National Union of Shop Assistants pleaded that they were generally "too weakly or-"ganised to obtain anything like a reduction in the "hours of labour by Trade Union efforts."(5) Again it was stated by a representative of the house painters, that owing to so many of the painters being unorganised, "if we only got (the eight hours' day) by "word of mouth, we could not sustain it." A representative of the chemical industry argued that unless the eight hours' day was made law the masters would revert to the old order of things on the first opportunity.(6) The general secretary of the Gasworkers and General Labourers' Union stated that four strikes had been caused by the attempts of the directors of gasworks "to fix the men down to the twelve-hour "system in preference to the eight hours." If the eight hours had been established by Act of Parliament this would not have happened, and "we should have "been thousands of pounds in pocket and there would "have been really more men employed than at the present time."(7) Mr. Fenelon, an employer and a skilled artizan, desired a legal eight hours' day on the ground that it would put the question on a different and better basis. "I think it cannot be done by "mutual arrangement as these little disputes are going "on interminably."(8)

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(c.) *Question of Trade or District Option.*

(c.) The question of Trade or District Option has hardly been discussed in detail. But those who desire legal limitation of hours usually stipulate that some form of Trade Option should be provided and the general opinion appears to run in favour of "a per-"missive Bill, on the lines of Mr. Mann's proposal" at a recent congress. Thus Mr. Wilson, M.P., was "favourable to an Eight Hours' Bill to be applied by "the local authorities on the demand of the persons "concerned;" "Trade Option coupled with the option "of the district."(9) Some system of this sort was advocated by Mr. Dew, secretary of the London Building Trade Committee, who was the only witness who went into the question at any length, but his views were not consistent, as he appeared to argue first for District and then for Trade Option. He wished to decide the matter by districts or towns and not by the votes of the societies. The conditions of work in London and in the country were different, and the London building trade should decide for itself whether it should have the eight hours. In spite of the difficulty of unfair competition which would then be introduced,

* It may be noted that the increased cost of production was not stated to have affected the consumption of gas, or the business as a whole.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 142-143. (2) Adams, 31, 69. (3) Bell, 31,518-19. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 78. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 146-7. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 146-7. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 83. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 78. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 83. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 144-5.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 141. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 80. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 146. (4) Jenkins, Lee, Hill, and Emery, 29,253. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 148. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 82. (7) Thorne, 24,993-4. (8) Fenelon, 16,624-9. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 141.

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he "was still in favour of local option in preference to "a universal eight hours' day." However, he further added, "I agree with an Eight Hours' Bill on the "Fabian lines. That is an Eight Hours' Bill should "be passed by the legislature and then any trade by a "two-thirds majority can come within the provisions "of the Bill. They could take it up trade by trade. "My opinion is that some trades at the present "moment are not ripe for it, others are more "than ripe for it . . . . . I should not give "the employers any voice in it. I cannot see that "it matters to them."(1) On the other hand, a gas-worker, a baker, and Mr. King, of the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union, advocated Trade Option, with no reference to District Option. Mr. King wished the question to be decided by the majority of the members in any particular trade and "the employer "would have nothing to say to it whatever . . . . "but the common sense of the men would not ruin "an industry from which they got their bread and "butter."(2) With reference to the last point raised, as to how far the employers should have any voice in the matter, a gasworker suggested that "Parliament ". . . . should give Trade Unions the power of en-"actment . . . without consulting the employer "at all."(3) A compositor, on the other hand, was more conciliatory and held that the details of the Act should be arranged between the employers and the employed after "minute discussion."(4) A representative of the shop assistants advocated an eight hours' day for warehousemen "without any regard to local or "trade option, or even trade exemption."(5)

) Penal-s for aches of Act.

(*d.*) Very little evidence is given on the question as to whether breach of the Act is to be made penal, or necessary overtime to be allowed. A house painter, a mason, and a chemical worker, stated that they would make the Act penal on both employer and employed, but Mr. King only suggested that it should be made penal on the employer. As regards overtime, a house painter was prepared to allow a "reasonable discretion" to rest with the workmen and masters, on sufficient cause being shown. (6) A baker also considered that though it was the function of the State to step in and shorten the hours of labour, yet "great elasticity" must be allowed to "trade regulations." "A hard-and-fast "law would be a very good thing for the bakers."(7)

3. STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT.

nditions labour in ate and unicipal ploy-nt.

463. The evidence given on this subject is in almost every point contradictory; and hence, it is impossible to deduce from it any general statements. In the majority of instances the wages paid by the State or by municipalities were stated to be lower than the standard rate in the trade. (8) This was especially the case where labour is employed by Government indirectly through contractors. Most Government contracts, it was stated, were worked at a price which barely admitted of profit to the employer, as Government always accepted the lowest tender; and the tendency therefore was to throw the work into the hands of "unfair" employers, who recouped themselves at the expense of the workmen. On the other hand, it was stated in some cases that the wages paid were as high or higher than the current rate; or where they were lower, that they were supplemented by an allowance in case of accident or illness.(9) The conditions of labour in other respects were sometimes said to be favourable under State or municipal employment;(10) in others long hours and sweating were asserted to be the practice.(11) Government contracts in the printing trade were stated to be largely responsible for overtime work, for the payment of which moreover no provision was made in the schedules.(12) While in one case it was asserted that "results were satisfactory" in Government employment but not under local authorities,(13) another witness, who pointed out the evils of State employment, was of opinion that the men employed by the local boards were in a better position than those in private firms.(14) Several witnesses, arguing from the successful undertaking of the gas and water supply by various municipalities, urged the municipalisation of the baking trade. They contended that under municipal control bread would be much purer than at present, and that though private competitors need not be suppressed, the municipal bakery would produce bread at a price which would soon "drive them from the field." The principle might be extended to the whole trade of any district.(1) With regard to the fair contract clauses, they were in most cases spoken of with approbation. Before February 1891, it was stated, all Government repairs were done at a rate which precluded Trade Unionists from employment, now that the current rate of wages was fixed, an advance of from 25 to 30 per cent. had resulted.(2) For County Council work the contractor has, moreover, to observe the recognised custom as to hours, and to submit to a "very "strong stipulation against sub-letting"(3). One witness asserted, however, that the clauses had operated very harshly on the less able workmen. Many old men who knew their work well, but were not quick workers, had been dismissed, because the employer was obliged to pay the Trades Union rate of wages, and these men were "not worth it." Another result of the clauses was that many building firms declined to tender for county council and school board work because of the restrictions placed on them.(4) It may be noted that the clauses had not yet affected the printing trade, because some of the present contracts had still three years to run.(5)

4. INSPECTION AND REGULATION OF FACTORIES AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

Nature of evidence.

464. On this subject the bulk of the evidence, which is of a similar nature, comes from the side of the employed. Where, however, evidence has been given by the employers, it, as a rule, contradicts or modifies the view of the work people.

Complaints with regard to sanitation.

465. The representatives of the employed in all the trades under review cited numerous instances of the ignorance or indifference of the employers with regard to sanitation. It may be noted, however, that their condemnation was by no means universal. It appears, in the first place, that in the building, printing, and pottery trades, and among shop assistants, large establishments are generally satisfactory as to sanitation, while the small ones are the reverse.(6) Secondly, the extent of the evil appears in some industries to vary largely according to locality. Thus the condition of bakehouses is said to be excellent in Belfast, but bad in other Irish towns, especially in Cork,(7) or again, good in the Midland towns of England but unsatisfactory in London.(8) Printing offices were stated to be in excellent condition in Glasgow and Belfast, but otherwise in Dublin, London, and other localities.(9) The London gasworks were said to be greatly superior to the provincial ones.(10) On the other hand, there is not a single instance in which the sanitary condition of chemical works was spoken of with approval by the employed; and in all the trades under consideration certain factories were condemned. The state of the sanitary arrangements was described in a few instances as "shockingly bad"(11) and "thoroughly disgraceful,"(12) and in many as "unsatisfactory" or "defective."(13) In bakehouses complaint was made of the use of low underground rooms, which were liable to be flooded, and in which the atmosphere was said to be very bad. Night work was another grievance which was quoted as aggravating the unfavourable conditions of the trade.(14) The printers also complained of hot underground rooms and want of ventilation. The exposure of the men to the weather after the high temperature of the offices was said to lead frequently to consumption, and the dust produced by the paper used for cheap printing rendered the trade in some instances additionally unhealthy.(15) In the pottery trade the chief grievances were the high temperature, dust, want of ventilation, or the alternative of a violent draught, and, in the case of the smaller establishments, the absence of any protection from the weather.(16) Shop assistants were stated to suffer from excessive heat.(17)

(1) Dew, 17,476–481. (2) King, 20,913–14. Digest, Vol. II., p. 82. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 141. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 144. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 149. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 81. Digest, Vol. III., p. 139. (7) Digest Vol. III., p. 146. Lawlor, O'Connor, Davis, 29,022. (8) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. XVI., XVII., XXXI. Digest, Vol. II., p. 42. (9) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. XVI., XVII. Digest, Vol. II., p. 47. (10) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. XVI., XXXI. (11) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. XVI. Digest, Vol. II., p. 42. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. (13) Introduction to the Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. XXXVII. (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 47.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 69. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 47. Appendix XXIX. (Vol. II.). (3) Dew, 17,405. Digest, Vol. II., p. 47. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 16. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 56. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 37, Vol. III., pp. 64, 83, 93. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 86. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 68. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 61–3, 57. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 37. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 57. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 44. Vol. III., pp. 21, 29, 58, 63, 65, 66. (14) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 53, 68. (15) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 57–58. (16) Digest, Vol. III., 82, 83. (17) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 91, 93.

[§ 465.] Employment in chemical works was stated to be particularly unhealthy; and though in part inevitable, it would appear from the evidence of the employed and from the statements of Dr. Arlidge* that little care is taken to minimise the noxious effects of the work. The manufacture of red lead, for instance, which was said to be always unhealthy, demands the strictest attention to cleanliness, but in some factories no provision of this sort was made for the workmen. In others no means were provided for carrying off the dust which the manufacture produced.(1) In chemical works of other kinds harmful gases, it was asserted, were allowed to accumulate and escape into places where the men were working. It was stated that "with proper precautions and ventilation for carrying "away the gas, much of the injury that the men "suffer might be prevented"(2) The introduction of a better draught in the furnaces and the use of decomposing pots might, it was thought, prevent the escape of gas in the works.(3) Among the miscellaneous trades included under this group, want of ventilation was an almost universal complaint.(4) Throughout these trades the employers without exception considered the sanitation of their factories and workshops satisfactory, and in some cases excellent.(5) A master baker was of opinion that the evils of underground bakehouses had been exaggerated, and stated that great sanitary improvement had taken place during the last 20 years. He added, moreover, that sanitary conditions are not always dependent on the employer.(6) Another employer contradicted the evidence with regard to the sanitary condition of small shops on the ground that the interests of employer and employed in such cases are indentical. While admitting that nothing but good could come of increased sanitary inspection he "objected to the inference that it is the small trader "who wants it particularly."(7)

Proposed remedies.

466. In spite, however, of the need which the evidence thus reveals of improved sanitation, no definite suggestions were made by the witnesses as to the amendment of the Acts. Beyond the general proposal that the inspector should himself give notice to the local authorities of cases where it was defective instead of leaving it to the workmen,(8) the chief improvements suggested related to chemical works and bakeries. For the former the wider use of mechanical means for removing dust and better provision for cleanliness were desired.(9) With regard to the latter it was proposed that underground bakehouses should be prohibited; that all bakehouses should be registered, and that the use of machinery should be extended in order to ensure higher rooms.(10)

Complaints with regard to boy labour.

467. Evidence was given by several witnesses with regard to the evasion of the Factory Acts by the employment of boy labour. It appears that boys are frequently employed under age, and when the inspector comes round are hidden, so that the infraction of the law is seldom discovered. The extent of this evil varies, however, very largely in different localities. Thus, at Cork it was stated that the law had not been put in force for ten years, and "all the boys were working."(11) At Belfast, on the other hand, the inspector was said to be "most energetic in keeping down the system."(12) A representative of the printing trade stated that there was no tendency among the employers to employ boys under age, but that the parents "try to push them in."(13) Hours in excess of those allowed by the Act were stated to be worked at the present time in the baking and gas industries; but in the latter case the abuse was said to have been remedied by the factory inspector.(14) Even when not in defiance of the law the work performed by boys was considered by some witnesses to be too laborious. Thus, in one printing firm boys under 16 were mentioned as working 36 and 40 hours at a stretch;(15) in copper works they were said to do very heavy work for "ridiculously small" pay; (16) and in a glass bottle-making firm they had to run 25 miles a day, carrying bottles between the furnace and the annealing oven.(17) Boy labour was moreover considered likely to lead to accidents, and it was therefore advised that they should not be employed so early as at present on work requiring skill.(1) It was stated that the number of boys employed under 13 in the printing trade was decreasing.(2) None are mentioned as being employed in building, and "comparatively none" in the chemical trade.(3) In the glass bottle making firm of Messrs. Bagley, Candlish, & Co., few boys begin work before 14. Very few half-time children were employed in the printing trade, and "the tendency was to lessen the number,"(4) and in the glass bottle making industry half-timers are not employed unless it is absolutely necessary. [§ 467.]

Proposed remedies.

468. It was recommended that the hours of labour of boys in bakehouses should be limited,(5) and that the age at which they might be employed should be raised, for day work to 16 or 17, and for night work to 17 or 18.(6)

Complaints with regard to inspection.

469. With regard to inspection, numerous and serious complaints were made by the representatives of the employed. Some considered the system itself at fault. The porters especially "have not much faith in factory inspectors."(7) The more usual opinion is, however, that the system itself is excellent, but that its working is very defective. The chief and most widely recognised of these defects was undoubtedly the insufficiency of the number of inspectors. In the building trade their visits were stated to be "exceedingly rare";(8) and in chemical works to be "few and far between";(9) the inspection of bakeries was said to be "never done";(10) and in the printing industry, while the scarcity of inspectors in England was also pointed out, Ireland especially was stated to be "very badly supplied." There are now only two inspectors of the trade for the whole of Ireland, though there used to be three.(11) Several witnesses declared that they had never seen an inspector inside their workshops at all;(12) and nearly all agreed that however well-meaning and hard-working they might be, their number was utterly inadequate to the work expected of them. "There are not enough inspectors, not half," said Mr. Ham.(13) Apart from this, however, the inefficiency of inspection was also complained of. In chemical works it was said to be merely nominal.(14) In Ireland it was described as "a farce,"(15) and representatives of various trades stated that the inspector usually saw only the employer, and did not enter the workshops or inspect the machinery. The employer, it was asserted, moreover, always knew when the visit of the inspector was going to take place, and preparations were therefore made for it. Boys working under age or overtime could be hidden, and the gas in the flues of alkali works reduced to the legal amount; and it was stated that the only instance where discovery of such evasions was made "never came to anything."(16) It was pointed out by several witnesses that inspectors were usually men who had no practical knowledge of the trade they inspected; and therefore "took but small interest in the matter," and could be easily deceived.(17) The employers, on the other hand, seemed to consider the inspection both sufficient and efficient. In the building trade it was stated that all workshops were inspected regularly, and that where the inspector had ordered improvements they had been carried out.(18) A representative of the baking trade said that his premises were inspected twice a year; but admitted that he always received a notice previously.(19) Among the representatives of the employed, one witness stated that in the printing trade of Glasgow the inspectors were very hardworking, and all offices were frequently inspected.(20) With regard to the transfer of inspection to the local authorities, one witness was of opinion that local inspection in the provinces was not satisfactory as "the inspectors were "too much under the influence of local men";(21) and an employer thought that an occasional inspection by a Government (not parochial) officer was desirable on sanitary grounds.(22) On the other hand, the potters "believe in local control," and desire that the inspectors should be under the control of a local committee.(23)

* See also p. 311.

(1) Digest, III., p. 21. (2) Healey, 22,378. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 80, 87. (5) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. XXIX. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 57, 76, 96. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 71. (7) Langford, 32,746. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 20. Vol. III., p. 21. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 68. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 65. O'Connor, 28,852. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 60. Davis, 28,840. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. Kelly, 22,643. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29. (15) Digest, Vol. III., p. 171. (16) Digest, Vol. III., p. 23. Wignall, 22,271. (17) Digest Vol. III., p. 75.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 55, 84. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. (3) Mitchell, 21,410. (4) Kelley, 22,644. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 68. (6) Digest. Vol. III., p. 69. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 175. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 15. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94. Wignall, 22,245. (10) Digest, Vol. III, p. 69. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 62. Monro, 21,347. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48, 56. Vol. III., pp. 23, 25. (13) Digest, Vol. II., p. 104. Ham, 20,002. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 22. (15) Digest, Vol. II., p. 104. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 13. (16) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. Wignall, 22,247. (17) Digest, Vol. III., p. 175. (18) Digest Vol. II., p. 49; Vol. III., p. 15. (19) Digest, Vol. III., p. 71. (20) Digest, Vol. III., p. 61. (21) Digest, Vol. III., p. 69. Emery, 29,303. (22) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. XXIX. (23) Digest, Vol. III., p. 82.

[§ 470.] Proposed remedies.

470. With regard to inspection, one union demanded "some system by which inspectors should be bound "to do their work"(1) without in any way specifying what form such a system should take; but the majority of witnesses had definite and practical remedies to propose. Witness after witness called for the appointment of more inspectors as the greatest desideratum of all.(2) Similar unanimity was displayed in the demand for the appointment of "practical" inspectors;(3) men who had themselves had practical experience of the trade in the district over which they were placed; and who "would be the eyes and ears, so to speak, of "the higher inspector."(4). A representative of the printing industry thought that it would be possible to select a competent man who thoroughly understands the nature of the work, and in twelve months he would be able to inspect every office in London, and at the proper time;(5) and it was anticipated that if working men inspectors were appointed the men would co-operate with them, and themselves enforce a better system of ventilation. The appointment of women inspectors was also recommended in a few instances.(6). One witness wished that the inspection of bakehouses in Ireland should be placed in the hands of the constabulary, which he considered the most practical body of men to put the law in motion, "because any Acts of "Parliament they do get to enforce they can enforce "pretty strongly."(7) A chemical worker proposed that in every centre there should be one inspector, with powers to enforce the altering or repairing of any portion of the works where there is an escape of gas,(8) and another wished the Act regulating the inspection of white lead factories to be extended to those in which red lead was manufactured.(9) Minor suggestions were made such as that the inspector should not give notice of his impending visit to the employer; but should "see the people under the actual conditions of their work,"(10) and that every place where persons are engaged in manufacture should be registered as such. A request was further made that one inspector should be appointed for saw mills alone; and a representative of the Union of Paper Mill Workers recommended that paper mills should not be without the scope of the provisions of the Factory Workers' Act with respect to the conditions of labour for women and girls.(11)

5. ACCIDENTS AND EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

Nature and causes of accidents.

471. Many of the accidents that occur in the industries included under this group are alleged to result from preventible causes, and according to the men, are chiefly due to the neglect of proper precautions with regard to the plant on the part of the employer, while according to the latter they are mainly due to the carelessness of the employed. Thus, it was contended by representatives of the copper working, chemical, printing, and sawing industries, that the machinery was insufficiently fenced, and a witness from the two latter trades further stated that it was often dangerously overcrowded.(12) Mr. Copsey stated that accidents in his trade frequently happened because the saws were placed too close to one another; also because boys without proper training were employed in difficult and dangerous work. He further stated that in the last two years 12½ per cent. of the members of his union had been injured, while, in the printers' trade, Mr. Leahy estimated the number at 5 per cent. In the opinion of Mr. Copsey accidents could not be attributed to the carelessness of the men in one case out of fifty(13). Representatives of the bricklayers, masons, carpenters, and coal porters complained of many accidents which they said were caused by the use of inferior plant and the falling of scaffolds.(14) It may, however, be noted with regard to the last complaint that two representatives of the master builders contended that the remedy lay in the men's own hands, because it was their duty, and not that of a Government inspector, to see that the scaffolding was secure. Accidents, they stated, were generally due to carelessness on the part of the men themselves.(15)

(1) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. XIII. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54; Vol. III., pp. 21, 23, 54, 56, 57, 63, 64, 66, 68, 75. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56; Vol. III., pp. 20, 21, 22, 25, 27, 57, 63, 82, 83. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 175. Owen, 30,509. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 57. Bowerman, 23,099. (6) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. XIII. Digest, Vol. III., p. 22. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 66. Davis, 28,847. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 20. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 21. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56. Girling, 20,666. (11) Digest, Vol. III. p. 171. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 49. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 57, 85. (13) Digest, Vol. III. pp. 57, 85. (14) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 35, 37, 97. Digest. Vol. III., p. 37. (15) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 17, 18, 180.

[§ 472.] Compensation for accidents.

472. Compensation for accidents, other than that obtainable by the Employers' Liability Act, is provided for in various ways, either by some system of insurance or through the agency of trade and friendly societies. A scheme which has been drawn up by the South Metropolitan Gas Company was handed in by Mr. Livesey.* In this provision is made that compensation for accidents to the workmen shall be a charge on the sick and burial fund to which reference has already been made. It is laid down in this scheme that in the case of any accident an inquiry shall be held by the engineer of the station, or by the chairman or by a director in the case of a fatal accident, in conjunction with a jury of twelve workmen. If they decide by a majority of at least two-thirds that there was no "contributory negligence" on the part of the workman, a grant shall be made of 6s. a week in addition to the ordinary sick pay.(1) A somewhat similar scheme was proposed by the secretary of the National Association of Master Builders. He stated that the masters desired to start a mutual insurance fund supported by the joint contributions of employers and employed. Under this scheme the company would pay two-thirds of the weekly wage to the injured man and 100*l.* in case of death, whether the accident were due to the fault of the employer or to the men's own negligence. The great advantage of this scheme, the witness added, was that the expense and waste of litigation would be avoided.(2) It appeared that both these schemes were intended to stand in lieu of any claims under the Employers' Liability Act of 1880. In one case, however, an instance of insurance was mentioned, which was not intended to take the place of the legal liability of the employer. Mr. Emmett, a representative of the bricklayers, stated that shortly before the Employers' Liability Act came into force in 1881 the employers in the Ashton district took out "joint insurance policies" to insure the workmen in case of accident. It was, however, made clear to the workmen that by contributing to a policy of that kind they in no sense "contracted themselves out of the Act."(3) Other cases of provision for accidents are found in the rules of friendly, benefit, and trade societies, such as the United Operative Bricklayers' Trade, Accident, and Burial Society,(4) to which reference has been made under the heading of "Organisations."

Contracting out.

473. A good deal of evidence was given with regard to the Employers' Liability Act, and bore reference to attempts to obviate or evade its action, to grievances which arise out of its administration, and to proposed amendments in connexion therewith. The practice of "contracting out" of the Act appeared on the whole to be regarded with disfavour.(5) It was, however, advocated by Mr. Chance, the managing partner of the Oldbury Alkali Works. On the passing of the Act in 1880 it was pointed out to the men employed in this firm that a very small proportion of the accidents which usually occurred would come under the Act, because no compensation was due in those accidents for which no one was to blame, or in those in which there was "contributory negligence" on the part of the injured man himself or any of his fellow workmen. He further drew attention to the fact that under this Act "many "months and possibly more than a year would elapse "before a single penny came to the man or his family," and meantime he would be involved in the "harassing "suspense of a law suit." In place of the Employers' Liability Act he therefore proposed a scheme of mutual insurance, which was unanimously accepted by the workpeople and came into operation in January 1881. The contributions of the firm to this fund are equal in amount to the total annual contributions of the members. Such payment, however, the firm undertakes shall not be less than 100*l.* in any one year. The management of this fund, the rules of which were handed in to the Commission, is in the hands of a Committee, with a member of the firm as chairman. The firm of Chance Brothers acts as treasurer and the secretary is nominated by the chairman and approved by the committee. There are also two auditors and three "stewards," the duty of the latter being to "make a weekly visit in every case of disablement" and "report thereon to the general committee." The rules provide that committee meetings shall be held quarterly and at such other times as may be necessary. General meetings are held annually, and special general meetings are summoned by the secretary "on the "written requisition of not less than 25 members."

* This scheme has since been established. For further details see Appendix I., p. 334.

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., App. LIV. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 49. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 39. (4) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., App. XLI. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 179.

[§ 473.] It may be noted that the chairman has power to give a casting vote in the event of the votes of the committee being equally divided. In all cases of dispute between the committee and a member of the society the matter must be referred to arbitration. Two arbitrators are appointed, one by the committee and the other by the members with whom the dispute has arisen, and if they fail to agree an umpire is chosen by them. The decision of such arbitrators or umpire is held to be binding, and "in case either party neglect to appoint "an arbitrator" within a certain specified period the decision of the arbitrator appointed by the other party is "binding and conclusive on both parties." The rules may be added to, altered, or rescinded only by a special general meeting of the provident society as a whole, of which the accident fund forms an important branch. The subscriptions to and benefits granted by the fund are given in the following table:—

Contributions	1*d.* per week if above the age of 18. 1*d.* per fortnight if under the age of 18.
Benefits:—	
1. Temporary disablement	10*s.* per week, for period not exceeding 26 weeks. 5*s.* per week for further period not exceeding 26 weeks.
2. Permanent disablement	Committee has power to grant, at any time after accident takes place, a sum not exceeding 50*l.*, *in full discharge of all claims.*
3. Fatal accidents	If disablement allowance has not been already paid, 100*l.* If disablement allowance has been paid, the amount of such payment shall be deducted from the 100*l.* in case of death. N.B.—In the case of members under 18 years of age, one-half the above amounts shall be paid.

These benefits are only granted in the event of accidents which occur to workmen "while engaged in "the pursuit of their employment under the firm," and in accordance with certain conditions laid down in the rules. It may be noted that any recommendation on the part of the committee to increase the benefits or alter the payment must be submitted to a special general meeting, called for this purpose.(1) Another case of "contracting out" of the Employers' Liability Act, though of a totally different kind, was mentioned by the secretary of a district branch of the Gas Workers' Union. He produced a form of memorandum which had to be signed by anyone who desired to work in a certain firm, by which, in consideration of the undertaking of the employer "to effect a policy of insurance in some society for the benefit of the said workman . . at a reduced premium," he agreed in no case to make any "claim whatsoever upon the said employer "under the Employers' Liability Act."(2) The insurance of workmen against accidents by the employer in some way similar to that just referred to was stated by one witness to be not unpopular with the workmen so long as the compensation was specifically fixed, though the method of assessing contributions in one case without regard to the amount of the men's wage was regarded as unfair.(3) On the other hand, it was contended that the transference of the responsibility of the employers to any insurance society, unless guarded by an express clause, as in the case quoted by Mr. Emmett, was a method of "contracting out" of the Act and open to serious objections.(4)

Insurance.

474. The system of "joint insurance" on the part of the employers was strongly objected to by the men. This practice, it was stated, "did away . . . with "the whole spirit and object of the Act," and made the employer careless and indifferent as to the safety of the men, "took away the chief motive of careful supervision," and "shifted the responsibility off their "shoulders on to the insurance company for an annual "or quarterly payment." "It is cheaper (to the "employer), perhaps, to pay his insurance than to "look after his plant . . . ." "We do not really "want compensation for accident, we want a Bill that "will practically prevent accidents."(5) It was also urged on behalf of the builders, by whom, it may be noted, the chief objections on this point were brought forward, that employers' liability insurance associations were "far more difficult to negotiate with than "individual employers, some of whom are very honourable and humane." The former "generally offer "ridiculously low compensation, or compel legal proceedings, which they fight to the last." On the other hand, representatives of the master builders "strongly objected" to the "reckless statements" of the men with regard to "the indifference of the masters "as to their plant . . . the fault has been," as before stated, "with the carelessness of the men themselves."(1) The charge that the masters were careless of the lives of their workmen, in consequence of the system of insurance, and that they fought cases merely to try and "shirk responsibility," was regarded as "injurious" and untrue. The employers further insisted that the system of joint insurance was necessary in the case of "beginners in business and small "builders, because if they were unlucky enough to "have an accident they might very likely be ruined in "a moment."(2) "If there was no insurance com- "pany, and the employers could not insure, many of "the small men would never be able to pay any "compensation at all."(3) "We claim the right to "insure."(4)

[§ 474.]

Other grievances and suggested amendments.

475. Apart from the disputed points of "contracting out" and "insurance," various grievances were brought forward and certain amendments suggested with regard to the practical working of the Employers' Liability Act. The Act itself was attacked by several witnesses as "absolutely worthless" and "very defective." There "are too many loopholes for the employers to creep "out of"; "there are too many disqualifying condi- "tions which render the Act inoperative."(5) On the other hand, representatives of the stone masons and painters stated that a great improvement in appliances and plant of late years was directly due to the Employers' Liability Act.(6) In several cases it was complained that no compensation was voluntarily given by the employers in cases of accidents, while the obscurity of the Employers' Liability Act and the difficulty and expense attending legal proceedings hindered attempts to procure legal compensation under the Act. A representative of the printers stated that when an accident occurred in the shop the employer rarely paid the workman for the time he was out. "I have three "cases that have occurred in the last three weeks, "one a fatal case, in which they have refused to pay "anything in the way of compensation."(7) Another witness alleged that "compensation was unheard of in "the copper works." He recommended that "the Employers' Liability Act should be made much clearer ". . . so that the men should have an idea of "when and how they could claim compensation . . . "the men in the first instance cannot get hold of the "copies (of the Act), they are dear, and when they get "them they cannot understand them." The special difficulties of the unorganised workmen were also urged. "When they do not belong to the Union there "is no one to look after their interests."(8) "If a man "does not belong to a society he has no funds to back "him up, and no friends to advise him, and he does "not care to enter into these matters."(9) With regard to the expense attending prosecutions under the Act, one witness "remembered a case where a man obtained "compensation . . . and yet came out of court "with empty pockets."(10) Another difficulty appeared to be the possibility of an appeal against a "claim "allowed in a law court . . . It is almost an "impossibility for a workman to take it to a higher "court, and therefore he is defeated."(11) Evidence was also given as to the unsatisfactoriness of the Act on other points. The "period of notice" was stated to be "not long enough," and should be "much extended." The General Secretary of the Gas Workers' Union stated that under the existing law, if a man does not lay his claim within six weeks he is deprived of the benefits of the Act. "Now we have had several "men who have met with accidents, and on account of "these men being so severely injured, and having to lie "upon a bed of sickness over six weeks, they have not "been able to lodge their complaint, and the result is "when they are well again they are entirely outside "the scope of the Act."(12) A representative of the master builders, however, "strongly objected to extending the "notice as the man knows perfectly well when he has "met with an accident, but the master may not know. ". . . Our workmen are a class of men who move "about the country very much . . . and we lose "all knowledge of them. We are not able very "frequently to identify them again. Then again, too, "very many of them work under an assumed name."(13)

(1) Rules of Oldbury Alkali Works Provident Society. (2) Gardner, 28,143-5. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., App. LIX. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 97-8.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 180. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 180. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 180. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 96. Digest, Vol. III., p. 179. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 96-7. (7) Leahy, 27,534-5. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 24, 179. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 97. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 96. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 179. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 96. Digest, Vol. III., p. 179. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 180.

475.] The "doctrine of common employment" was a point which several witnesses "desired to see altered." They maintained "that as a workman has no control over "his fellow workman, however incompetent, the employer should be held responsible for the accidents "which one man may cause his mate."(1) But it was further suggested by a representative of the carpenters and joiners that they "would like to make the principal "contractor liable for the negligence of the servants of "his sub-contractor."(2) Finally, the "limit of compensation" was pronounced "inadequate," and a desire for its extension expressed.(3) Amendments in the law were advocated on all these points, but more especially on the subjects of "contracting out" and "insurance."(4) The chairman of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, however, although he desired these reforms, thought that a total repeal of the Act would be the best course of all. "I hold that the only "just and lasting settlement of the question is to place "the whole affair under the common law . . . I "do not want the workman to enjoy any peculiar "advantage over the rest of the community."(5)

6. SICK FUNDS AND CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT IN RESPECT OF HEALTH.

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Chemical workers.

476. Special complaints were made with regard to the unhealthy conditions of employment in the chemical, pottery, and baking trades, but, except in the pottery trade, the evidence given by employers and employed was of a contradictory nature.

(*a.*) The statements made by the representatives of the chemical workers, with three exceptions, were to the effect that the conditions of employment in that industry, and in particular in the bleaching powder department and the chrome branch of the trade, were very unhealthy. The workmen, it was said, suffer chiefly from bronchitis and asthma, and in the bleaching department they are in constant danger of asphyxia from the gas. One witness from the salt-cake branch of the trade stated that the average death-rate was higher than in any other industry, and that the conditions of work were such that no man could remain at it continuously. The white lead industry, which was said to be particularly harmful to the younger women, frequently leads in the men to partial or total paralysis.(6) Statements to a different effect were made by three of the workmen from the salt-cake and bleaching departments,(7) and by the chairman and district manager of the United Alkali Company.(8) They asserted that the chemical industry was, on the whole, a healthy occupation, that the statement that nearly all chemical workers suffered from bronchitis was not true, and that workmen employed in the bleaching-powder department were among the most healthy men in the trade. These statements were supported by the statistics of sickness in the alkali works at St. Helen's and at Hebburn, and by the statistics of mortality in various districts from which the following table has been drawn up.(9)

District and Class of Work.	Average No. of Days' Sickness per Member per Annum.	Average No. of Deaths per Thousand per Annum.
United Alkali Company—		
Tennants' Works, Hebburn, 1884-90—		
(i.) Total	10·37	11·42
(ii.) Vitriol and Sulphate Department	7·66	10·93
(iii.) Vitriol, Salt Cake, and Bleaching Powder Departments	7·88	12·19
(iv.) Ash and Soda Department	10·76	6·29
(v.) Bleaching Powder Department	8·09	13·44
(vi.) Mechanical Department (including Coopers)	11·85	16·79
St. Helen's district, 1889-92—		
(i.) Total	—	12·82
Widnes district for the last 10 years—		
(i.) Total	—	8·11*
Tyne and Scotland district for the last 10 years—		
(i.) Total	—	9·18
Manchester Unity of Oddfellows, 1887-91	—	13· 9
Ancient Order of Foresters, 1879-80, 1889-90—†		
England	10·28	11·91‡
Durham	14·44	15·22
Northumberland	12·43	12·41

* Compare Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix CI.
† The above four years are the only ones for which figures are given in the Foresters' Directory, 1891.
‡ This figure is said to be probably somewhat too low.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 96. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 98. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 36, 96. (4) Davies, 18,247. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 96. (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 49, 56. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 21, 22, 24, 25. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 25. (8) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 25-6. (9) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendices XCVI., XCVII., CII.

[§ 476 (*a.*)] The conclusions drawn from the figures given with regard to Tennants' Alkali Works at Hebburn—and "by analogy" Mr. Stuart states that they would apply "in all works where the same operations are carried on"—are to the following effect. "The rate of "mortality throughout the works, and in the three "departments where gaseous escapes are liable to "take place, is slightly less than the average ex-"perience of friendly societies," and "the number of "days' sickness per annum per member in the whole "works is about the same as the average of friendly "societies, whilst the sickness in three departments "where gaseous escapes are liable to take place is "actually about 23 per cent. less than the average of "friendly societies." With regard to the district of St. Helens, Mr. Wylde concludes "that the conditions "of health which affect the chemical operative are not "more unfavourable than those which obtain generally "throughout the different trades of the country."(1) Mr. Brock stated that this conclusion was true of the industry in general and not only of particular works. Although in the past there has been a great deal of difference in the mortality of men working in different works according as greater or less precaution was taken to preserve the health of the men, this is no longer the case. "Gradually," he stated, "the poorest "are being brought up to the level of the best."(2) The comparative mortality shown in the above table of chemical and other classes of workmen may perhaps be susceptible of a certain amount of explanation. Dr. Ogle, in his evidence before the Commission sitting as a whole, stated, as a possible explanation of the fact that miners are specially exempt from the disease of phthisis, that they are a "select body of men."(3) It would appear that a similar explanation might be afforded of the comparatively low rate of mortality in the chemical industry. "Of course it may be stated," said Mr. Brock, speaking of the men employed in the bleaching-powder department, "that the men "who are selected for that work are naturally strong "men; naturally you would not put a man to such "work who was delicate."(4) A further explanation may be found in a statement made by Mr. Mitchell. "Taking the per-centage of the men who keep working "at the chemical industry," this witness asserted that the average death-rate is much higher among chemical than among ordinary workmen, but "three-fourths of "them only apply themselves to it for a limited period "of their lives and then leave it." He added that, "as a general rule, the industry is pretty much com-"posed of young men."(5) This latter statement does not, however, stand uncontradicted. A list was handed in to the Commission of the number of men of 60 years of age and upwards employed in March 1892, at the St. Rollox Chemical Works in the Tyne district and in Scotland. These men had been employed at the works on an average for a period of 35½ years, and their average age at this date was 65½. In the list of deaths which had occurred at the same works between May 1884 and May 1892 the average age at death in the process departments was 58, and in the trades departments, 56.(6)

(*b.*) With regard to the unhealthy nature of the pottery trade, a pamphlet by J. T. Arlidge, M.D. and A.B. (Lond.), and F.R.C.P. (Lond.), on "The "Pottery Manufacture in its Sanitary Aspects," is printed as an Appendix to the third volume of the Minutes of Evidence. The most injurious of the materials used by the potter are Cornish stone, flint, and lead. "The mischief done" by the former materials "is progressive and slow, and consequently escapes "notice for a longer or shorter period, determined "materially by the impurity of the air breathed, and "by the habits, carefulness, and constitutional state "of the workers." Lead has "highly poisonous "properties." Generally speaking, the evils of lead poisoning are also of slow growth, but "one of the "most remarkable phenomena of the poison is its very "different activity in different persons." This may be accounted for partly by individual idiosyncracy, but Dr. Arlidge states that "in the majority of cases the "difference is to be explained on more obvious grounds, "existing in carelessness at work, indifference to "cleanliness in the person and clothing, in reckless "eating and drinking in the case of work, and in "wearing the clothing begrimed with glaze, whereby

(b.) Pottery trade

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III. Appendices XCVI. and XCVII. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 26. Brock, 32,413. (3) Minutes of Evidence taken before Commission as a Whole, question 1687. (4) Digest, vol. III., p. 26. Brock, 32,412. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 19, 20. Mitchell, 21,277-80. (6) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendices, CV., CVI.

[§ 476 (b.)] "the poison is carried to the homes. Lastly, ill-con- "structed, dirty, confined shops and want of free "ventilation contributes an important factor." It therefore appears that the dangerously unhealthy nature of the pottery trade might be to some extent improved by special care on the part of the work-people themselves, and by special regard to sanitary conditions on the part of the employers. At the present time, Dr. Arlidge states, the insanitary conditions under which the work is carried on are "largely contributory" to the serious consequences of the inhalation of dust. "Few workshops," he adds, "ap- "proach what, from a sanitary point of view, they "should be." Many are kept "in a dirty state," and they are frequently deficient both in cubic capacity and in means of ventilation. Dr. Ogle, in the Supplement to the 45th Annual Report of the Registrar-General, acknowledges that the potters' employment is "one of "the unhealthiest trades in the country." Their rate of mortality is only exceeded by that of the coster-mongers, Cornish miners, inn and hotel servants. "This excessive mortality is in greatest part due to "phthisis and diseases of the respiratory system, the "deaths from these two causes being represented by "1,118, while the number for all males is only 402; "so that the mortality under these two headings is "almost three times as great in this industry as among "average males."(1)

[§ 476 (c.)] (c.) *Baking trade.* The only other industry from which special complaints were made with regard to the unhealthy nature of the employment, is that of baking, and, as before stated, the evidence given is contradictory. The representatives of Bakers' Unions in Scotland and Ireland were of opinion that the industry was not healthy. Mr. O'Connor stated that, according to the Returns of the Registrar-General for Ireland, the average length of life of a baker was about 30 years. It was further stated that, although more than half the members of the Staffordshire Branch of the Amalgamated Union of Bakers are young men, in 1891 each member on an average had received two weeks' sick pay.(1) Representatives of the Master Bakers' Protection Society maintained, on the other hand, that the employment was not particularly unhealthy. "We have a good "many old operative bakers," Mr. Prior stated in support of this view. "If it is to be judged of from the "Journeymen's Pension Society, they have no lack "of candidates from 60 years of age that have worked "from 30 to 50 years in the bakehouse."(2)

Comparative mortality of males in industries under consideration.

477. The following table shows as completely as possible the comparative mortality of males, between the ages of 25 and 65, in the different industries under consideration. The mortality of clergymen, as the lowest mortality of all, is taken as the basis:—

COMPARATIVE MORTALITY of MALES, 25–65 Years of Age, in different Occupations, from all and several Causes (arranged in descending order) 1880–1–2.*

Profession or Trade.	Males from 25 to 65 Years of Age.													
	Comparative Mortality from all Causes.	Diseases of Nervous System.	Suicide.	Diseases of the Circulatory System.	Phthisis.	Diseases of the Respiratory Organs.	Diseases of the Urinary System.	Liver Diseases.	Other Diseases of the Digestive System.	Alcoholism.	Gout.	Plumbism.	Accident.	All other Causes.
Earthenware manufacture	3,133	252	†	288	851	1,160	88	88	61	14	—	18	43	270
Plumber, painter, glazier -	2,162	300	38	252	442	333	180	86	68	22	18	38	131	254
Printer - - -	1,926	162	14	167	829	299	54	50	58	5	—	9	43	236
All males (England and Wales).	1,799	214	25	216	396	327	74	70	68	18	5	2	121	263
Builder, mason, bricklayer	1,743	158	25	205	453	362	88	54	61	9	5	—	81	242
Baker, confectioner -	1,723	245	47	236	381	334	72	83	47	27	4	—	38	209
Carpenter, joiner - -	1,475	160	31	187	367	239	70	65	54	7	4	—	68	223
Grocer - - -	1,387	192	31	192	300	209	86	94	56	18	4	—	25	180
Clergymen, priest, minister	1,000	180	12	176	116	116	92	28	49	4	9	—	11	207

* Table D., handed in by Dr. Ogle, Superintendent of Statistics in the General Register Office. Minutes of Evidence before Commission as a Whole, question 1674.
† The deaths from suicide were not separated in this case from the deaths from nervous diseases.

It would appear from the above table that some trades, such as earthenware manufacture, plumbing, painting, and glazing, are especially unhealthy. The rate of mortality among printers is greater, and among builders and bakers only slightly less, than that of all males. The mortality of bakers, moreover, is considerably higher than that of carpenters and grocers. With regard to the special diseases connected with special trades, plumbers, painters, glaziers, printers, and earthenware manufacturers are subject to phthisis and diseases of the respiratory system. This is similarly the case, but in a somewhat less degree, with the builders, bakers, carpenters, and grocers. These diseases are caused either by impure air (*e.g.*, grocers and printers) or by the inhalation of dust (carpenters, bakers, builders, and earthenware manufacturers).(2)

Health of gas workers.

478. No information is given in this table with regard to the health of gas-workers, but this can be, to a certain extent, obtained from the Report of the Consulting Physician of the Gas Light and Coke Company, on the health of members of the Workmen's Provident Societies.(3) It is shown therein that the rate of sickness in the half year ending December 1888 averaged 2·49 per cent., and the number of deaths in the same period represented a death-rate of 8·8 per thousand per annum. The prevailing diseases in the period were rheumatism, catarrh, and bronchitis: 8,308 out of 9,540 men placed on the sick list were suffering from rheumatism, articular and muscular, 204 from catarrh and bronchial catarrh, and 114 from bronchitis. The consulting physician to the company, George Hastings, M.D., adds that "it is gratifying to be able "to report that the above per-centage appears to "demonstrate the fact that the health of men engaged "in the various occupations connected with the manu- "facture and distribution of gas is good; even com- "paring favourably with that of such a fine body of "men as the Metropolitan Police, whose rate of "sickness for the year 1887* was 2·9 per cent."

Sick funds.

479. Except in the gas, chemical, salt, and copper works, no mention is made of the existence of sick funds in the industries under consideration. Workmen's provident societies, supported by the joint contributions of employers and employed, have been established at the works belonging to the Gas Light and Coke Company. These are managed by local committees of the men at each station, and by a representative committee at the head office.(2) In 1842 a sick fund was started at the gasworks owned by the South Metropolitan Gas Company. The company guaranteed the stability of the fund, and added whatever sum was

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix LXXXIII. (2) Minutes of Evidence taken before Commission as a Whole, Tables E. and F. handed in by Dr. Ogle on the Third Day. (3) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XLVI.

* The last year for which the returns have been published.
(1) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 65, 68. Austin, 28,933-4. (2) Digest, Vol, III., p. 71. Prain, 29, 748. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 37, 43.

[§ 479.] necessary to secure its financial stability. This contribution amounted to 2*d.* a week for every 3*d.* contributed by the members.(1) From documents handed in by the representatives of the chemical industry it appeared that sick funds exist in connexion with 13 out of 16 chemical works in the Widnes district.(2) Membership in seven instances is compulsory. The management, generally speaking, is in the hands of the members themselves, and where a doctor is appointed in connexion with the fund this is also usually left to the members. The rules of the dispensary and burial funds in connexion with the Oldbury Alkali Works were handed in to the Commission. The former fund, which was started about 40 years ago is maintained "by the contributions of the workpeople, to "provide themselves and their families with medical "attendance and drugs, at a fixed weekly rate." The fund is managed by a committee consisting of all the foremen of the works, with one member of the firm as chairman. The firm act as treasurers, and nominate each year two or more duly qualified doctors for the ensuing year, whose appointment, when nominated, rests solely with the committee. The burial fund, which was established in 1870, is also managed by the dispensary committee. This fund is also maintained exclusively by the contributions of the workpeople themselves; but the convalescent cottage home, for the benefit of the persons employed at these works and their families is supported by subscriptions from the workpeople, supplemented by contributions from the firm. Membership of this provident society is one of the conditions of employment at the works.(3) The subscription to, and allowances granted by, the funds here under review are given in the following table. [§ 479.]

Table showing amount of Contributions and Benefits in the Societies under consideration.

Contributions and Benefits.	Workmen's Provident Societies. Chemical Works, Widnes District.(4).	Gas Light and Coke Company's Workmen's Provident Societies.(5)	South Metropolitan Gas Company's Sick Fund.(6)	Oldbury Alkali Works Provident Society.(7)
Weekly subscription	3*d.* to 9*d.*, in different societies.	6*d.*	3*d.*	*Dispensary Fund:* 1*d.* to 3*d.* per week according to wages earned. *Burial Fund:*— 1*d.* to 4*d.*, according to wages earned and scale of benefit.
Benefits	Sick allowance:— Varies from 7*s.* to 10*s.* a week; granted for six months usually. Less allowance for following six months. Funeral benefits: *Death of Member:* Varies from 4*l.* to 10*l.* *Death of Wife:* Varies from 4*l.* to 8*l.* *Death of Child:* Where granted, varies from 1*l.* to 5*l.* N.B.—Boys under 14 pay half contributions and receive half benefits.	Sick allowance:— 12*s.* a week in case of sickness or injury.	Sick allowance:— 12*s.* a week for three months, and 6*s.* a week for another three months. Medical attendance included. Funeral benefit: Granted partly by an additional levy, and partly out of fund. *Death of Member:* 12*l.* 10*s.* *Death of Wife:* 7*l.* 10*s.*	Sick allowance:— Medical attendance and medicine without further charge. Burial fund: Varies from 1*l.* 10*s.* for a child under 18 years and over seven days. old, to 5*l.* on death of workman of 21 years and upwards.

The Salt Union has no sick funds for the benefit of their workmen. Some of the separate salt works had at one time, it was stated, "workmen's benefit clubs"; "but there seemed a kind of reluctance on their part, "probably from want of organisation, to have any-"thing of a definite nature, and they divided every "Christmas everything they had, and started afresh." "We offered," Mr .Ward (a director of the Salt Union) added, "to put 100*l.* in the bank for them as a nucleus "to start the fund again before the Salt Union was "formed, but they would not accept it."(8) With regard to the lead workers, Mr. Shotton stated that the employers pay the doctor who examines the workmen, and in some instances employers are "very kind," but no regular provision is made for sickness. When men are from this cause away from work for more than three weeks the workmen make a contribution for them among themselves, and cases of sickness are so frequent that this contribution is a regular thing. But they "can hardly keep even (weekly benevolent "societies) going, the sickness is so great," and but few friendly societies will admit lead workers to membership.(9)

7. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

480. Certain matters to which reference was made in the evidence remain to be noted. These refer mainly to the question of apprenticeship and boy labour and the introduction of machinery.

481. Many complaints were made by representatives of this group of industries on the one hand, as to the decay of the old system of apprenticeship, which in London was said to be "almost obsolete," and the introduction of cheap and unskilled boy labour, and on the other, as to the undue number of apprentices allowed in certain trades. In the first case it was claimed that this had a bad result on the work and on the boys themselves, and in both cases complaint was made of the consequent increase in the pressure of competition. That the decay of the system of apprenticeship lowered the character of the work was insisted on by the majority of the witnesses, and especially by members of the building trade. Mr. Fenelon, a house-painter and decorator, attributed the inferior workmanship which he found in his trade to this cause. When youths served seven years, he stated, they obtained a thorough training, and were drawn from a better class than the workmen of the present time.(10) With regard to the evil effects of the loose system of apprenticeship on the boys themselves, the extremely unsatisfactory character of the training now usually received was witnessed to on all hands. Where the practice of "indentures" has died out and in certain miscellaneous industries where perhaps this more formal practice has never existed, boys are taken on by a mere verbal agreement, in many cases without the payment of fees.(11) The technical skill acquired under the old system of apprenticeship in certain trades is now impossible, and in less skilled trades this tendency to employ boy labour is stated to result in training that is both inferior and incomplete.(12) A representative of

Apprenticeship and boy labour.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (2) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XCVIII. (3) Rules of the Oldbury Alkali Works Provident Society. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 24. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XCVIII. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 43. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 45. (7) Rules of the Oldbury Alkali Works Provident Society. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 51. Ward, 21,103. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 22. Shotton, 21,839, 21,856-8. (10) Digest Vol. II., p. 41. (11) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 34, 54. (12) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 34, 45. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 55, 85, 96.

[§ 481.] those employed by grocers and provision dealers complained that numbers of lads were taken on as errand boys and allowed gradually to acquire a half knowledge of the trade.(1) It appeared further that the present system sometimes led to the underpayment of the boys, who were liable to be dismissed, it was stated, after an apprenticeship of a year or two. Thus, in times of depression a large amount of cheap unskilled labour was thrown on the market, and these lads "swell "the army of the unemployed."(2) The competition of boy with adult labour, and of apprentices with journeymen is, however, the main grievance. In the printing trade, where a definite system of apprenticeship seems still in vogue, disputes arise in connexion with the proportion of apprentices to journeymen. Various customs seem to prevail in the different associations of employed on this point, but the rules are not uniform.(3) Complaints were made that these rules were often disregarded in houses where Government printing was done, and that employers were constantly trying to increase the number of apprentices.(4) Some representatives of the printers, the secretary of the Association of Glass Bottlers, and witnesses from other industries contended that the excessive number of apprentices tends to overcrowd their industries and to cause the properly trained journeyman to be supplanted by inferior labour.(5) A shop assistant attributed the lowness of the wages of his class to the competition of half-trained youths whom the "employers soon con- "sidered proficient enough to displace qualified hands."(6) It must be noted that these complaints on the part of the employed were in some instances stated by the employers to be without foundation. A glass-bottle manufacturer objected to the restrictions placed by the men's Union on the number of apprentices, and stated that in 1891 there were not sufficient journeymen to meet the demands of the trade. Another union rule, whereby a boy who began one process in the trade when he was 16 was not allowed to begin another till he was 18, without regard to his fitness or unfitness, was regarded by the same witness as a hindrance to progress.(7) The Vice-President of the Metropolitan Grocers' and Provision Dealers' Association was of opinion that the statement that men were dismissed to make room for boy labour "might "mean anything or nothing," and asserted that there was a gradual and necessary system of promotion in all shops.(8) Various suggestions were made on the part of the men to remedy these grievances. Some recommended a revival of the old system of apprenticeship, by which youths should be indentured to a recognised master for a definite term of years. This would be a safeguard against the overcrowding of the labour market, and a guarantee for thorough training.(9) "If "the Painters' Company," said Mr. Patrick, would do "the same as the Plumbers' Company (10) have done, "and fix a standard of perfection, we should show the "public a better system of working together, invigorate "the trade, and bring back a means of living to "numbers of men who are practically unskilled work- "men, though nominally supposed to be skilled work- "men." In this case it was urged that the Painters' Company should undertake the functions which its character secured to it and see that every boy who [§ 481.] entered the trade was practically acquainted with his business. These boys should have free education in the technical colleges of the painting trade.(1) It was also proposed in certain industries to raise the age at which boys should be allowed to work, in others to forbid their employment on the ground of the unsuitability of the work.(2) As regards the alleged excessive number of apprentices in certain trades, a desire was expressed amongst the printers, cabinet-makers, and glass bottlers for a stricter limitation of the number in the proportion of one (apprentice) to three (journeymen), one to four, and four to five respectively.(3)

Machinery. 482. The introduction of machinery is deprecated by a certain number of witnesses in this group mainly on the ground that it has considerably lessened the number of the men employed in various trades. A representative of the carpenters and joiners stated that it had so lessened the demand for labour that in Dublin 10 per cent. of the carpenters had emigrated,(4) while a representative of the coopers affirmed that not only had a third of the men in his trade been thrown out of employment from this cause, but that the remainder were reduced to the position of unskilled labourers on much lower wages.(5) A brickmaker complained that the substitution of machine-made for hand-made bricks had resulted in a great displacement of labour and in the production of an inferior quality of bricks.(6) It was objected that the introduction of machinery in some gasworks had resulted in the loss of the eight-hours day which had been enjoyed for 12 years, because the machines were unable to do the work in that time. The witness further stated as his belief that this step had not been altogether salutary, because the price of gas in these works was now higher than it was in some other works where machinery was not used.(7) A gas manager admitted that in one case the use of machinery had resulted in the dismissal of 60 per cent. of the men. This change, however, he argued, had been brought about largely in consequence of strikes.(8) In reference to the "composing machines" now used in the printing trade, a printer remarked that in his opinion "the hand compositor "was the cheaper workman."(9) In consequence of the displacement of skilled labour by the substitution of machinery, it was suggested by one witness that where machinery was used it should be taxed, and by another that its use should be accompanied by a curtailment of the hours of labour.(10) On the other hand, it was urged by Mr. Moore, a representative of the building trades, and by Mr. Brough, a mason, that the introduction of machinery had afforded great relief from mechanical drudgery and heavy manual labour, while a gas manager pointed out that the stokers' work had thereby been rendered far less hot and arduous.(11) A member of the Cork United Trades Council stated that the artisans in that district did not offer any opposition to the introduction of machinery, while another witness regarded any question as to the value as "obsolete."(12) Various witnesses denied that trade had suffered in consequence, and some representatives of the printers asserted that as many or more men were now employed and that wages were higher.(13)

B. ORGANISATIONS.

1. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS, ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED AND JOINT BOARDS.

I. Building, Printing, and Cognate Trades. Organisations of employers.

483. Oral and written information has been received from the Central Association and 25 branches of the National Association of Master Builders of Great Britain, the Association of Master Painters in Scotland, the Glasgow Master Plasterers' Association, the Master Masons' Association of Glasgow and Vicinity, and the Glasgow Master Wrights' Association; and the rules of the Yorkshire Master Printers' and Allied Trades' Association were forwarded to the Commission.

(a.) *Date of formation and extent.*

(a.) The Master Masons' Association of Glasgow was formed in 1861, and now numbers 43 members, embracing railway contractors and builders. Seventy-eight employers are still unconnected with the Association, which is confined to Glasgow and the neighbourhood. Its members employ about 3,000 persons in all, including "about 2,200 operative masons, and 800 masons' "labourers, with a fluctuating number of railway "navvies."(14) The Glasgow Master Plasterers' Association was formed in the year 1869. The central association* of the National Association of Master Builders was established in 1878 as "the outcome of "the Manchester strike in 1877."(15) The National Association itself extends from Inverness to Truro, and has a membership of about 1,300 employers, embracing "all the large contractors of the country." It does not, however, admit "speculative builders" to membership. The date of establishment of the various branches, where mentioned, ranges from 1866 to 1891. No further information has been received with regard to the date of establishment of the Associations under review.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94. (2) Digest. Vol. II., pp. 34, 45. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 63 and 74. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 54, 55, 60, 62, and 63. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 56, 60, 63. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 61, 63, 74. (6) James, 31,026. (7) Digest, Vol III., p. 77. (8) Digest, Vol. III. p. 77. (9) Digest. Vol. II., pp. 34, 38, 52. (10) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. II., Appendix XXXIX.

* The term "central association" is here applied (see Tabulated Rules, No. 409) to the central administration of the National Association, the head quarters of which are in Liverpool. It must be noted, however, that in the oral evidence it is stated that "the National "Association is the parent association, and the central association is "that which represents London only." See Baird, 31,975.

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 23, 77, and 55, 85. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 60 and 45. Digest, Vol. III., p. 74. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 34. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 55. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 40. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 47. (9) Slatter, 22,815. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 51, 56. (11) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 36, 38. Digest, Vol. III., p. 47. (12) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 53, 36. (13) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 38, 53. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 59, 60. (14) Digest, Vol. I. p. 38. Macgregor, 18,009. (15) Digest, Vol. II., p. 48. Knox, 18,438

[§ 483(a).] Constitution and government.

(b.) The associations are governed by an Executive Council, Committee, or Board of Management. In addition to the committee-men the principal officers are the president, treasurer, and secretary. As a general rule from one to four vice-presidents and one or two auditors are also appointed. The secretary frequently receives some payment for his services. Committee and general meetings are held monthly, quarterly, or at shorter intervals if necessary, and there is in most cases a half-yearly or yearly general meeting, at which the election of officers takes place. A simple majority of votes usually decides any question before the association, but it is sometimes required that important matters, such as a lock-out, shall receive the approval of two-thirds, three-fourths, or four-fifths of the members present. The voting power of members on such matters varies in proportion to the number of men in their employment. All members of firms affiliated to the associations are entitled to attend the meetings, but it is sometimes stated that only one member of a firm may vote. Alterations in the rules can only be made at a general meeting, of which from seven days to two months' notice must have been given to each member. Generally speaking, the proposed alterations must be specified in such notice.

Entrance fees and contributions.

(c.) An entrance fee is only mentioned in the rules of four of the associations in question; in these it ranges from 1*l.* to 2*l.* 2*s.* Members are generally required to give from three to twelve months' notice of intended resignation, and in some cases this notice is only accepted at a certain period before the annual general meeting; the rules of several associations provide that any member may be expelled by a majority of votes at a general meeting. The amount of the annual subscription varies considerably in the different societies. Sometimes a fixed sum is paid, which ranges from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 1*l.* 1*s.*, in others the subscription varies with the number of men employed. Thus in the Manchester and Salford branch of the National Association of Master Builders the annual subscription ranges from 1*l.* for employers of less than ten men to 50*l.* for those employing 400 men and upwards. In most of these associations a levy can be raised at any time if necessary. It is stated in the rules of a few societies that members "in arrears" are not entitled to vote at meetings, and if they continue "in arrears" for longer than a certain period, which varies from three months to two years, they are liable to exclusion.

Benefits.

(d.) No benefits appear to be granted by the majority of these associations, but in the Cardiff branch of the National Association of Master Builders provision is made that members in need of pecuniary assistance shall inform the secretary, who must summon a meeting to consider the case. A benevolent association has been established in connexion with the Portsmouth branch, but the rules of this fund are distinct from those of the association.

Dispute regulations.

(e.) The rules of the Glasgow Master Plasterers' and the Glasgow Master Wrights' Associations and the Cambridge branch of the National Associations of Master Builders contain no regulations with regard to trade disputes. In the other societies it is generally stated that members must endeavour to arrange all differences by arbitration or other peaceful means. In the event of a strike the members concerned must at once inform the secretary, who summons a special meeting to consider the dispute. It may be noted that, at such meeting, the number of votes to which members are entitled varies in accordance with the number of men in their employment. Should the dispute only concern one branch of the trade, a meeting is called of the employers engaged in that branch alone. In several associations it is stipulated that no lock-out can be declared without the consent of a certain specified majority which ranges in the various societies from two-thirds to four-fifths. Members of the Newport branch of the National Association of Master Builders may not make or agree to any proposition during a strike without the sanction of their association, and in a few cases it is stipulated that if the men employed by one member come out on strike, no other member shall employ them during the course of such strike. A black-list is circulated from time to time by the Yorkshire Master Printers' and Allied Trades Association. The separate working rules agreed upon by representatives of the associations of employers and employed frequently contain provision for the settlement of disputes by conciliation or arbitration.

Other regulations.

(f.) Almost all the associations have some regulations concerning the conditions of employment. No member, generally speaking, may make any alterations in the established rate of wages, rules, or customs which regulate his relations with the men in his employment without the consent of a special meeting of the association. Members are frequently not allowed to negotiate on matters relating to trade with the associations of the employed, but are obliged to make all communications through the secretary. Members are otherwise bound not to take advantage of their fellow members in any way. Thus in the Bradford branch of the National Association of Master Builders, and the Association of Master Painters of Scotland, apprentices who have left the employer to whom they were indentured cannot be employed by another member without the consent of their former master, and in several branches of the National Association of Master Builders it is provided that no member may accept a contract which has been declined by another member, unless the Committee considers the objection untenable, nor may he sign a legal contract which does not contain a strike clause. The Yorkshire Master Printers' and Allied Trades' Association provides a workmen's labour registry. [§ 483 (f.)]

Objects.

(g.) The objects of these associations are principally concerned with the interests of the trade as such. They aim at collecting and spreading statistics and other information of importance to the development of the trade, at enabling members to deal as a body with questions relating to wages, hours, and other conditions of employment, and at bringing about the amicable arrangement of trade disputes. Most of the builders' associations further wish to obtain the recognition by architects and other persons of a fair form of contract between builders and customers, and, generally speaking, the associations express a wish to co-operate with kindred societies throughout the country.(1) (g. Objects

Organisations of employed.

484. The rules of 113 associations of employed in the building, printing, and cognate trades have been received by the Commission. Of these 59 are connected with building, including cabinet-makers, upholsterers, coachmakers, and coopers, and 54 with the paper making, printing, and book-binding trades.* The central association and 17 branches of the Mutual Association of Coopers are included in the former group. Among the Printers' Unions there are 23 branches of the Typographical Association, and 10 of the Scottish Typographical Association. Oral and written information has also been furnished by a number of other societies in the building trade, including the London Building Trades Committee, the Cork United Building Trades Society, and various branches of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, the Operative Stonemasons' Friendly Society, and the Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association.

(a.) Date of formation and extent. (i.) Building and cognate trades.

(a.) (i.) The United Operative Masons' Association of Scotland was established in 1831† and reconstituted in 1852. It extends throughout the whole of Scotland, and has affiliated to it 62 branches numbering 3,848 members in all, or about one-half of the workmen employed in the trade. The society is especially strong in Glasgow, where the membership was said to have doubled during the year 1891. Mr. Brough stated that the number of unionists in this district was 1,700 as compared with 500 non-unionists. Between 200 and 300 of the latter work practically on the same footing as unionists, but are disqualified for membership by their age.(2) The United Kingdom Society of Coachmakers was established in 1834.‡ Ninety per cent. of the persons engaged in the trade in Lancashire and Yorkshire are unionists, but in the West Midlands and in the South the majority of workers are non-society men, and in London its membership only numbers about 400. In this latter district the membership decreased in 1879 in consequence of a lock-out, but between 1881 and 1891 more than 1,000 new members were enrolled. Mr. Waldron stated that there were "two or three" other societies in London, with a membership of 200 or 300, but that in the provinces the United Kingdom Society was practically the only association. It has "between 50 and 60 members "scattered all over South Africa and other places." About one-third of the members are smiths, and two-thirds workers in wood.(3) The Operative Bricklayers'

* The Society of Women employed in the Upholstery Trade is dealt with in the Summary on The Employment of Women (*see* Appendix III., p. 472). For the rules of the London United Trade Committee of Carpenters and Joiners, *see* Appendix II. to this Summary on p. 334.

† It may be noted that in the oral evidence the date of establishment is given as 1832. Digest, Vol. II., p. 37.

‡ The oral evidence stated that the Society was formed about 1825. Digest, Vol. II., p. 53.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 400-432, 439. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 37. (3) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 53-4. Waldron, 20,217.

[§ 484 (a.) (i.)] Society was formed in 1848; in 1891 it had 214 branches, of which 34 were in the London district, and numbered more than 17,000 members.(1) This Association is quite distinct from the United Operative Bricklayers' Trade, Accident, and Burial Society of Great Britain and Ireland, which on account of its immediate connexion with Manchester is "commonly called" the Manchester Order of Operative Bricklayers. It had 82 branches in 1891, and numbered more than 2,000 members. The date of establishment is not stated.(2) The National Association of Operative Plasterers dates from 1860. It extends throughout the United Kingdom, and has 125 branches with a total membership of 5,600.(3) It was stated that the society is better organised in the provincial towns than in London, where only about 2,500 out of 9,000 or 10,000 plasterers are members. The Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners was established in the same year; only "small local societies" existed previously. The head-quarters of the association were originally in London, but were transferred to Manchester. At the close of the first year 618 members had been enrolled, and the assets were 321*l.* In 1891 the society numbered 541 branches throughout the United Kingdom, with a membership of 33,533 ordinary, and 1,246 trade members;(4) and with assets amounting to 66,359*l.* Branches have also been established in the Colonies and the United States. This it was stated is by far the strongest society in the building trade.(5) "One or two local unions" existed in Scotland before the formation of the Society of Associated Carpenters and Joiners in 1861. This union was at first confined to Scotland, but in 1891 out of 105 branches 15 were established in England and 2 in Ireland. These include Englishmen and Irishmen among their members, but were founded mainly for the convenience of Scotchmen who had left their own country. The total membership of the Society is about 5,800. Including the members of the Scotch branches of the Amalgamated Society, about 7,000 of the carpenters and joiners in Scotland are unionists. It was stated that the number of unionists in Scotland was increasing; but that this society was not now extending so rapidly as in former years.(6) In 1865 the Alliance Cabinet-Makers' Association was instituted. It has 68 branches, of which 60 are in England, 5 in Scotland, and 3 in Ireland, and a total membership of 6,500.(7) Several other associations of cabinet-makers exist, of which the Amalgamated Union, established in 1832, is the most important; but less than 15,000 out of between 70,000 and 80,000 cabinet-makers throughout the United Kingdom are unionists. In London, where 20,000 or 25,000 persons are employed in this industry, only about 3,000 belong to any union.(8) In 1865 the United Operative Plumbers' Association of Great Britain and Ireland was formed by the amalgamation of several smaller societies. Between 1879 and 1891 the membership increased from 2,500 to 5,500, and it was stated that a further development had taken place since 1891. The total expenditure in 1891 was about 7,700*l.*, of which nearly 3,280*l.* was required for working expenses. The society had in that year 124 branches, a large number of which are in Scotland. In this district there is also a local union which was established in 1872 under the title of the United Operative Plumbers' Association of Scotland, and which in 1891 numbered about 380 members.(9) The central association of the Mutual Association of Coopers was established in 1878. The Mutual Association itself extends throughout the United Kingdom, and is an amalgamation of 28 local societies. The total membership of the affiliated societies is 5,868.(10) The National Amalgamated Society of House and Ship Painters and Decorators was established in its present form in 1886. It then had 25 branches and 1,305 members, and now includes 67 branches and 4,100 members. It was stated that in Manchester and the immediate district "there are "very few non-society men as painters."(11) In 1891 the income of the society was 6,362*l.*, and the balance in hand at the end of the year nearly 6,087*l.* This society has no branches in London, where there are, however, "about 12 or 14" societies of painters, of which the Amalgamated Society of House Decorators and Painters, established in 1873, is one of the best organised.(1) The painters' associations in London have been recently formed "into one organisation for "trade purposes" only.(2) The Cork United Building Trades Society, an association of carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, and plasterers, was organised in 1890, but the separate societies in these four branches of the trade were stated to "have had some sort of existence "for hundreds of years," and to be "relics of the old guilds."(3) The date of formation is not given for the other societies included under this group. The Friendly Society of Operative Stonemasons extends throughout the United Kingdom, and in the year 1891 had established 314 branches. In 1874 the society numbered about 27,000 members, including both trade and sick members, and in 1877 the total membership had risen to 34,000*l.* Owing to depression in trade, and the "great struggle" during the building of the Law Courts, the members fell off; and it was stated that the total number belonging to the society is now about 16,000; but the witness added "we have been "picking up of late years about 100 a fortnight, 100 "to 150."(4) The Operative Brickmakers' Society of Nottingham is a purely local association, and numbers 150 members. Mr. Corbett stated that at one time none of the members could read or write, and had to employ a man unconnected with the trade as secretary. Many of the older men are even now illiterate.(5) The Lath Renders' Branch of the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers in London has a membership of about 83, out of "some 250" workers. Mr. Brooks stated that the lath renders were not bound by the rules of the Gas Workers' Union, but were merely affiliated to it.(6) Before the lock-out in 1891 the General Union of Mill Sawyers in London numbered about 400 members. This number was afterwards reduced to 25. Mr. Copsey stated in December 1892 that the membership had risen to 200; and "we "are adding members to the books at the rate of about "10 a week," and "bid fair to get them all back again." In the East End alone about 4,000 men are engaged in the trade.(7)

[§ 484 (a.) (i.)]

(ii.) Printing and cognate trades.

(*ii.*) The London Printing Machine Managers' Trade Society, established in 1839, now includes about 1,500 members out of a total number of 1,800 engaged in the trade.(8) The Typographical Association was formed in 1849. At the present time it has affiliated to it 99 branches in England, Wales, and Ireland, with a total membership of about 10,500, representing all departments of letter press printing. The funds of the society amount to rather more than 30,000*l.*, of which 8,700*l.* are set aside for superannuation benefit. The organisation is weak amongst the employed in the south and south-west counties of England, but it was stated that where branches have been established "at least "four-fifths of the men in the trade" are members. At Oxford nearly all the men employed at the Clarendon Press are unionists, but Mr. Slatter asserted that the society had no connexion with the Pitt Press, and he believed that there was not "a single member "in Cambridge town." The only independent society of any importance in the provinces is the one which is in existence at Leeds.(9) The Scottish Typographical Association extends throughout the whole of Scotland, includes 29 branches, and has a total membership of 2,700. The Glasgow Branch, established in 1817, has a membership of 1,100 or 1,200, that is, "fully ninety-"five per cent." of the men engaged in the trade. Between 1872 and 1891 the society spent 9,409*l.* on strikes.(10) In 1880 the Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers was formed. It extends throughout the United Kingdom, and has a membership of about 2,500. It was stated that in the provinces the proportion of unionists to all the men in the trade was 75 or 80 per cent.; in London "it is an unknown quantity," probably not more than 50 per cent.(11) The Printers' Labourers' Union and the Lithographic Stone and Zinc Preparers' Society were both founded in 1889. The former includes 1,400 members. Mr. O'Grady stated that at present only a few members are employed in newspaper offices, because the wages paid there are higher than the minimum required by the union, but, he added, "we are framing another rule for them, "and in a few months we shall have them all in the "society."(12) The Lithographic Stone and Zinc Pre-

(1) Fifth Report on Trade Unions, p. 6. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 39. Emmett, 19,267 (see list of Errata), 19,366. Fifth Report on Trade Unions, p. 6. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43. Fifth Report on Trade Unions, p. 6. (4) Fifth Report on Trade Unions, p. 6. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 34. Beveridge, 17,675-6. Fifth Report on Trade Unions, p. 42. (7) Ham, 19,737. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 44. (8) Ham, 19,741. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 43. Anderton, 19,177. Fifth Report on Trade Unions, pp. 11, 13, 42. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 54. (11) Sunley, 18,999.

(1) Phillips, 19,144, 19,150. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 42. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 46. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 39. Stirk, 19,527. Fifth Report on Trade Unions, p. 10. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 40. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 14. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. Copsey, 33,538, 33,597. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 57. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 55. Slatter, 22,771, 22,871. (10) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 59, 60. Johnstone, 27,114. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. Kelley, 22,600. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 57. O'Grady, 28,472.

parers' Society, which is confined to London, numbers 170 members out of a possible 200 or 250.(1) Information was not given as to the date of formation of the London Society of Compositors and the National Union of Paper Mill Workers. The former society has a membership of 9,450 and admits to membership persons engaged in the "newspaper, book, and general jobbing "work."(2) The National Union of Paper Mill Workers, which is strongest in Lancashire and the Midlands, has members "all over Scotland and the "North of England." Out of 42,000 or 45,000 workers in the trade, 2,600 are members of the Union.(3)

(*b.*) In the majority of these associations the supreme government is vested in a General Council, or in a general or delegate meeting or conference. An Executive Council, Committee, or Committee of Management is appointed to conduct the ordinary business of the society. The principal officers are a president, chairman, or in the Ancient Guild of the Incorporated Brick and Stonelayers' Trade Union, a master, a secretary, and treasurer. In several societies these officers or the committee-men have charge of the funds, but generally speaking, trustees are elected for this purpose. Their number varies greatly: thus, the United Operative Masons' Association of Scotland has three trustees of the working fund, and sixteen of the sinking fund. Four trustees are elected by the United Operative Plumbers' Association to represent England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland. In a few societies a banking or finance committee, which usually consists of three members, is appointed instead of, or in addition to, the trustees. The accounts are generally submitted to one or more auditors specially appointed, but in the Amalgamated Cabinet Makers' Society and a few others they are audited by any branch other than the seat of government. In almost all cases the president, secretary, and treasurer receive some payment for their services, the amount of which varies according to the size of the union and the amount of work which falls to their share. The larger societies are divided up into branches and lodges, or "chapels," as they are called in the printers' associations. These chapels are managed by a "father" and "clerk." The government of districts, branches, or lodges is, generally speaking, similar to the central management, but on a smaller scale. Committees or Councils and various officers are elected, and in many societies the rules of the central association are binding on the branches. In other cases, as in the Mutual Association of Coopers, the districts and branches have distinct rules for their own administration. Meetings of the Central Executive, and of the branch and district Committees, are held at stated intervals, usually every week or fortnight, but this period varies considerably in the different associations. The General Council, general or delegate meeting, or conference, is held annually in the majority of the societies, but in other cases the intervals between the ordinary meetings vary from three months to four years. In addition to the fixed meetings it is generally provided that special meetings may be called when necessary. According to the rules of certain associations the voting power of delegates varies in proportion to the number of members they represent. A simple majority of votes is sufficient to decide ordinary questions, but the rules frequently provide that certain matters must be approved by a majority of two-thirds or three-fourths. In the event of the votes being equal, the presiding officer generally has the casting vote, sometimes in addition to a deliberative vote. Generally speaking, all disputes between members of the associations must be first brought before the branch or district Committee, and thence referred, if necessary, to higher bodies. No appeal is, however, allowed from the decision of the General Council, general or delegate meeting, or conference. It is laid down in the rules of several societies that disputes must be referred to arbitration; some appoint a permanent body of arbitrators at stated intervals, others elect them when necessary. Generally speaking, proposed alterations in the rules, of which due notice must be given, are referred to a general or delegate meeting, and a few societies provide for the establishment of a special Committee of revision. A majority of two-thirds or three-fourths is required before any benefits can be annulled.

(*c.*) Owing to the highly skilled character of most of the industries connected with the building and printing trades, certain conditions with regard to wages, period of apprenticeship, &c., have to be fulfilled by new members. Generally speaking, candidates for membership must have served a regular apprenticeship, which varies in the different societies from three to seven years, or they are required to prove that they have worked at the trade for a certain period, which ranges from six months to seven years. The rules of several associations stipulate that members must, in addition, be earning the current rate of wages. In many cases no person below or above a certain specified age can be admitted to full membership. The amount of the entrance fee, where stated, ranges from 1*s.* to 5*l.* in the different unions, and in some societies varies with the age of the candidate at the time of admission, the time which has elapsed since the expiration of his apprenticeship, or, in the Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Artists, Designers, and Writers, Copperplate and Wood Engravers, with the benefits to which he desires to be entitled. As a general rule, apprentices are admitted free, and where this is not the case they almost invariably pay a lower fee than journeymen. The rate of contributions also varies considerably, but not to the same extent as the entrance fees. In many cases different rates are paid according to the age of the members, the benefits which they desire to receive, or the wages which they are earning. The contribution to the Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association varies with the standard wages of the town. Generally speaking, the contribution ranges from 6*d.* to 1*s.* a week for ordinary members, but in a few associations it is as low as 2*d.* Members entitled only to trade benefits pay a lower rate than full members, and apprentices usually pay half the ordinary rates. It is frequently stated in the rules that additional levies can be raised when necessary. Generally speaking, members "in arrears" for more than a certain specified period are liable to a small fine, are suspended from benefits, or are even excluded from the association.

(*d.*) It must be noted that in considering the number of benefit funds allowed by these associations the benefits granted by the central association of a large society, which are usually mentioned in the rules of the branches, have been counted once only. In the branches themselves account has only been taken of benefits granted in addition to, or instead of, those allowed by the central rules. The total number of benefit funds provided by 113 associations, the rules of which have been forwarded to the Commission, is 389. These have been tabulated as follows:—

TABLE of Benefits granted by Associations of Employed in Building, Printing, and Cognate Trades.

—	Building and Cognate Trades.	Printing and Cognate Trades.	Totals.
Number of associations	59	54	113
Funeral benefit	50	22	72
Dispute benefit	47	14	61
Travelling benefit	27	29	56
Out-of-work benefit	30	20	50*
Sick benefit	30	13	43
Distress benefit	24	11	35
Superannuation benefit	20	11	31
Accident benefit	24	1	25
Emigration benefit	5	11	16
Totals	257	132	389

* It was stated in the oral evidence that the United Operative Plumbers' Association provides out-of-work benefit in addition to the benefits mentioned in the rules. Digest, Vol. II., p. 43.

Funeral benefit is paid in a lump sum, the amount of which frequently varies according to the length of membership, or, in other societies, according to the rate of contributions. In many cases this benefit is also paid on the death of a member's wife. In some unions this amount is subtracted from that payable on the member's own death, but in others it is allowed in addition to this sum. It may be noted that although some associations only grant this benefit in the case of one wife, others grant it for a second, provided that a small registration fee has been paid. In several unions a member's widow may receive funeral benefit, on condition of paying a small contribution, which is usually 1*s.* a quarter. Some associations allow a certain sum on the death of a member's children. Unmarried members

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 54. (2) Digest, Vol. III. p. 56. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 80.

[§ 484 (d.)] in a few societies are allowed benefit on the death of one parent. In several cases, as in the Lithographic Stone and Zinc Preparers' Society, a general levy is raised on the death of a member, in order to prevent the funds from being exhausted by frequent claims. Dispute benefit takes the form of a daily or weekly allowance, the amount of which sometimes varies according to the length of membership or rate of contributions. In some cases it is given for a specified number of weeks, in others no limitation is mentioned. Three societies, in addition to the ordinary dispute allowance, grant a small sum for each child under a certain age. "Victimised" members generally receive an allowance equal to the wages they were earning at the time of dismissal. The amount paid in the form of dispute benefit is not always stated in the rules, and is sometimes left to the discretion of the Committee. Legal assistance is frequently provided when necessary. The rules of a few societies provide that no dispute benefit shall be granted if the funds are below a certain minimum. It appears from the above table that travelling benefit is allowed by a very large proportion of these societies. This is due to the fact that it is the only local benefit granted by many branches of the typographical associations. In the majority of these unions travelling benefit is paid in a lump sum, in others it takes the form of a daily allowance, or members receive a small sum, usually 1*d.*, for each mile that they travel in search of work. The amount given frequently varies according to the length of membership, and in the Hull branch of the Typographical Association, married members receive double the benefit granted to single men. The rules of several associations further provide that when work is found for members at a distance, their fare shall be advanced. Out-of-work benefit is paid, usually for a limited period, as a weekly allowance, the amount of which frequently varies according to the length of membership, the rate of contributions, or the state of the funds. Sick benefit is, generally speaking, paid on the same principle as out-of-work benefit. The sums allowed as distress benefit, which is usually granted in these associations in the case of loss of tools by fire, are proportioned to the loss, and sometimes vary with the circumstances of the member who claims relief. In order to be entitled to superannuation benefit, members must generally have attained to a certain age, and have belonged to the society for a certain specified number of years. A few associations, however, grant this benefit to any member, irrespective of age, if incapable of supporting himself. It is almost invariably paid in the form of a weekly pension, but in the Operative Bricklayers' Protective and Friendly Association of Scotland the gift of a lump sum is optional. A few societies provide that not more than a certain number of members may be in receipt of superannuation benefit at one time. Members who are temporarily disabled by accident generally receive a weekly allowance until their recovery; should the disablement prove permanent, a lump sum is usually paid to enable them to set up in another trade. In the Friendly Society of Operative Stonemasons this sum ranges from 10*l.* to 100*l.* according to the member's age on entry. Legal assistance is also granted if necessary by a few societies. Emigration benefit is paid in the form of a lump sum, and frequently varies according to the length of membership of the recipient. The Bookbinders' and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union does not provide this benefit for more than eighteen persons in one year. The United Brotherhood of Paper makers only allows one person in each quarter to receive emigration benefit, and each emigrant must have been a free member for 13 years, and not have received any benefit for a longer period than three months. Members of the Belfast Coopers' Trade Union must refund the moneys allowed to them if they return within two years.

(e.) Dispute regulations. (*e.*) The rules of thirty-two of the associations under review contain no special regulations with regard to disputes with employers. In several other cases only very short directions are given. Thus, the rules of the Fret Lead Glaziers' and Cutters' Union merely provide that disputes between masters and men shall be investigated by the Council. Some of the larger societies, however, are bound by elaborate regulations in the management of trade differences. It is usually stated that all possible means of amicable arrangement must be exhausted before resort is had to a strike. Arrangements are made for sending single delegates or deputations to confer with the employer or his representatives, and to try to obtain a settlement by means of conciliation or arbitration. Even in cases when the employer refuses to accept proposals for arbitration or conciliation, members are rarely allowed to strike unless this measure is approved by a majority of two-thirds, or, in a few associations, of three-fourths, of the members present at a special general meeting. To enforce the observance of this rule it is sometimes stated that members who leave work on their own responsibility shall receive no support from the funds, and in a few cases they are expelled from the association. In several unions branch Committees are authorised to permit a strike in connexion with certain questions, but generally speaking the consent of the Executive or general meeting, or both, is necessary. It is required by the rules of several associations that disputes which the branch or district Committees fail to settle must be referred to the Executive Council or general meeting. When a strike has been declared, a strike Committee is frequently appointed to conduct the strike and report on its progress from time to time to the general secretary. In the rules of the National Amalgamated Society of Operative House and Ship Painters and four other associations it is stated that the Executive Council is empowered to declare a strike closed at any time. It may be noted that the dispute regulations of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners present a strong contrast to those of the Fret Lead Glaziers' and Cutters' Union mentioned above. In the former society a Managing Committee for the guidance of trade movements can be elected for one year with the consent of a majority of the members present at a general meeting called for the purpose. The branches are represented on this Committee by three or more delegates, in proportion to their membership. In towns and districts where there is more than one society, United Trade Committees may be formed, consisting of representatives of the various societies. Separate Managing Committees are not established where the United Trade Committees have been formed. When an extension of privileges is sought by a branch, the Executive can appoint delegates to visit the locality. If the branch affected is in the district of the central office, the Executive must receive notice of the consent of the General Council within one week, otherwise a strike cannot be declared. In all cases of dispute, the Managing Committee must obtain the sanction of the Executive or district Committee, and must then communicate with the employers and try to arrange an amicable settlement. When more than ten men are on strike, a Strike Committee must be appointed from and in proportion to their number. No strike can take place without the sanction of the Executive, which has power at any time to declare the strike at an end. A few associations have further regulations for the conduct of their members during and after a dispute. Thus the Glasgow Operative Glaziers' Trade and Friendly Society and the Scottish National Federation of House and Ship Painters punish with suspension, at the discretion of the Committee, any member who supplants another who has been discharged for refusing to work below the minimum wage. Members of the Fret Lead Glaziers' and Cutters' Union who work in a shop which the society considers "unfit" are fined, suspended, or expelled. With the rules of the Amalgamated Association of Pressmen a list of shops is given, where members may not work before they have consulted the secretary, and the Mutual Association of Coopers issues in a special circular a black list of members who persistently work in a shop which the society has declared to be closed. The rules of the Operative Masons and Stone-Cutters Society provide that non-members who accommodate an employer in opposition to the society shall be dealt with as it may decide.

[§ 484 (e.)]

(f.) Other regulations. (*f.*) Various other regulations are contained in the rules of most of these societies respecting the behaviour of members towards their employers, towards non-unionists, and in the performance of their work. In several cases working rules are published distinct from the rules of the associations. A number of the unions provide that members who lose their situations through intemperance or other misconduct, or who leave without giving proper notice, shall be fined or suspended from one or more benefits for a certain period. In several cases they are "out of benefit" until they have been for a certain time in other employment. Fines are inflicted by some of the associations on members who boast of their independence towards their employers on the ground of their membership. With regard to non-society men, it is frequently stipulated that members working with them must endeavour to persuade them to join the society, and if they refuse to do so they must acquaint the secretary of the fact. Fifteen of the unions forbid

[§ 484 (f.)] members to help non-unionists to get work under penalty of a fine or expulsion. Several societies allow their members to refuse to work with non-unionists, and in order that the latter may be easily recognised members are sometimes required to have "working cards," which they must show on demand to the officers of the society on commencing new work, or at any other time. The Amalgamated and the Associated Carpenters and Joiners refuse to grant compensation to a member who lends his tools to a non-unionist if the latter loses them. Less exclusive regulations are laid down by the Operative Lath Makers Benevolent Society, which allows strangers working in Manchester, who do not join the society, to take any overplus of work on payment of 6*d.* a week, and the Glasgow branch of the Bookbinders and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union, which may support non-unionists in distress, at the discretion of the Committee. Generally speaking, some regulation of wages or hours of labour is contained in the rules, and full details of prices are laid down by several branches of the Typographical Associations. In the printing trade, piece-work is recognised on an equal footing with day work, but in other societies, both payment by the piece and sub-contracting are frequently forbidden. A considerable number of associations have established a minimum wage, below which no able-bodied members are allowed to work. In several cases it is provided that members in regular employment must give or receive a week or a fortnight's notice of the termination of their contracts, and four associations forbid their members to engage themselves to their employers for a long or indefinite period. Several regulations for the benefit of unemployed members are contained in the rules of these associations. One which occurs most frequently in the rules of the various printers' unions forbids members in regular employment to work overtime for any other employer so long as any members are out of work. In the rules of the Typographical Association such conduct is termed "smooting" and is punished by fine or expulsion from the society. A number of associations forbid members to work overtime for their regular employers except in cases of absolute necessity, and members of the Operative Lath Makers' Benevolent Society who work on Sunday are fined 5*s.*. In addition to these preventive measures, most of the associations have some provisions for finding work for the unemployed. Owing to the skilled character of the building and printing trades these associations frequently lay down restrictions with regard to apprenticeship. The Ancient Guild of the Incorporated Brick and Stonelayers' Trade Union allows no member to take a free apprentice unless it be his son or the son of a deceased member, and two branches of the Mutual Association of Coopers require that apprentices shall be sons of coopers. A scale fixing the proportion of apprentices to journeymen is frequently included in the rules. A few societies forbid the employment, without express leave from the Committee, of "turnovers," or apprentices who have left their original employer before their term has expired.

(*g.*) *Objects.* (*g.*) The rules of the associations are frequently preceded by a preface, preamble, address, or declaration in which the objects for which the society was founded are set forth. In the case of seventeen associations no other objects are mentioned besides those contained in the preface and the rules of four societies do not contain any objects at all. Thirty-eight associations directly refer to regulation of wages and hours of labour, and the rules of the Printers' and Stationers' Warehousemen, Cutters' and Assistants' Union state the minimum wage which the society desires to establish. The restriction of the number of apprentices is mentioned by seventeen societies. The adjustment of differences and regulation of the relations between employers and employed are among the more general objects of the societies, five of which expressly desire to arrange disputes by arbitration. It may be noted that a few associations, including the London Printing Machine Managers' Trade Society remind their members that, while supporting the rights of labour, they must not lose sight of the rights of capital. A large number of these associations desire to promote the general advancement of the trade, but only three allude to legislation as a means to this end. One or two societies express a wish to assist other unions and other trades to promote the principles of trade unionism. The majority of these associations further aim at improving the material, intellectual, and social conditions of their members, and in the preface to the rules of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners a desire is expressed for the establishment of co-operative societies.(1) [§ 484 (*g.*)]

Joint Boards. (*a.*) *History and relations between employers and employed.*

485. (*a.*) The rules of Boards of Conciliation in the building trade at Wolverhampton, Birmingham, and in 13 other districts have been forwarded to the Commission.(2) The Wolverhampton Board was established in 1864 and was "the outcome of a series "of strikes and labour disputes which had seriously "interfered with the business of the town. After a "seventeen weeks' strike in 1863, the Mayor of "Wolverhampton called a meeting of the building "trades in the town to endeavour to find a means of "preventing such an occurrence in the future. One "branch of the trade, the carpenters and joiners, "arranged for a conference of six delegates from "amongst themselves with six from the employers, "and both sides agreed to choose Mr. Rupert Kettle, "judge of the Worcestershire County Court, as their "chairman. The result of this conference, which "took place on March 14th, 1864, was the formulation "of a scheme which . . . was found to work "satisfactorily at Wolverhampton, and soon spread to "branches of the building trade in other districts. "Mr. H. Crompton, writing in 1876, stated that Boards "of Conciliation and Arbitration for the building trades "on the same lines as that at Wolverhampton were "then in existence at Birmingham, Bristol, Manchester, "and Coventry, and since that time they have been "instituted in many other towns. As a rule, however, "it is only one or two out of the five or six different "branches of the building trades which belong to the "conciliation board."(3) For "about 23 or 24 years," Mr. Davies stated, the working rules of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners have provided for the formation of Joint Boards of employers and employed. It was asserted that these committees "worked excellently," and that "they have generally "come to an amicable understanding without resorting "to arbitration."(4) Owing to the strike in 1884, the United Operative Masons' Association of Scotland and the Master Masons' Association of Glasgow and Vicinity agreed to hold an annual conference "for the "settlement of all questions relating to the trade, and "every dispute that might arise." For this purpose a Joint Committee was established. This committee, Mr. Macgregor stated, had worked "admirably," and Mr. Brough asserted that the relations between employers and employed were "better than they have "ever been." The agreements made at the conference are binding upon all the towns in the neighbourhood of Glasgow.(5) As a representative of the Associated Carpenters and Joiners, Mr. Beveridge stated that no Board of Conciliation existed in Glasgow, but that "there was a sub-committee of the men appointed to "act along with the employers." This sub-committee does not meet at stated intervals, but only "as occasion requires."(6) Conciliation Boards have been formed in connexion with a few other branches of the society. The cabinet-makers in Hull and coach-makers in London also mention Boards of Conciliation.(7) No further information has been received respecting the establishment of Joint Boards in these industries, but, generally speaking, the relations between employers and employed in the building trade appear to be friendly. It was affirmed, however, that "in the lower "class of cabinet work" in London the relations were not so good, owing to the employment of Jewish labour.(8) With regard to the printing trade, Mr. Ross stated that "about twenty years ago" a Joint Committee was in existence, but this has "fallen into abeyance." No permanent Board of Conciliation or Arbitration appears to exist at the present time, but "sometimes a Com- "mittee of employers and workmen meets together."(9) Boards of Conciliation are formed for the settlement of disputes in the paper trade, and the Aberdeen branch of the Bookbinders' and Machine Rulers' Union mentions a Board of Conciliation and Arbitration.(10) The relations between employers and employed were, generally speaking, declared to be satisfactory, and Mr. Eddy maintained that "there could not be a better "feeling than that between the employers and the "members of our society."(11)

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 202-39, 254-73, 303-4, 309-59, 407. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XLI. (2) Introduction to Tabulated Rules, p. XXXIV. Tabulated Rules, Nos. 552-3. (3) Introduction to Tabulated Rules, p. XXXVI. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 35. Davies, 18,180, 18,187. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 37, 38. Brough, 17,909. Macgregor, 18,617, 18,636. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 34. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 275, 293, 295, 303. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 46. Whitley, 20,054. (9) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 59, 60. Johnstone, 27,177. (10) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 337, 720. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 61.

[§ 485 (b.)] (b.) *Constitution and government.*

(b.) The constitution of these Boards or Committees is very similar in so far as they all consist of equal numbers of employers and operatives. The number of representatives on either side varies from four to seven. The Birmingham Board of Conciliation consists of six employers and six workmen in the branch of trade affected, or, in the case of a dispute affecting the whole trade, of two workmen from each branch, with an equal number of employers. This Board has a Standing Committee for each branch of the trade, consisting of three employers and three workmen. The rules of the Birmingham and Wolverhampton Boards of Conciliation provide for the appointment of arbitrators in the event of the Boards failing to come to a decision within a certain period. These arbitrators appoint an umpire to whom the matter is referred if the arbitrators cannot come to a decision. In the Wolverhampton Board arbitrators are only appointed in the event of the members of the Board being unable to agree upon an umpire in the first place.

(c.) *Dispute and other regulations.*

(c.) The Standing Committee of the Birmingham Building Trade Board of Conciliation must hear and endeavour to settle by amicable arrangement any differences that may arise between any employer and any workman when the question does not affect the trade as a whole. If either side should request a formal arbitration, before the inquiry is held the matter must be decided by the Board of Conciliation or by the arbitrators whom it appoints. The agreement concluded between the United Operative Masons' Association of Scotland and the Master Masons' Association stipulates that all grievances must be brought before the Committee with a view to an amicable settlement. It also determines the rate of wages for the ensuing year, the day and time of payment, the hours of labour, and other conditions of employment. The Birmingham and Wolverhampton Boards do not allow any alterations in the working rules or rate of wages to be made either by employers or employed, without a written notice to the other party before a certain date in the year. The other party must reply by a counter notice or otherwise within a cert n period, and the matter must then be referred in the first instance to the Board of Conciliation.

II. Gas and Coal, Chemical and Salt Trades. Organisations of employers.

486. Very little information has been obtained with regard to the organisations among the employers in the gas and coal, chemical and salt trades. Oral evidence has, however, been received from the Incorporated Gas Institute, the Society of Coal Merchants, and the Salt Union, and the United Alkali Company has furnished both oral and written information.(1) The Incorporated Gas Institute was established in 1863 under the title of "The British Association of Gas Managers." In 1881 this was changed to "The Gas Institute," and the society only adopted its present name when incorporated in 1890. Its members include the managers, engineers, and secretaries of more then 300 "gas undertakings" in the United Kingdom, and more than 30 in the colonies and abroad, but the gasworks of London, Birmingham, Liverpool, and Leicester are for the most part connected with another institute formed about 1890. The Salt Union was founded in 1888, and is a federation in the form of a limited company of nearly all the employers in the salt industry. Members of all trades subsidiary to the salt industry as well as those engaged in the actual production of salt are included in the Union, employing altogether rather more than 3,000 men.(2) The United Alkali Company is a union of about 50 works, or at least nine-tenths of the alkali works in England, employing some 15,000 workmen and paying about 18,000*l.* a week in wages. So far as the manufacture of alkali is concerned it was stated that the Company controls the whole trade, but Mr. Brock added that "it is hardly a "syndicate in that common acceptation of the term."(3) The Incorporated Gas Institute, the Salt Union, and the United Alkali Company are incorporated under the Limited Liability Act. No information respecting the constitution and management of any of the societies in question has been obtained. The objects of the Incorporated Gas Institute are to promote "professional and "social intercourse amongst the members, by the read- "ing and discussion of papers upon subjects pertinent to "the gas industry." With regard to labour questions, it was stated that the society only acts indirectly "by "the ventilation and dissemination of views in papers "and discussions."(4)

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 389. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 50. (3) Brock, 32,381. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 38.

[§ 487. Organisations of employees.

487. Oral and written information has been furnished by the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers of Great Britain and Ireland, the Coal Porters' Union, the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland, the chemical workers' branches of the Tyneside and National Labour Union, and of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union, the Redleaders' Trade and Friendly Society, and the Northwich and District Amalgamated Society of Salt Workers, Alkali Workers, Mechanics, and General Labourers. Oral evidence alone has been received from the Coal Porters' Union, the rules of which have not been forwarded to the Commission.

(a.) *Date of formation and extent.*

(a.) The National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers, the Coal Porters' Union, and the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union were all established in the year 1889. The National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers originally consisted entirely of gas workers, but the rules and the name of the association were altered later so as to admit labourers from all trades. According to the present rules, "all persons "engaged in any work connected with gasworks, "building, foundries, iron-work, engineers' shops, "excavating, oil mills, breweries, brick-making, "lath-rending, skin-dressing, gun-making, sewerage, "tan-yards, cement, jute, sugar, india-rubber, wire, "telephonic, metal, galvanising, forges, grinding, "polishing, saccharine, sanitary soap, chemical, mineral "water, patent stone, starch, paper, blue, rope, candle, "rag, button, pen, cotton, stamping, jam, pickle, laun- "dry, or any other trade or works; as van-drivers, "canal men, grave-diggers, tailoresses, shirt-makers, "needle-women, or as agricultural labourers"(1) may be admitted to membership. At the present time the Union extends throughout the United Kingdom, and has a membership of 45,000 or 50,000 workpeople, of whom about 25,000 or 30,000 are gas-workers, and the remainder members of at least seventy trades. About 2,000 women in various occupations belong to the society. It may be noted that although the Union was only established in 1889, it has spent 22,000*l.* on strikes.(2) The Gas Workers' Union belongs to "the new school "of trades unionism," and according to the statement of the general secretary, "is wholly and solely a fighting body," which provides dispute benefit for its members. The witness appeared to consider that this feature of the new unions was an advance in the right direction, and added that the stability of the older associations did not lie in their benefit funds, "because "in our organisations, where we have not got them, "we get on as well as they do." The opinion held by this new school of trades unionism is that every man, unskilled as well as skilled, should join a union, and that employers should force the men to become members by employing only unionists. The employers, he asserted, would in this manner "get the best work "done, and they would get more advantage in that "direction dealing with organised workmen than they "would have with half organised and the others out- "side," and "the workers would make more progress "if they were all members of a union."(3) Mr. Thorne was also of opinion that if all the men in an industry were members of the same union the work would be done at once "more amicably" and "more effectively." With regard to other persons engaged in any industry, he considered that it was advisable that they should be admitted to membership of the Union in order that they might not fill the places of gas-workers on strike.(4) It was alleged by Mr. Ward that the Gas Workers' Union had never employed "force of any description" to induce persons to become members.(5) The Coal Porters' Union included about 8,000 members in the year 1892.(6) Mr. King believed that before the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union was established, "two or three attempts" at organisation had been made, but without success. When the Union was founded 10,000 cards of membership were issued, but a large number of members have fallen away after paying two or three contributions, and only about 2,000 now subscribe regularly. This apathy among the chemical workers was ascribed by Mr. King to the conditions under which they work. Before the establishment of the Union "the spirit of the "men was crushed within them." He asserted, however, that even those who did not contribute were not in any way opposed to the Union, and he believed that in the event of a general strike he "would get them to "act in concert." At present the Association is confined chiefly to North Wales and Lancashire. The

(1) Tabulated Rules, No. 274. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29. Ward, 23, 941. (3) Thorne, 24,775–8, 24,789. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 31, 32. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 29. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 53.

[§ 487 (a.)] copper workers in South Wales have not been affiliated, and the Scotch branches, it was stated, have not proved successful.(1) The Northwich and District Amalgamated Society of Salt Workers, Alkali Workers, Mechanics, and General Labourers has a membership of 2,000.(2) About 600 lead workers on the Tyne are members of the Tyneside and National Labourers' Union, which includes various branches of chemical workers.(3) About 2,500 or 3,000 copper workers at Swansea, and chemical workers in Swansea and elsewhere, are members of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union.(4)

Constitution and government.

(*b.*) The ordinary government of these societies is administered by an Executive, which generally consists of a president, secretary, treasurer, committee-men, three to six trustees, and from one to three auditors. A vice-president and one or more assistant secretaries are also appointed in some cases. The supreme government is vested in the general meetings, or in the case of the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers, in an annual conference of delegates. Branches, yards, or shops are managed by a Committee and other officers, according to the number of members. In addition to the annual general meeting, Executive, branch and other meetings are held periodically, and when necessary special meetings may be summoned. The principal officers in the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers, and the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union, receive payment for their services, but no salaries are mentioned in the rules of the other two societies. Any disputes that arise between members of the associations may be brought before the branch Committee; and, in some cases, when no satisfactory settlement can be arrived at, they are referred thence to the Executive Council or Committee, the decision of which is final, except in the Red-leaders' Trade and Friendly Society, in which there is a further appeal to the general meeting. Generally speaking, alterations in the rules can only be made at a general or delegate meeting, of which due notice has been given. In the Northwich and District Amalgamated Society of Salt Workers, Alkali Workers, Mechanics, and General Labourers, no proposal for altering the rules can be adopted until it has been one month before the Committee and has been accepted by two-thirds of the officers, and the Red-leaders' Trade and Friendly Society stipulates that no amendment shall be valid until it is registered. [§ 487 (b.)]

(c.) Entrance fees and contributions.

(*c.*) The entrance fees, contributions, and benefits, which vary in the different associations, have been tabulated below. In addition to the ordinary contributions a levy can be raised by the Committee, or with the consent of a majority of the members present at a general meeting. Members "in arrears" for more than a specified period are either fined a small sum or temporarily suspended from certain benefits. If they allow their arrears to remain unpaid for a further stated period they are generally excluded from membership.

TABLE showing the Entrance Fees, Subscriptions, and corresponding Benefits granted by associations of Employed in the Gas, Chemical, and Salt Trades.

—	National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers of Great Britain and Ireland. Tabulated Rules, No. 274.	Chemical and Copper Workers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland. Tabulated Rules, No. 286. Digest, Vol. II., p. 49.	Red-Leaders' Trade and Friendly Society. Tabulated Rules, No. 297.	Northwich and District Amalgamated Society of Salt Workers, Alkali Workers, Mechanics, and General Labourers. Tabulated Rules, No. 298.
Entrance fee - -	Men, 1*s.* 5*d.* women 9*d.* (subject to alteration by the annual conference).	Not stated.	Efficient workmen, 5*s.*; learners, 10*s.*	Not stated.
Contributions - -	Men, 2*d.* a week, and 3*d.* a quarter; women, 1*d.* a week, and 1½*d.* a quarter.	4*d.* a week for dispute, funeral, and accident benefits; 8*d.* for all benefits, including sick and higher funeral benefit.	3*d.* a week - - -	6*d.* a fortnight.
Accident benefit - -	—	The branch Committee may grant a sum not exceeding 5*l.*	—	—
Dispute benefit - -	A levy is raised when necessary for the support of members on strike. "Victimised" members receive compensation from the Executive or district Council. Legal assistance is also provided.	Such sum is granted as the branch Committee may determine. "Victimised" members not more than 30*s.* a week, at the discretion of the branch Committee. Legal assistance is also provided, or not more than 5*l.* is allowed.	Full members, 10*s.* 2*d.* a week; half members, 5*s.* 1*d.* a week.	12*s.* a week. "Victimised" members are supported at the discretion of the Committee.
Funeral benefit - -	—	Not more than 3*l.*, unless the funds amount to 2,000*l.* On payment of 4*d.* additional subscription: death of member, 5*l.*; wife, 3*l.*; child under 14, 2*l.*; unmarried member's parent, 3*l.*	Full members: death of member, 7*l.*; death of wife, 5*l.* Half members: death of member, 3*l.* 10*s.*; death of wife, 2*l.* 10*s.*	Death of member or member's wife, 6*l.*; death of child under seven, 1*l.* 10*s.*; death of child under 14, 2*l.* Benefit is allowed for a second wife on payment of an additional 1*l.* A widow may retain her benefit by paying 1*s.* a quarter. Half benefit is allowed on the death of a member over 50 at the time of entrance, or of his wife. Members over 60 at the time of entrance only receive funeral benefit for their children.
Sick benefit - - -	—	On payment of 4*d.* additional subscription: 8*s.* a week for three months, 5*s.* for three months, then 2*s.* 6*d.* for six months.	—	—
"Shifting" allowance -	—	Fare not exceeding 5*l.* is paid for any member for whom work is found at a distance.	—	—

Disputes and regulations.

(*d.*) The rules of all of these societies contain some provision for the conduct of members in the event of a trade dispute. Members are not allowed to leave work without first consulting the Committee, which in all cases must endeavour to arrange an amicable settlement either by arbitration or otherwise. Should the employer refuse arbitration the dispute must be laid before

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 49. King, 20,753, 20,928, 23,931. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 68. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 21. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 22.

(d.)] the Executive. According to the rules of the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers, this body must state all particulars to the branches, and if possible take the votes of all members by ballot; a majority of two-thirds must be obtained before a strike can be declared. In two cases it is expressly stated that the Executive or district Council or a general meeting is empowered to close a strike at any time. The rules of three of these associations stipulate that members who neglect their work, leave without giving proper notice, insult or otherwise misconduct themselves towards their employers, shall be fined, excluded from benefits, or expelled. Members of the National Union of Gas Workers' and General Labourers are fined if they "accommodate" an employer, and in all these societies a fine is inflicted on members who help a non-unionist to get work. On the other hand, the members of the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers are bound to do all in their power to assist other members out of work to obtain employment. Some regulations respecting the conditions under which members may work are contained in the rules of all but the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers. In the Red-leaders' Trade and Friendly Society members who do not conform to the rules of the shop where they are working are fined, members of the Northwich and District Amalgamated Society of Salt Workers, Alkali Workers, Mechanics, and General Labourers must endeavour to abolish all unnecessary labour on Sundays, and the rules of the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union require that each yard shall appoint a Committee "to look after the "health and lives of members, and act as far as "possible in unison with the masters."

(e.) *Objects.* (e.) The rules of the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers are preceded by an address, in which it is stated that the immediate object of the union is to improve the material condition of its members. The objects of the associations in question generally include the regulation of hours, wages, and other conditions of employment, and the general relations between employers and employed. Thus, the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union, and the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers desire the establishment of an eight hours' day with the abolition of Sunday labour and unnecessary overtime. The last-mentioned society further wishes to obtain the same wages for women as for men for the same work, and to settle trade disputes by "amicable agreement" or arbitration. The promotion of legislation with a view to securing safer conditions of working is included among the objects of the Chemical and Copper Workers' Union, which also aims at assisting other similar associations and supporting any movement for the interests of the working classes in general.(1)

Joint Boards. 488. No information has been received with regard to any joint boards or joint committees in the coal, chemical, and salt industries, and "in only one case "was anything known of a board of conciliation in con- "nexion with gasworks, and that was a local effort, "which had not up to the present been called into "action."(2) With regard to the general relations between employers and employed, Mr. Stuart stated that in the Newcastle district the relations between the chemical workers and their employers were "perfectly "friendly,"(3) and according to Mr. O'Connor the relations are "generally good" between the Coal Porters' Union and the coal merchants.(4) It must, however, be noted that the latter complain with regard to the Union that "it has caused a strained feeling "between employers and employed, and destroyed "the sense of community of interest which formerly "prevailed . . . Secondly, it seeks to interpose between "the merchants and their men, and to dictate to the "former whom they shall employ . . . Thirdly, it seeks "to use the employer as a means for collecting sub- "scriptions, by stopping his work because men have "discontinued their payments, and for compelling the "men to join the Union whether they wish to or not." Mr. Locket stated that he had no objection whatever to organisation on the part of the men, but he considered that "where their action involves an interference "with the work of the employer, the employer is "authorised to take what steps he can" to prevent such interference.(5) The opinions held by various witnesses with regard to the relations between employers and employed in the remaining industries vary considerably.

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 274, 286, 297, and 298. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 39. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 26. Stuart, 32,480. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 53. O'Connor, 32,905. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 51. Locket, 27,766.

489. Oral and written information has been received from the Glass Bottle Manufacturers' Associations of Lancashire and Yorkshire, the Metropolitan and the Liverpool and District Grocers' and Provision Dealers' Associations, the London Master Bakers' Protection Society, the Leeds Corn Millers' Association, the Association of the Leather Trade, and the Staffordshire Potteries Manufacturers' Association. The rules of the four last-mentioned societies have also been handed in to the Commission(1).

(a.) The Association of the Leather Trade, which was established in 1866, is confined to the neighbourhood of Leeds, and has a membership of 23 employers.(2) The only other societies of which the date of formation was given are the Yorkshire Glass Bottle Manufacturers' Association, established in 1875,(3) and the Metropolitan Grocers' and Provision Dealers' Association, formed in 1891. This latter union includes 450 employers engaged in the grocery, provision, Italian warehouse, and oil and colour trades, representing about 1,000 shops in the metropolitan district.(4) About 309 shops are embraced by the Liverpool and District Grocers' and Provision Dealers' Association (5). The London Master Bakers' Protection Society has a membership of about 500, out of about 3,000 employers. The members of the association together employ about 2,500 workpeople. "Some thirty to forty local associations" are affiliated to the union, which is entirely confined to London, and has no connexion with local societies in provincial towns.(6) The Lancashire Glass Bottle Manufacturers' Association includes three firms, employing 2,062 workpeople.(7) According to the Answers to the Schedules of Questions, the membership of the Staffordshire Potteries Manufacturers' Association is 64, and the Leeds Corn Millers' Association includes 20 members, who employ from 300 to 400 workpeople. (8).

(b.) The societies are managed by an Executive Committee and officers, of whom the principal are a president or chairman, secretary, and treasurer. Three trustees and three auditors are also elected by the London Master Bakers' Protection Society, and a solicitor is appointed to conduct the legal business. In the same association an Auxiliary Staff is attached to the Committee to mediate in disturbed districts. Local associations comprising ten or more members are entitled to send a delegate to the Committee.(9) The supreme government of the associations is vested in the general meetings, which are held annually, or oftener if necessary. Committee meetings are held monthly, quarterly, or, in the Association of the Leather Trade, when summoned by the secretary. At the monthly meetings of the Corn Millers' Association all questions are decided by the vote of the majority, but at "extraordinary" general meetings no motion can be passed without a majority of two-thirds. In the Earthenware Manufacturers' Association and in the Corn Millers' Association the president has a casting vote, in the latter, in addition to a deliberative vote. Alterations in the rules can only be made at a general meeting, and, generally speaking, provided that due notice has been given of the proposed change. The Committee of the London Master Bakers' Protection Society has, however, the power to establish byelaws.

(c.) An entrance fee of 10*l.* is required on joining the Association of the Leather Trade. The annual subscription in this society is 3*l.* 3*s.*; in the London Master Bakers' Protection Society, 10*s.* for each shop, with option to pay for only one shop, and in the Corn Millers' Association, 10*s.* 6*d.* for three pairs of millstones, and 1*s.* for each additional pair up to 21*s.* Additional levies may be raised when necessary. Notice of withdrawal from membership, varying from fourteen days before the annual meeting to six months, is required by three of these societies, but in the Corn Millers' Association and the Earthenware Manufacturers' Association any member may without notice be expelled from the society. The funds of the Master Bakers' Protection Society are invested by the trustees as the Committee may decide. No money may be invested in any other than Government securities, except in advances of sums not exceeding 50*l.* to local associations. Assistance is allowed to members in distress through underselling or embezzlement, or if

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 408, 436–8. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 755, 766–8. (2) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 768. (3) Bagley, 30,081, and footnote. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 96. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 96. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 70. Prain, 29,576. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 755. (7) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 766. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 767–8. (9) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 755.

summoned under the Smoke Nuisance or Adulteration of Food Acts. Any member of this Society inconvenienced by his journeymen leaving without due notice is under certain conditions allowed legal assistance.

(*d.*) No regulations with regard to disputes or the conditions of employment are given by these associations. It may be noted that when a loaf is purchased from any member of the Master Bakers' Protection Society for the purpose of analysis he must inform the secretary, in order that a portion of the flour of which it was made may be secured for the use of the Committee. The local secretary must inform the general secretary of any cases of underselling. A weekly meeting of the members of the Corn Millers' Association is held to fix the nominal price of flour, and a special committee is appointed to regulate prices when a change occurs on any but the market day. The rules of the association are binding on all members. Meetings of the Earthenware Manufacturers' Association may be summoned to deliberate with regard to selling prices and terms of payment, but the members are not bound by such decisions.

(*e.*) The societies in every case desire to protect the interests of the trade. The Earthenware Manufacturers' Association also wishes to "extend the source of "supplies of materials and guard against monopolies; "to interchange information about wages, and encourage "improvements in working"; to maintain the usage of "good from oven," *i.e.*, payment for the work after it has been baked; to regulate apprenticeship and the custom respecting the engaging and discharge of workmen, and to support the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration. The London Master Bakers' Protection Society desires to obtain a repeal of vexatious statutes, to enforce the application of the Adulteration of Food Acts and other legislative measures, to "prosecute fraudulent servants," and protect members unjustly prosecuted; to "introduce a sounder system of trading by the recognition of a standard scale; . . . and to connect the whole trade in the metropolis in one association."

490. Sixty-eight associations of employed in glass-working pottery, and miscellaneous trades have either furnished oral or written information, or have forwarded copies of their rules.* This number includes eight societies of glass-workers, thirteen of bakers, two of millers, seven of potters, seven of brush-makers, and a number of unions in various other trades, including two societies of seed-crushers, which form branches of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union.

(*a.*) The Dublin Operative Bakers' Trade Union was originally founded in 1752, and was re-established, Mr. Lawlor stated, in its present form 48 years ago. At that time "four or five societies and numbers not society "men at all" were brought into the Union, which now includes 660 members, and extends throughout the county of Dublin. In 1891 the total expenditure of the society was nearly 5,046*l.* none of which was spent on strikes.(1) The United Cocoa-nut Fibre Mat and Matting Weavers' Trade Society was founded in 1853, and reconstructed in 1868. Mr. Adams estimated the membership of the society in 1892 as 700 or 800, out of about 3,000 men employed in the trade, but stated that it was impossible to reckon the numbers accurately, as the members were scattered over a very wide area.(2) In 1861 the Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners of Great Britain and Ireland was established. The membership of the Union has increased of late years, and now has 90 branches, extending from Newcastle-on-Tyne to Plymouth and Southampton, and includes 4,400 members. In 1889 and 1890 5,000 of the men in London belonged to the society, but a large number "fell away" after they had obtained considerable advantages from it, and there are now only 1,800 unionists out of 7,500 workers in the trade. Where, however, branches are established in the provinces most of the men are members. It was stated that in many towns, especially in Yorkshire, only a small number of bakers are employed, and in such places no branches have been formed.(3) Before the establishment of the Purveyors' Association, about the year 1886, "there was "an older society, but they fell through." The association now numbers about 150 members out of about 400 purveyors' assistants in Dublin.(4) The Seed-crushers' branch of the Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union at Hull includes all the men employed in that town, "something like 1,500," or about half the total number engaged in the trade in England. Mr. Bell stated that an attempt had been made to organise the seed-crushers in the neighbourhood of Hull, "but we have not been able up to the present "time to do it." This witness added that, "with the "exception of London and a few in Liverpool," he believed the men in other parts of the country were still unorganised.(1) The London branch dates from about the year 1889; before that time "in oil mills "there were practically no Union men. It was only in "1889, when they saw that some good would result pro-"bably from their combination, that the men entered a "union. Some of the men joined the Union five "minutes prior to their going out on strike," and left as soon as they found that the strike had proved unsuccessful. This union now numbers only about 70 members out of 400 men actually employed in oil mills.(2) The Covent Garden Porters' Union was formed in 1889, "at the time of the dock strike," and now includes between 330 and 340 members. From May to August about 1,000 porters are employed in the market, and during this period there are some 700 non-unionists. Only about half this number are employed in winter, but the membership of the Union remains practically the same.(3) The National Union of Shop Assistants and the Scottish Shopkeepers' and Assistants' Trade Union were both formed in the year 1890. The National Union of Shop Assistants numbered about 3,500 members, about 500 of whom were women, in November 1892, showing an advance of about 1,000 on the previous year. It includes members of all branches of the wholesale and retail trades, and it was stated that more than 5 per cent. of the members were employed in wholesale houses. The number of shop assistants employed in the retail trade throughout the kingdom was roughly estimated at "over a million," and with the exception of the National Union they have practically no organisation. Some shop assistants are members of the Early Closing Associations, but it was stated that these are not associations of assistants properly so-called, and that "the effect of the Early Closing Association in "London has been to prevent the shop assistants in "London from organising." It was asserted that shop assistants are "fifty years, intellectually speaking, "behind the trade unions in organisation," and that in regard to wages and hours "they are worse off than "the average labourer" The long hours were declared to be the chief cause of their apathy in organising, but it was stated that the Union was increasing, especially in the North of England and in South Wales, where it is strongest.(4) The Scottish Shopkeepers' and Assistants' Union "arose out of a correspondence in the "newspapers regarding the long hours of shopkeepers "and shop assistants." Several voluntary early closing associations had previously existed from time to time, but all had resulted in failure. It was stated in November 1892 that the membership of this Union was 3,100, and that new members were joining "at an "average rate of 100 per week," principally, however, as affiliated members, because their low wages prevented them from becoming full members. The total number of shopkeepers and assistants in Scotland could not be ascertained, but was estimated roughly at about 180,000, the greater number of whom were employed in Glasgow. About 33,000 men and boys, and 15,000 women and girls, are employed, it was stated, in Glasgow alone.(5) In 1891 the London Domestic Servants' Union was formed; at the beginning of 1892 it included about 500 members, and in November of the same year its numbers had risen to 700, half of whom were men and half women. Before it was established there was no trade organisation, although benevolent societies existed.(6) The Journeymen Butchers' Society of Birmingham started in 1891 with 175 members, but in 1892 its numbers had fallen to 50. About 200 or 300 men are employed in the pork-butcher trade alone in Birmingham. In 1892 the funds in hand only amounted to 40*l.* or 50*l.* because many had left the society, "entirely through the "oppression of the masters," and many had not been able to "keep up their payments." Mr. Bartlett asserted that only 15 or 16 "financial" members had been in the society from the beginning.(7) In February 1892 it was stated that a trade union had "recently" been formed in the straw plaiting trade

[§ 490 (*a.*)]

* For a summary of the rules of two additional societies of glass-workers, and of the Domestic Servants' Union, *see* Appendix II. to this Summary on p. 334.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64. Lawlor, 28,788. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 79. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 66. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94. O'Connor, 3,009. 33,064.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 85. Bell, 31,443-5. 31,524. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 86. Adams, 31,663-6. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 73. (4) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 89, 90. Johnson, 30,692, 30,831. Davies, 30,699. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 92-3. Milligan, 30,955. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 88. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 72. Bartlett, 31,730.

[§ 400 (a).] at Luton. "There is a great deal of apathy," the witness added, "on the part of the people, because "they have not been taught . . . . . we "cannot get men to come forward for fear that they "might be boycotted by the people they have to "depend upon for their bread."(1) In the case of the following societies, the date of formation was not given. The Glass Bottle Makers' of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society in the year 1891 numbered 2,304 members, and included all the men engaged in the trade in Yorkshire, together with those employed at other factories under similar conditions, numbering about 150. The Society had in the same year 17 branches. Its income was 9,102*l.*, and its expenditure 2,577*l.*, while the balance in hand at the end of the year was 22,061*l.*, showing an increase of 6,525*l.* on 1890. Women are not admitted to the Society, because they are not employed in the glass houses.(2) The Federated Union of Operative Bakers in Scotland numbers 2,400 out of 6,000 workers in the trade.(3) The International Union of Cork Cutters includes 270 members in England, Scotland, and Ireland, out of a total of 500 employed in the trade. Twenty years ago the number of workers in the trade was 1,800.(4) The Grocers' and Provision Dealers' Employés' Association is confined to the district of Liverpool, and has a membership of 600.(5)

(b.) Constitution and government.

(*b.*) Generally speaking the supreme government of these associations is in the hands of a Council of representatives, conference, general, or delegate meeting. The ordinary business is managed by an Executive Council, Committee, or Board, or Committee or Board of Management, composed of officers and council or committee-men, whose number varies considerably in the different societies. The principal officers are the president or chairman, secretary, and treasurer. From two to five trustees, and from two to four auditors, are usually elected, but the numbers are not always stated. In the United Flint Glass Cutters' Society five additional trustees are appointed when the funds amount to 1,000*l.* The United Society of Brushmakers elects three trustees for every 100*l.*, and the Amalgamated Gilders' Society has two for every 60*l.* As a general rule, the principal officers receive some remuneration for their services. Finance or Banking Committees of from three to five members are appointed by three societies, and the National Plate Glass Bevellers' Trade Union has an Emergency Committee of three members. The National Order of Potters has an agent or corresponding secretary. Meetings of the Executive, and general or delegate meetings, are held periodically at intervals which vary from a week to a year in the different associations. Additional meetings can be specially summoned when necessary. The Executive and general or delegate meetings frequently have power to remove any officer, and the general or delegate meetings may sometimes remove the Executive. In several societies the president has a deliberative vote, and in case of equality of votes he almost invariably gives the casting vote. Districts and branches, or, as they are called in the United Society of Brushmakers, "minor societies," have a form of government similar to that of the central association, but on a smaller scale. In some cases, as in the branches of the Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners, and the Operative Bakers' of Ireland Federation, the districts and branches have distinct rules, in others they are governed entirely by the central rules. It is sometimes stated that branches must contain a certain number of members. Disputes are generally laid before the branch Committee, and thence referred, if necessary, to the Executive Council or Board, or to the general or delegate meeting, whence no further appeal is allowed. Four societies provide for the settlement of disputed questions by means of arbitration, and the Operative Bakers' Trade Union of Kilkenny allows an appeal to "two or more justices of the peace." Alterations of the rules can generally be made with the consent of a simple majority at a general or delegate meeting; in a few cases a majority of two-thirds or three-fourths is necessary. The rules of the Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners may be altered by the Executive Council if a majority of the branches are in favour of the amendment, and no further changes may then be made within 12 months. New rules can be made only by the delegate meeting. A Revising Committee may be appointed by the branches of the Millers' National Union. It is generally required that due notice must be given of proposed alterations. [§ 400 (b.)]

(c.) Conditions of membership, entrance fees, and contributions.

(*c.*) Candidates for membership in these associations are frequently obliged to prove that they have served a regular apprenticeship or worked at the trade for a certain number of years. In several cases they are not admitted to all benefits if over or under a certain age. The maximum limit of age occurs in the rules of the Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners, where persons are admitted between the ages of 16 and 50. The amount of entrance fee is not always stated, but where given it varies greatly, ranging between 6*d.* in the Edinburgh Cooks' and Confectioners' Association, and 5*l.* or 7*l.* for candidates to the National Flint Glass Makers' Society who are over 45 years of age. Apprentices are, generally speaking, admitted free, or on payment of a small sum. Both the amount of the entrance fee and the rate of subscription frequently vary with the age of the member, and the benefits which he desires to receive. In the United Society of Brushmakers the rate of contribution depends upon the state of the funds. In the National Union of Shop Assistants it varies with the member's sex, age on entry, and the scale of benefits desired. The smallest contribution mentioned occurs in the Edinburgh Cooks' and Confectioners' Association, where it is 6*d.* a month; the highest rate is 2*s.* 3*d.* a week, which is paid by members of the National Flint Glass Makers' Society. Additional levies can be raised by the Executive or a general meeting when necessary. Generally speaking, members whose subscriptions are "in arrears" are fined a small sum, and suspended from benefits, and unless they clear off their debt within a certain time they are excluded from the society. Women may not continue in the National Union of Shop Assistants after their marriage, but if they have belonged for two years, 50 per cent. of their contributions is returned to them, provided they have not received sick or out-of-work benefits.

(d.) Benefits.

(*d.*) The total number of benefits granted by the associations which have forwarded copies of their rules to the Commission is 127. As in the preceding groups this number does not include benefits provided by the central association, which are frequently mentioned in the branch rules, but only those local benefits are counted which are granted in addition to or instead of the former. In the case of the Glasgow branch of the Union of Saddlers, Harness Makers, and Bridle Cutters, all the benefits mentioned in the rules have been counted, as the rules of the central association have not been received. The following table shows the number of benefit funds and their distribution among the various classes of societies included under this group. It may be noted that the Edinburgh Cooks' and Confectioners' Association does not provide any benefits at all.

TABLE of Benefits granted by Associations of the Employed in Glass, Pottery, and Miscellaneous Trades.

	Baking Trades.	Brush-making Trades.	Glass Trades.	Milling Trades.	Pottery Trades.	Miscellaneous Trades.	Totals.
Number of associations -	7	3	5	2	4	15	36
Dispute benefit - -	4	3	5	2	4	11	29
Funeral benefit - -	4	2	5	1	2	11	25
Out-of-work benefit -	4	3	3	1	3	11	25
Sick benefit - -	4	1	1	1	1	7	15
Travelling benefit -	2	2	2	1	—	4	11
Distress benefit - -	1	—	1	—	1	5	8
Superannuation benefit -	—	1	3	—	1	3	8
Emigration benefit -	—	1	1	—	—	2	4
Accident benefit - -	—	—	1	1	—	—	2
Totals - - -	19	13	22	7	12	54	127

It will be seen from the above table that dispute benefit is granted more frequently than any other, as

(1) Digest, Vol. II., p. 56. Cuthbertson, 15,242-4. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 74. Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendix XX., Fifth Report on Trade Unions, p. 14. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 64. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 73. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94.

[§ 490 (d.)] is the case in most of the previous groups of associations. This benefit takes the form of a daily or weekly allowance, sometimes for a certain number of weeks, in other cases no limit of time is mentioned. An additional allowance for members' wives and their children under a certain age is granted by a few societies. "Victimised" members sometimes receive benefit on a higher scale, but in the United Flint Glass Cutters' Society they receive a lower rate than ordinary members on strike. In the United Cocoa-nut Fibre Mat and Matting Weavers' Society and the Amalgamated Leather Trades Union the amount of dispute benefit granted depends upon the state of the funds, and in the Operative Bakers' of Ireland National Federal Union no benefit is paid unless the funds exceed 1,000*l.* Members of the National Union of Shop Assistants receive benefit according to the scale of their contributions. Funeral benefit is paid in the form of a lump sum, the amount of which is not always stated, but where given it frequently varies according to the membership or rate of contributions of the deceased person. Benefit is also allowed in many associations on the death of a member's wife, but in the Barometer, Thermometer, and Tube Blowers' Society this benefit is subtracted from the sum which would otherwise be paid on the member's death. Eight societies grant the benefit on the death of the first wife only, and four others for a second wife, either a specified number of years after the death of the first, or provided that a small registration fee has been paid. A few other unions provide funeral benefit on the death of members' children under a certain age, or the parents of unmarried members. The United Clay Tobacco Pipemakers' Association allows a grant for the brothers and sisters of unmarried members whose parents are dead, if under 14 years of age. In the Gold Beaters' Trade Society a levy is raised to provide benefit on the death of a member or his wife. Out-of-work benefit is paid as a weekly allowance, in many cases for a limited period, which ranges from four weeks to two years in the different unions. In the London Glass Blowers' Trade Society payment continues until work is obtained. The amount frequently varies with the membership of the recipient, or, in two associations, with the state of the funds. In the National Union of Shop Assistants, out-of-work benefit, like dispute benefit, depends upon the sex of the member, the age on entry, and the rate of contributions. Generally speaking, a limit of time is specified in the case of sick benefit, ranging between "four weeks" and "until recovery." This benefit is also paid in the form of a weekly allowance. The rules of the National Union of Glass Bottle Makers of Scotland allow a grant of 15*s.* to be made once in six months to members in search of work. In other societies travelling benefit takes the form of a daily or weekly allowance. "Books" or "certificates" are generally issued to enable members to draw their benefit at any branch of the society. In some cases they receive a certain amount, usually 1*d.*, for every mile that they travel. In addition to travelling benefit, several unions provide "shifting allowance," *i.e.*, they pay the fare of members for whom work is found at a distance. Distress benefit, an allowance in case of loss of tools, or necessitous circumstances, is always paid in a lump sum. In the Scottish Associated Paviors' Federal Union this assistance may not be granted more than twice in one year. Generally speaking, superannuation benefit is granted in the form of a weekly allowance to members unable through age or infirmity to earn the standard wages in their trade. Sometimes they must have belonged to the society for a certain number of years, and the amount given almost invariably depends upon the length of their membership. In the Amalgamated Gilders' Society it varies with the state of the funds. The rules of the National Flint Glass Makers' Society allow a grant of 9*l.* to be made to not more than ten members in each quarter, and superannuated members may compound their benefit for a lump sum of 50*l.*, after which their claim on the society ceases. With one exception, emigration benefit in these unions is paid in a lump sum, which in two societies varies with the membership of the recipient. Accident benefit is only provided by two societies, and takes the form of a weekly allowance; a lump sum is granted by the Millers' National Union in the case of total disablement.

Dispute regulations. (*e.*) The rules of eight associations do not contain any provisions with regard to trade disputes. Generally speaking, members are required to give notice of impending difficulties to the general secretary, who calls a meeting to consider the question. Two societies do not allow a strike to be declared without the consent of a majority of two-thirds of the members present at such meeting. Several arrange for sending deputations to confer with the employer or his representative to try to settle the matter amicably, and six associations require disputed points to be referred to arbitration. In the National Union of Shop Assistants, the Executive must repeat the offer of arbitration if ignored or refused by the employer on the first occasion. In the Glasgow and District Milling Trade Friendly and Protective League an additional Committee of three for the management of trade disputes is elected annually, and in this and two other associations a strike Committee is appointed to conduct a strike that has been formally declared. It is sometimes stated that no assistance is granted to members who come out on strike on their own responsibility. [§ 490 (e.)]

Other regulations. (*f.*) The majority of these unions have some regulations respecting the behaviour of members towards their employers and towards non-unionists, as well as with regard to wages, hours, and other conditions of employment. Members are required to give the customary notice to their employers before leaving work; those who neglect this rule and fail to keep their engagements or provide a substitute are fined or suspended from benefits. The same punishments are inflicted on members dismissed for intemperance, insolence, or other misconduct, or who injure or neglect their employers' property. If any member of the London district of the Amalgamated Union of Bakers and Confectioners embezzles his employer's money he is expelled from the society. In the Scottish Associated Paviors' Federal Union, members who boast of independence towards their employers on the ground of their membership are fined. A few societies make good the loss sustained by employers through members leaving work unfinished, but the rules of the Brushmakers' of Scotland Protective Association state that this compensation is not paid to those who employ any non-society men. A list of recognised shops is given with the rules of the Gold Beaters' Trade Society. Members are frequently forbidden, under penalty of fine or expulsion, to work with non-unionists, and if there are any non-unionists where they are employed they must endeavour to induce the latter to join the society. In the Operative Bakers' Trade Union of Kilkenny a member who loses his employment through neglect is fined, unless he is replaced by another member. With regard to the conditions of employment, several societies do not allow members to work below a specified wage, and in the Yorkshire district of the Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners no member may take less than the workman who preceded him. Overtime must be paid for at a higher rate, and, like piece-work, is generally regarded with disfavour. A few societies do not allow members to engage themselves to one employer for a long or indefinite period. Regulations with regard to apprenticeship frequently occur in the rules, and eleven societies lay down in their rules a fixed scale of the proportion of apprentices to journeymen. Any member of the Gold Beaters' Trade Society may work where women are employed, but he must not help or be helped by them. In order to provide work for the unemployed, a few associations forbid members to work overtime for their own or other employers, and two societies do not allow members to apply for work at any shop without the sanction of the Committee or of the shop. Various other arrangements for procuring work for the unemployed are mentioned in the rules of most of these unions.

Objects. (*g.*) The rules of six associations are preceded by an address, introduction, preamble, or preface, in which an account is given of the objects for which the union was formed; in the case of two societies no other objects are mentioned. The Edinburgh Cooks' and Confectioners' Association, and the Liverpool and District Packing Case and Box Makers' Society do not state any objects at all. The majority of these unions express a desire to regulate the rate of wages and the hours of labour, and to restrict overtime, Sunday, and night-work. In the preface to the rules of the London district of the Amalgamated Union of Bakers and Confectioners, the "primary object" of the society is stated to be the reduction of the hours of labour to ten a day. The National Union of Shop Assistants wishes to promote the early closing of all shops, and to secure a weekly half-holiday in the retail trade, and is willing to support "imperial and local" legislation for these objects. Four societies desire to regulate apprentice-

[§ 490 (g.)] ship, in order to prevent overstocking the trade with labour, and three aim at procuring work for the unemployed. The London district of the Amalgamated Union of Bakers and Confectioners wishes for the repeal of oppressive statutes, and the Amalgamated Leather Trades Union desires to secure the benefits of the Employers' Liability Act. Proper supervision of sanitary arrangements, and the abolition of fines, and of the present system of boarding and lodging the assistants are mentioned by the National Union of Shop Assistants. In opposition to the Earthenware Manufacturers' Association, the Amalgamated Hollow-ware Pressers and Clay Potters desire to secure "good from hand," *i.e.*, payment for work which is good when it leaves their hands, before it is baked. The preface to the Scottish Associated Paviors' Federal Union expresses a hope that productive and distributive co-operative societies may soon be established, and emphasises the importance of economy and sobriety as a means to this end. Legal assistance and protection for members against unjust employers are frequently mentioned, and a few societies desire to settle all disputes amicably by arbitration or otherwise, and only to resort to strikes when all peaceful means have failed. The National Flint Glass Makers' Society expresses a willingness to co-operate for their mutual advantage with employers who perceive that trade unions are in sympathy with them. The more general objects mentioned by most of these associations are the regulation of the relations existing between employers and employed, the material, moral, and social advancement of the condition of members, and the protection of trade interests. The Millers' National Union looks to a "general federation of all trades" for the accomplishment of the objects it puts forward.(1) *See* also Appendix II., pp. 334–5.

Joint Boards. (a.) *History.*

491. (*a.*) The rules of the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Staffordshire China and Earthenware Manufacturers were handed in to the Commission. This Board was established in 1868, and was at first "based upon the representative system, and presided "over by an umpire." At that time it "concerned "itself mainly with detail matters, such as the price "of work done in particular branches of the trade." The first umpire was Mr. J. E. Davis, who enjoyed the confidence of both employers and employed, and whose awards were never disputed. During the earlier years of its existence recourse was had to the Board "with moderate frequency," and it was "exceedingly popular "then in the district on both sides." The original constitution of the Board allowed it to meet independently of the umpire, but "from being a deliberative assembly . . . it became more a contentious "committee," and the rules were altered so that the umpire should sit during the hearing of the cases, and decide in the event of non-agreement on the part of the members of the Board. During the first four years the work done in each branch of the trade was considered separately, and in 1871 and 1872 several branches obtained advances of wages. In 1876 the manufacturers appealed for a reduction, and renewed their request in 1879, when "the whole of the trade "was allowed to be lumped together" instead of each branch being considered separately. The award, which was in favour of a reduction, "destroyed the usefulness of the Board to a very large extent," because it made wages dependent on fluctuations of the market, although the men had no knowledge of the employers' prices or profits to serve as a basis of comparison. The workmen obeyed the award, but between 1880 and 1881 their representatives withdrew from the Board. In 1885 the Board was reconstituted on a new basis, allowing the umpire "full opportunity to verify any "figures or statements made in evidence . . . through "the sworn accountant appointed by and responsible "to the umpire." The first arbitration under this rule was in May 1891, when the award was given against the men, and the dissatisfaction of the latter with the circumstances under which it had been given was so great that they withdrew from the Board in March 1892. Mr. Owen stated that he did not see his way to re-constituting the Board at present, and believed that there would "have to be an interregnum." On the other hand, Mr. Young declared that the manufacturers were "perfectly willing to reform the Board at any time."(2) As a representative of the Glass Bottle Makers' of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society, Mr. Greenwood stated that a Joint Committee for the consideration of wages and trade disputes had been "more or less" in operation since 1868. This was re-established in its present form about 1880. "We have "never attempted to constitute a Board of Arbitra-"tion," the witness added, "which should have power "to determine between the two parties."(1) Mr. Prain stated that "some ten years ago," the Amalgamated Union of Operative Bakers and Confectioners requested the Master Bakers' Society to meet them in conference. Two or three conferences were held, and the witness believed that they "did some good" in bringing the employers and employed together.(2) Joint Committees have also been established by the Brushmakers' Society of Hull, the Seed-crushers in the same town, and in one district connected with the Operative Bakers' of Scotland National Federal Union. The United Clay Tobacco Pipemakers' Association has "no system but conferences."(3) It may be noted that the rules of the Amalgamated Leather Trades Union provide that Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration shall be established for the settlement of labour disputes, and that the decision of the Board or its referee shall be final. [§ 491 (a.)]

(*b.*) The Joint Committees in question consist of an equal number of employers and employed. An umpire, president, vice-president, and two secretaries, one for each side, were annually elected in the Staffordshire Potteries Board, which was composed of 10 employers and 10 workmen. A Committee of two employers and two operatives was appointed to inquire into disputes at any individual manufactory, which did not affect the interest of a whole branch of the trade. No employer or operative might appeal to the Board unless he had subscribed from the beginning of the current year. Each party paid its own secretary and its separate expenses, and the joint expenses of the Board were borne equally by employers and employed. Meetings were held quarterly and might be specially summoned by the president at seven days' notice, provided the nature of the business to be transacted were stated in such notice. All members present at any meeting might take part in the discussion, but only an equal number on each side might vote. The Board was bound to recognise the trade rules as binding on the parties to any dispute. Alterations in the rules could only be made at a quarterly or special meeting, of which due notice had been given. (b.) *Constitution and government.*

(*c.*) In case of dispute, either party might refer the question to the Board, but the primary obligation to appeal lay with those who were desirous of altering existing arrangements. The disputants had to furnish a joint or separate statement of their case at least two days before the meeting of the Board; oral evidence might also be produced. Before entering upon its duties, the Committee appointed to inquire into the dispute had to select a referee, and if the Committee failed to agree upon such appointment the choice lay with the umpire of the Board. The umpire was empowered to verify any figures or statements given in evidence by means of a sworn accountant appointed by and responsible to himself, provided that such verification did not interfere with the private business of a firm. A dispute affecting more than two branches of the trade was deemed a subject for general arbitration, and must be heard before the umpire of the Board, together with two arbitrators, with powers equal to his own, one chosen by the employers and one by the operatives. It was considered advisable that a general wages question should be dealt with in this manner, with the exception of the wages of ovenmen. This class of workmen was treated separately. At such arbitration, however, each branch might make special reference to any question which immediately concerned its own interests. When only two branches were affected, a general arbitration was not held, but either employers or operatives might appeal to the Board on any special ground. In all cases the award was binding upon both parties concerned.(4) (c.) *Dispute regulations.*

2. CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION.

Nature of information.

492. It is difficult to summarise the evidence given before the Commission on the subject of conciliation, arbitration, and mediation owing to the nature of the information. The difficulty arises in the first place from the very miscellaneous character of the industries here dealt with, which comprise both skilled and unskilled trades, with organisations of widely different

(1) Tabulated Rules, Nos. 195–201, 275–85, 287–96, 300–2, 305–8, 360.
(2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 80, 81, 84. Owen, 30,385, 30,397, 30,402, 30,427. Young, 32,578. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 322.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 75. Greenwood, 29,795. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 310. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 72. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 64, 85. Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 267, 321, 554, 572.
(4) Tabulated Rules, No. 556.

[§ 492.] degrees of strength; hence a variety of contradictory opinions are expressed. In the second place, for the most part no definite system of conciliation and arbitration appears to have been established, although in almost every case an opinion favourable to some such form of settlement was expressed. In the third place the distinction between those methods of settling disputes was not always observed by the witnesses, nor does it seem to have been kept clear in the constitution of certain boards. Thus local boards which answer the purposes of both conciliation and arbitration have been instituted in some districts by Chambers of Commerce and by Trades Councils, in addition to the Joint Boards peculiar to the various industries to which reference has already been made.

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493. With regard to conciliation, it may be noted that in many cases, where no permanent Board exists, conferences of employers and employed are held, either at stated intervals as in the Master and Operative Masons' Societies of Scotland, or whenever any dispute arises. This latter is usually the case with the Typographical Association. The witnesses representing the industries under consideration, generally speaking, spoke in favour of the establishment of Joint Committees. The majority recommended that these Committees should be composed of employers and workmen engaged in the trade in which the dispute occurred. Others, such as the secretary of the Amalgamated Union of Bakers and Confectioners, desired the formation of Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration, composed of persons not directly interested in the trade, who should settle disputes on evidence supplied by employers and employed.(1) Mr. Leahy, a representative of the Printing Machine Managers' Trade Society, stated that he would not confine the choice of members of the Board to the particular trade under consideration.(2) It appears from the summary on organisation that the method of conciliation by means of Joint Boards, formal or informal conferences, have proved on the whole successful in bringing about a better feeling between employers and employed.

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.) *Expe-*
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494. (*a.*) A certain amount of experience was also brought forward in favour of arbitration. The secretary to the National Association of Master Builders stated that by their trade rules a Court of Arbitration was formed, by which disputes were referred to an umpire if necessary. He "could suggest no better method" than this which had been in operation for 18 years and had only failed once.(3) Another member of the same association mentioned a strike of the joiners which had lasted nearly six months, but was finally settled by the arbitration of Mr. Mac Vicar Anderson.(4) The secretary of the National Society of House and Ship Painters and Decorators said, that his society had different systems of conciliation and arbitration, which were called "working rules" and varied in different towns. Generally speaking, these provided for arbitration, and the method had proved successful in most cases, notably in two strikes at Hartlepool and Burnley.(5) Disputes were mentioned by the representatives of the printing, copper, and chemical industries respectively,(6) which had been successfully terminated by arbitration, and both Mr. Meredith, "investigator" under the Docks, Wharf, and Riverside Union, and Mr. Davies, formerly chairman of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, testified to the satisfactory result of the intervention of arbitrators in trade difficulties.(7) The practice of arbitration appears to be most firmly established in the bakers' trade. Four bakers spoke strongly in favour of this method, and gave various successful instances in Scotland and Ireland whereby strikes had been averted or ended. It was claimed by one witness that the Board of Arbitration in Staffordshire had produced a general level of wages and had frequently prevented disputes.(8). According to some witnesses, however, where both sides are organised and settle their trade grievances by Joint Boards, the necessity for arbitration may be obviated. On the other hand, others regarded arbitration as the natural corollary of such a system of conciliation. It was pointed out by a printer that while Joint Committees had "done a great deal of good in "averting strikes up to the present, there was something "wanting . . . it would require the establishment "of some independent Board to act in the shape of "umpire." "The defect," he urged, in the rules entered into by the Master Builders with the Bricklayers' and Carpenters' and Joiners' Societies was, that "if you "come to a deadlock there are no means of settling "it."(1) But although the evidence of the great majority of the 60 or 70 representatives of the building, printing, gas, chemical, salt, and miscellaneous trades bears witness to the desire for the establishment of Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration in some form, the actual instances of successful arbitration are few and isolated. [§ 494 (*a.*)]

(1) Digest Vol. III., p. 159. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 158. (3) Digest, Vol. II., p. 94. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 163. (5) Digest, Vol. II., p. 93. (6) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 158, 153-4. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 153-4. Digest, Vol. II p. 92. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 159.

(*b.*) The difficulties and disputes that have arisen in connexion with arbitration appear to show that in the absence of a "spirit of mutual conciliation," and of strong organisations on either or both sides, the method has not been very successful. The relation of organisation to arbitration is shown by the history of the Board of Arbitration in the pottery trade. Founded in 1868, it worked very well at first, but of late years it appears to have ceased to command confidence on either side; both masters and men have refused to be bound by its decisions and have withdrawn from the board. Apart from the particular circumstances of the case, this generally unsatisfactory state of things was attributed by the secretary of the Hollow-ware Pressers' Society to the weakness of the associations on both sides. "For the (first) 15 years "of the Board's existence the men had rested upon its "usefulness and had not strengthened their unions." This fact was brought out by an unsuccessful strike against a reduction of wages, "with the result that the "trade has suffered a great deal of injury ever since, "because of the advantage that many of the employers "have taken of the men." This witness further stated that the chairman of the Board, who was a manufacturer, had said, "we have the utmost difficulty in getting "some of the employers to agree to the Arbitration "Board," and it was his opinion that "if the unions "were weak, the Board of Arbitration was weak." The natural result in this case was to discredit the system of arbitration, which the men thought had been proved to be "all on the masters' side."(2) Evidence which indirectly supported Mr. Pickin's view with regard to the necessity for organisation was given by the secretary of the Manchester Typographical Association and by a representative of the master builders. The former stated that the members of his association always preferred to find a masters' association in every town, as then "they could generally come to a satis-"factory arrangement which should be binding upon "all parties."(3) The one dispute that had been referred to arbitration had, he stated, been satisfactorily settled. In the opinion of the latter, "the employers would "rather deal with a society than with a few men out of "one shop and a few men out of another."(4) The obstacle to the formation of Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration in the copper-working and the Scotch chemical industries was in one case stated to be "that "they had no approach to the masters," who "had "never recognised the Union in any shape or form," and in the other, that the employers at the present time would not listen to such a proposal "because they "knew there was no organisation at the men's back to "force any such thing on them."(5) Evidence of opposition on the part of employers to proposals of arbitration was brought forward by representatives of the employed. The secretaries of the London Building Trades Committee,(6) the Gasworkers' and Genera Labourers' Union,(7) the Scotch Typographical Association,(8) the Society of Journeymen Coopers of Burton-on-Trent,(9) the president of the Trades Council at Belfast,(10) and a seed-crusher in the Dockers' Union,(11) all related instances in which the employers had "absolutely refused" or "would not accept" the men's offer of arbitration. A case was mentioned in the Acton and Shepherd's Bush district where a meeting between the employers and employed which was held to settle a strike broke up because the employers refused to allow an independent chairman to be elected.(12) On the other hand, the unreasonableness of the men was alleged by the employers to be one of the chief causes of the difficulty of settlement. The chairman of the Pottery Manufacturers' Association asserted that the failure of the Potteries Board of Arbitration was due to the unconciliatory attitude of the men, and that the masters were most anxious to re-constitute it on a proper basis and "let bygones be

(b.) Difficulties of arbitration.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 159. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp.160-2. (3) Digest, Vol III., p. 153. (4) Knox, 18,534. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 153-4. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 152. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 152. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 158. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 95. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 159. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 163. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 152.

[§ 494 (b.)] bygones."(1) The chairman of the seed-crushers' Committee stated in reference to a dispute alluded to by the men, that the employers wished to refer the whole matter in dispute to arbitration, but that the men refused to submit more than one point.(2) Again, the managers of the Commercial Gas Company of London offered to submit the quarrel in 1889 to arbitration, but the men "refused to meet (them) half-way." and "told "them they must have the whole thing and nothing "less." "I really do not see," said Mr. Jones, "what "a Board of Arbitration could do if you had one side "or the other so determined to carry every inch of the "ground."(3)

(c.) *Opinion against arbitration.*

(c.) An objection raised against arbitration by several witnesses was that such a method of settling disputes was unnecessary, because the existing system of conciliation by Joint Boards, or conferences between employers and employed, to discuss the points at issue, met the needs of the case. This was the position taken up by a mason, a house painter, a compositor, a carpet manufacturer, and a director of the Salt Union. Thus it was stated by one witness that though there would be nothing to prevent their doing so, they had never resorted to arbitration, because they found that by means of their Joint Committee they could always "higgle out" the question in dispute.(4) Again it was said "we have never yet had a question that we have "not been able to solve better ourselves than perhaps "anyone outside could do."(5) The result of settling difficulties "face to face with the men" was affirmed in another case to lead to "perfect peace and a good deal of happiness."(6) A few witnesses, however, objected to the system of arbitration in itself. Mr. Livesey said his experience had been "limited and very unfavourable."(7) The secretary of the Glass Bottle Makers' Society was of opinion that the workmen had not always confidence in an arbitrator, while an employer in the same industry "could not see how you could compel "either the manufacturer or the workmen to accept "the umpire's decision." (8) A representative of the plumbers stated that "they did not desire the interference of outsiders,"(9) and a member of the Leeds branch of the Stonemasons' Society preferred rather to "fight the matter out" with the employers than to seek "the intervention of disinterested persons."(10)

(d.) *Methods of arbitration. Voluntary or State arbitration.*

(d.) Various opinions were offered as to the best methods of arbitration. The great majority of witnesses appeared to favour local Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration, and some expressly desired that the Board of Arbitration should be closely connected with the particular trade, and not an outside body such as that established by the London Chamber of Commerce.(11) Others, who did not go as far as to advocate State Boards, demanded some means of compulsory enforcement by the State of the decisions arrived at by the voluntary trade board, which board, it was suggested, in some cases might be affiliated to the Board of Trade.(12) The difficulty of enforcing awards, especially when the organisations were weak, appeared to be the ground for this desire for "some legal binding force."(13) Thus the representative of the seed crushers' Committee stated that "the men would not be bound by their leaders."(14) The secretary of the Covent Garden Porters' Union complained that the managers "endeavoured in every possible way to evade the decisions "arrived at by the Board of Arbitration." But, he added, if the Board had "compulsory powers" they "would be bound" to obey.(15) The president of the Incorporated Gas Institute expressed a strong desire, which seemed to be very general in that industry, for "a Joint Committee of Arbitration and Con"ciliation between employers and employed in the "gas trade," with "power to settle in a judicial way" every question that might be brought before it.(1) Definite proposals for State Boards were made by gas managers and the representatives of certain other industries. Thus, although Mr. Trewby was favourable to the idea of a voluntary Board established by the three great gas companies of London, both he and Mr. Duxbury were of opinion that, in view of their "responsibility to the public . . . under any "circumstances and whatever the cost . . . to "keep the supply of gas going," there must be an ultimate appeal to a State Board, with a State umpire, whose decisions should be enforced by law. Mr. Duxbury suggested that resort to this Board should be compulsory, "at any rate . . . as regards the four "winter months, when there is risk to safety of life and property."(2) The chairman of the Cork United Building Trades advocated a "State Board of Arbitra"tion worked through a Department of Labour with a "responsible Minister at its head."(3) and a worker in the Potteries proposed a Government Board of Arbitration to which appeal should be optional.(4) On the other hand a builder, a plumber, a glass-bottle maker, and a member of the Dublin Trades Council objected strongly to any form of State arbitration or compulsion.(5) The difficulty of securing an arbitrator who "understands the technicalities of the trade," is "a fair and impartial man," and "acceptable" to both sides, was acknowledged by those in favour of any system of arbitration, and proposals were made that Government should either appoint suitable umpires, or nominate a certain number from amongst whom choice could be made.(6) With regard to the question of enforcement of awards, no very definite suggestions beyond that of "fines" were made, and the witnesses did not appear to have generally considered the difficulties involved. Those who advocated legal compulsion admitted, for the most part, that it was a "very difficult problem," though one witness regarded it as a "matter of detail which might be got over."(7) One employer proposed to make "the funds of the Union" on the one side and "the property of the employers" on the other answerable for the agreement of the award.(8) Another employer pointed out that the men could evade the award by leaving their employment at a month's notice, while the masters would still be bound by it.(9)

[§ 494 (d.)]

Mediation.

495. There is very little evidence of mediation in this group of industries. The secretary of the Dublin United Trades Council mentioned a dispute in the building and bricklaying trades that had been terminated through the intervention of the Archbishop of Dublin and Dr. Walsh.(10) The London Chamber of Commerce appears to have offered to mediate in connexion with the London carpenters' strike, and an extract from a report of the London Conciliation Board was read in which it was stated that "the "Board's services were at a late period of the dispute "accepted by the workmen but not by the employers." The latter explained this refusal on the ground that the men were in such an uncompromising frame of mind that they would accept nothing short of their whole demands; but this statement was subsequently denied by the men themselves.(11) A similar offer of mediation was made by the "Mansion House Committee," composed of Sir John Lubbock, Cardinal Manning, Mr. Lidderdale, and the Lord Mayor, in the gas strike of 1889. The gas manager "agreed to give "4*d.* a ton, subject to arbitration, and the men agreed "to that." The men then refused to submit the case to arbitration, and the mediators were unable to persuade them to do so. This Mr. Jones considered "a "very poor result of mediation at the end."(12).

C. TRADE DISPUTES.

1. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

General relations between employers and employed. (a.) *Building, printing, and cognate trades.*

496. (a.) It appears from the evidence given in the building, printing, and cognate trades that strikes have been very much fewer since 1881. This result is apparently due to the increase of organisation in these trades. The Scottish Typographical Association considers that "the stronger the Union the less strikes";(13) and the Associated Carpenters and Joiners of Scotland state that as their Society has "become better or"ganised, the relations with the employers have been "better, and the strikes fewer."(14) Annual conferences and joint committees of employers and employed were mentioned in several instances as having averted strikes.(15) In an immense number of cases the estab-

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 162. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 163. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 155–6. (4) Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (5) Ward, 21,060. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 95. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 157. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 163. Bagley, 30,109. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 93. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 92. (11) Digest, Vol. II., p. 157. Digest, Vol. III., p. 52. (12) Digest, Vol. II., p. 94. Digest, Vol. III., p. 163. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 158. (14) Digest, Vol. III., p. 163. (15) Digest, Vol. III., p. 164.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 155. (2) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 155–6. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 94. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 81. (5) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 92–5. Digest, Vol. III., p. 163. (6) Digest, Vol. II., pp. 94–5. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 69, 152. (7) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 156, 164. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 163. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 157. (10) Digest, Vol. II., p. 95. (11) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 152–3. (12) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 155–6. (13) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 336. (14) Digest, Vol. II., p. 69. (15) Digest, Vol. II., p. 69.

[§ 496 (a.)] lishment of boards of conciliation was advised;(1) and personal dealing,(2) partnership,(3) legislation,(4) and above all organisation of employers,(5) were recommended as efficacious means of preventing disputes. Mr. Macgregor argued that "trades Unions being now "recognised, it would appear that to prevent strikes ". . . a counterpoise must be found. Hitherto "nothing in the shape of a counterpoise beyond a lock-"out has been adopted, which in its results is quite as "disastrous as a strike. It has occurred to me that "the most equitable mode of settling disputes and "preventing strikes is by conference, and each trade "should have an employers' union, an operative union, "and an annual conference."(6) In one case, however, it was stated that there was "never the slightest "difficulty with the men before the Union was "formed."(7) In the London Portland Cement Company the rarity of strikes is attributed to the unskilled nature of the labour employed.(8)

Gas, nical, salt les.

(b.) In the gas, chemical, and salt trades, the evidence again tends to show that the increase of organisation has been favourable to industrial peace, though strikes have been scarcely less frequent since 1881 than formerly. Mr. Steel stated that "the last three years "of organisation have been very favourable in so far "that there have been no strikes . . . It would "tend to diminish strikes if the men and masters were "better organised."(9) In the chemical works of the Tyneside district it was stated with regard to a dispute which occurred before the establishment of the Union, that if the Union had been formed then, that dispute would never have happened.(10) Among the coal porters of London, Mr. Locket stated that at the formation of the Union it was at first found very convenient to have "recognised people" to deal with; "there was a dis-"tinct improvement in the relations between the "merchants and the Union. They were not always "seeking to quarrel and find fault." He added, however, that "gradually they became more aggressive, "and the question at issue in the strike was really "one of principle, whether the men's Union should be "a voluntary or a compulsory one."(11) The South Metropolitan strike(12) in the gas trade also tends to show that the influence of organisation can be disturbing rather than conducive to peace. The aggressive action of the Union appears from the evidence to be very largely responsible for the disputes which led to that strike. It may be noted that whereas in the building trade strikes are considered less likely to occur among unskilled than skilled labourers, Mr. Taylor stated that in the gas trade "disputes have "been more prevalent amongst the unskilled than "amongst the skilled workers during the past few "years,"(13) and the frequency of disputes among the coal porters appears to bear out this statement in that industry also. "The casual men were most unreliable ". . . They made repeated demands for extra "money, on the most trifling excuses stopping their "work . . . often refusing point blank to return "to work unless the money was paid."(14) . . . "We "have had a great number of reckless actions with the "coal porters which were costly to us and extremely "unreasonable."(15)

) Glass, ttery, and scella-ous ades.

(c.) In the glass, pottery, and miscellaneous trades the effect of organisation on trade disputes appears to be doubtful. Strikes have been more frequent since 1881; and though the formation of boards of conciliation is advised in numerous instances, the better organisation of both sides is not so often recommended as a means of preventing disputes as in the former groups of industries. The West of England China, Stone, and Clay Company considers that "if there "were no union of men and none of employers . . . "very little dispute would ever arise."(16) Organisation is however said to have been of great value in several instances as having prevented strikes. Among the coopers of Edinburgh and Leith strikes have been less frequent of late years, "the cause being, as allowed "by both masters and men, that the trade is better "organised."(17) Since the formation of the National Amalgamated Society of Coopers in 1889 strikes have been entirely avoided.(18) The Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association state that they have been "most successful "in getting the employers to concede their demands "by deputation."(1) The Masters' Association of Glass Bottle Makers in Yorkshire was formed as the best means of "preventing disputes, and leading to their "settlement without resorting to strikes,"(2) and Mr. Bagley stated that "since the formation of the two "associations, the masters' and the men's, there have "been decidedly fewer strikes."(3) With regard to the seed-crushing industry of Hull, Mr. Bell said that before the formation of the Union, "we were con-"tinually having disputes arise between employers "and workmen, and we had not the opportunity to "place before the employers our grievances which we "find we have had since we were organised."(4). Mr. Smith, however, representing the employers, contradicted this . . . "I unhesitatingly state," he said, "that the disputes previous to the formation of the "Union were very much fewer than since."(5) From the evidence given in connexion with these industries, it again appears that where organisation is imperfect, it is apparently far from being conducive to peace. Thus, in a strike of seed-crushers at Hull in 1891, the men voted against their own leaders, and "not only pro-"longed the strike, but a great deal of bitter feeling naturally was evoked at that time."(6) The majority of the strikes in this group of industries have been caused by disputes with regard to wages.(7) Among the builders and gas workers questions connected with trades unionism(8) have given rise to several, and a few have arisen from long hours of work, the employment of women and boys, bad material, and other causes.(9)

2. SPECIAL STRIKES.

Nature of information.

497. Although the evidence on these industries includes accounts of a great number of small strikes there is very little detailed information given with regard to most of them. The only ones of which there is any full account occur in the gas, building, and pottery trades, and in the first of these trades the greater part of the evidence is derived from the employers.

Leeds Gas-workers' strike, 1889.

498. An important strike among the gas-workers of Leeds began in October 1889. Up to that date the gas stokers had worked on the "12 hours' shift and 5s. per "shift wages." Their work during these 12 hours was "to attend to 20 retorts, charging and drawing; to "attend to two fires for the heating of the retorts, and "the wheeling away of their coke and ashes, and to do "all that was necessary to the carbonizing of 55 cwt. "of coal." In October they demanded that the twelve-hours shift should be reduced to eight, the wages to remain the same; but they engaged to perform the same duties in eight hours that they had done in twelve, with the exception of the firing. They also demanded a week's holiday per annum for which they were to be paid. The gas committee thought the terms "very hard," but having failed in an attempt at compromise and considering that it was "in the face of winter," (10) and that trade was improving, they acceded to the men's demands. New rules were to be drawn up embodying the arrangements, but this was not done till April, and then certain alterations were made in the terms agreed upon in October. The stokers were asked to resume the work of attending to the two fires, and to consent to be relieved instead of the wheeling away of the coke and ashes. The week's holiday was refused, and they were to enter into an engagement not to leave their employment during the months of November, December, January, and February. The committee, on their part, undertook not to discharge a man except for wilful misconduct. These rules were posted on the premises about June 1st and were to come into force July 1st, but the men were unwilling to agree to them. They made no sign of whether they intended to seek a compromise or to give up work; hence 14 days before the expiry of the notice the committee announced that unless the terms were accepted the work would cease on June 30th. No attempt was made by either the committee or the workpeople to come together. "Both sides were willing to discuss the "matter, but neither side was willing to ask the other "to come" (11). The result was that the dispute "drifted to a lock-out," and on June 30th the men ceased to work. The gas committee had previously engaged a considerable number of men in Manchester and London, some of them without any agreement, but

(1) Introduction to Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. xix, xxxiii, xxxiv. (2) Digest, Vol. II., p. 70. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 275, 337. (4) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 671, 673. (5) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 330, 339. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 69. (7) Answers to Questions, p. 590. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 671. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 115. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 112. Shotton, 21,913. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 112. (12) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 132-134. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 103. (14) Digest Vol. III., p. 110. Gardner, 27,613. (15) Digest, Vol. III., p. 112. Jones, 26,194. (16) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 706. (17) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 220. (18) Digest, Vol. II., p. 72.

(1) Digest Vol. II., p. 68. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 124. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Bell. 31,452. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 122. Smith, 31,551. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 122. (7) Digest, Vol. II., p. 66. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 104, 106, 115, 118. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 66. Digest, Vol. III., p. 106. (9) Digest, Vol. II., p. 70. Digest, Vol. III. pp. 107, 115, 119. (10) Beckworth 15,593. (11) Beckworth, 15,595.

[§ 498.] many upon a three months' and some upon a twelve months' agreement. These new hands arrived by train on July 1st. A large body of the old hands were waiting for them at the suburban station near the gasworks, and though a number of police were present to keep the peace it was thought better to take the new men on to Leeds and not attempt to run them into the gasworks. They were therefore taken to the town hall. The next day the excitement in the town was so great that it was found necessary, in order to prevent violence, that the military should be called in. They could not arrive till the evening, and the result was that the streets were lined with an excited mob as the men were conveyed from the town hall to the gasworks and much violence was employed. Several of the men were wounded, and "they scrambled as they could into the gasworks" (1) Mr. Beckworth considered that no association could be held directly responsible for the disturbance. He "did "not think the great body of the gas-stokers in any "way approved the violence that was committed," (2) and attributed it to the influence of a few agitators. In consequence of the persuasion used by the old hands and the insufficient protection afforded many of the new men joined the men who were locked out. The gas committee were left with only 150 out of the 400 men in their works. The President and Vice-President of the Leeds Chamber of Commerce intervened at this point. They saw the representatives of both sides and found that they were both willing to come together and discuss the questions in dispute. "For the first time the new rules were discussed "between the two parties." (3) The first evening no agreement was arrived at and riots again occurred, but the next morning a satisfactory compromise was arranged. The committee withdrew their requirement that the men should be engaged for four months, and it was agreed instead that 28 days' notice was to be given on either side. The men withdrew their demand for a week's holiday to be paid for, and instead four days' holiday were given, Good Friday, Christmas Day, Whit Monday, and the August Bank Holiday. They were to go on working as they had done from October, an eight hours' shift doing the same work, with the exception that they should carbonise 60 cwt. instead of 55 cwt. of coal. The old hands, however, peremptorily refused to go to work until every new man was dismissed, and the committee therefore discharged the new hands, giving them compensation with which they were said to be "highly satisfied." (4) The old hands then returned to work.

South Metropolitan Gasworkers strike, 1889-90.

499. The most important strike in the gas trade took place in the works of the South Metropolitan Gas Company,(5) beginning in 1889. A variety of circumstances were assigned as the causes of this dispute; the chief of these were a demand for double time for Sunday work; the proposal of a profit-sharing scheme; and the alleged breaking of an agreement by the Company. A large share of the blame of the strike appears from the evidence to be due to the aggressive action of the Union. Mr. Livesey, the chairman of the Company, described the condition of affairs before the strike.(6) In the latter part of 1889 an eight-hours shift was introduced, and for those men who elected to work under this system wages were 38*s.* 10*d.* for seven days or 32*s.* 6*d.* for six days. Those who continued to work under the twelve-hour shift were paid proportionately higher wages. Early in September the Union instructed the stokers not to oil the hinges of the retort lids, though the men themselves had no objection to do so. To this Mr. Livesey replied, "Well, if your Union is "going to act in that way, it will not last 12 months." This remark was interpreted to mean that he had said he would "smash up the Union," and was widely quoted. On September 16th it was found that the stokers were determined to force all the men into the Union, and they sent a notice that Rule 16 in the Union Rule Book would be enforced. This rule provides that all men working in the retort houses are to be called on to join the Union. At the Vauxhall works a man was discharged by the engineer for using unfair means to force men into the Union, and on September 16th Mr. Livesey was called to a meeting of the men, assembled to demand his reinstatement. Nothing was settled at this conference, but a meeting of delegates and directors was arranged for 12 o'clock, September 20th. At 11 o'clock on that day Mr. Livesey stated, "To my "great astonishment, at all stations the men handed in "their notices and gave us a week's notice to leave. [§ 499.] "... I thought this a very unfair thing, but we "were not prepared for a strike,"(1) and therefore all demands were conceded. It was agreed that members of the Gas Workers' Union should not, on account of their membership, be interfered with or intimidated by the officers or foremen of the company, and they on their side promised not to interfere with or intimidate the non-union men. Unionists and non-unionists were to work in separate gangs, but in the same retort house. In less than a month, however, "they had succeeded in "forcing every man into the Union."(2) "The effect "of this day's work," Mr. Livesey maintained, "was "to show that a strike was likely to take place at any "moment without warning. . . . We were as it "were sitting on a volcano, or a powder magazine "rather, to which the light might be applied at any "moment, and a strike might ensue in any week."(3) Preparations were therefore made to meet it. Advertisements were drawn up ready for insertion in the papers, and were sent to the advertising agents with instructions to insert them when they received a telegram. Agents were sent to various places to make inquiries about new hands, and temporary buildings, &c. were secretly run up. It then occurred to Mr. Livesey that it would be far better, instead of fighting the men, to conciliate them. He proposed, therefore, that the money that would be spent in a strike should form the beginning of a fund for the men's benefit, to be increased in future by giving them every year a share in the profits of the Company in addition to their wages. This scheme was brought before the board on October 30th, and on the same afternoon was explained to representatives of the Kent Road men. At the next board meeting it was resolved to offer a share in the profits to any man or men who chose to accept it by signing an agreement.(4) Just at this time came the demand of the men for double pay for Sunday labour. Mr. Blackburn admitted that in the twelve months he had worked for the Company before 1889 he had only had to work on one Sunday, but the men at other gasworks worked nearly every Sunday, and the Union thought that the workers as a body throughout the metropolis should stand one with the other.(5) "We thought it "our duty to have the same system throughout the "metropolis."(6) At meetings held at the Cannon Street Hotel on November 4th and 13th the other companies conceded the demand, but no representative of the South Metropolitan Company was present. Mr. Livesey, however, invited two delegates from each of the Company's stations to meet him at the head office, and they there discussed both the question of Sunday labour, and the new profit-sharing scheme. "The men were determined to have double time for "Sunday, if not, the result would be they would have "to tender their notices." Mr. Livesey replied that he was not prepared for a strike, and therefore granted the demand under protest. "Of course every one of "us understood then . . . that very shortly they "would have to come to a strike."(7) Mr. Marsh stated that "only the delegates were consulted"(8) about the demands made by the Union. With regard to the profit-sharing agreement, Mr. Livesey stated that between 6th and 13th November, "practically all "the free men," (9) about 1,000, accepted it; and according to Mr. Marsh and Mr. Saggers, it was thoroughly appreciated by the mass of the workers; but the Union considered several of the clauses "very objectionable,"(10) and declined to accept it. The unionists objected chiefly to three clauses in the scheme.(11) Some alterations were therefore made at a meeting held on November 21st between the directors and the men. The Union delegates continued, however, to watch the men most carefully, and when three men at Vauxhall signed the agreement by stealth, sent a letter to Mr. Livesey, December 2nd, "to certify that the men at "Vauxhall are justified to tender their notices if the "engineer had not removed Beadle, Harvey, and Kerr "from the retort-house men."(12) The demand was refused, and the next day the men began preparations for a strike. On December 4th a letter was received from the delegates of the Gas Workers' Union saying that a resolution had been passed at the meeting of delegates condemning the action of the Company as "unjust, "unfair, and to be resisted in forcing them to work "with men who had signed the bonus scheme, and "whom they looked upon as blacklegs to their

(1) Beckworth, 15,604. (2) Beckworth, 15,604. (3) Beckworth, 15,605. (4) Beckworth, 15,605. (5) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 124-135. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 128.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 128. Livesey, 26,796-7. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 128. Livesey, 26,807. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 128. Livesey, 26,817-19. (4) See *supra*, p. 294. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 125. Blackburn 23,721-2. (6) Blackburn, 23,811. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 125. Blackburn, 23,740. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 128. Marsh, 28,163. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 129. Livesey, 26,864. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 125. Blackburn, 23,760. (11) See *supra*, p. 294. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 130. Livesey, 26,874.

[§ 499.] "society," adding that "all the men in the South Metro- "politan Gasworks are justified in giving in their "notices until the same is abolished, and the said men "are removed from the works."(1) This was also refused, and though the men sent another letter saying that the word "and" in their notices was a mistake, and should have been "or," "that practically made no "difference as we could neither abolish the profit- "sharing scheme nor discharge the 1,000 men who "had signed agreements for twelve months."(2) The result was that on Saturday, December 7th, the whole of the stokers gave in their notices. The Company telegraphed to the advertisement contractors to insert the prepared advertisements, and preparations were made for the strike. A few new men were taken in at the Vauxhall and Rotherhithe stations on December 9th, and in consequence, by order of the Union, the stokers at all six stations stopped work. The new hands were therefore sent out to return on Friday, the 13th, when new men would replace the old on the expiration of the notices. Mr. Livesey stated that though the old hands resumed work, they "did everything they could to injure "the work,"(3) produced much less than the normal quantity of gas per day, and wantonly destroyed the Company's property. Police protection was procured, and as the men had not withdrawn their notices by the prescribed date, arrangements were made with new men. At this stage Mr. Causton and Mr. Beaufoy attempted to mediate, but the delegates of the Union would not accept them, and at an interview with the directors on December 11th they still demanded the absolute withdrawal of the profit-sharing scheme. Another attempt at mediation was made by the Rev. Hugh Price Hughes, who condemned the bonus scheme as one "depriving the men of the sacred right to strike."(4) Mr. Livesey pointed out that though the clause enforcing forfeiture in the event of "strike or wilful injury" had been withdrawn, the observation was just, since the agreement would be signed at different times, and therefore the notices would expire at different times, rendering it impossible for them all to leave at the same moment in order to strike. From the Company's point of view this was highly desirable; "they "meant to prevent a strike."(5) The attempt failed; and a meeting of coal merchants at the Mansion House, at which efforts were made to induce the Company to raise their wages and take their stokers back, was equally unsuccessful. On December 12th the whole of the men left, and the next day the new men came from all parts. Mr. Livesey said that "Our men "objected to the new men coming in, and before they "left us they had concentrated all their strength to "prevent the new men coming in."(6) Immense crowds collected, and assumed so threatening an attitude that large numbers of police were necessary, and false reports were circulated with regard to the new hands. There were many instances of violence and intimidation; "the men were afraid to go out,"(7) and had to be housed in the works. Mr. Blackburn however stated that "the Union in no way encouraged the "members to intimidate the non-unionists . . . if "anything was done in the way of violence it was "done contrary to the advice and inclination of the "officials of the Union;"(8) but Mr. Thorne admitted that he "did not try to prevent violence being used "in any shape or form,"(9) and Mr. Ward regretted that he had used his influence to prevent violence.(10) Mr. Thorne complained of the action of the police by whom the new men were protected, maintaining that there was "nothing to prove they were going to be "molested."(11) Throughout the strike the bulk of the 1,000 men who had signed the agreement remained loyal; and Mr. Livesey added, "the patience of the foremen, and "the labour they bestowed upon teaching the new hands, "and the patience of the engineers, and all the officers "is something beyond praise."(12) The strike dragged on, Mr. Livesey stated, for two months; "but we con- "sidered it ended when we got the new men in . . . "we were then most anxious for the strikers to come "back, but they said we will not come back in that "way; if we are to come back we will come back as a "body."(13) In the beginning of February 1890, however, on the request of the Gas Workers' and Coal Porters' Union and Seamen and Firemen's Union, the London Trades' Council opened negotiations with the Company. An agreement was signed on February 4th by which it was settled that unless mutually agreed to the contrary the men should work on the eight-hours' system, and that preference should be given to old hands in taking on more men. The profit-sharing scheme and the double pay which had been conceded for Sunday labour were to continue. Upon these conditions the strike was officially and formally declared at an end. A fresh grievance, however, soon arose; that "the Company had not adhered to its engage- "ment to take back old hands."(1) Mr. Livesey stated that "we had promised, and intended to carry out our "promise that we would give employment to our old "hands,"(2) and contradicted Mr. Thorne's statement that old hands had not been re-engaged when there was an opportunity of doing so. He added that no vacancies had occurred except at Rotherhithe, "in "place of a lot of men from Birmingham," and he believed that old men were taken on there. On February 15th a speech was made by Mr. Thorne at Plymouth in which he declared that a mistake had been made by the men in giving seven days' notice, and warned the consumers of London that the men would not again give seven days' notice before striking. He contended that "if the men had come out on that "day when they put down their tools the South "Metropolitan Company would have been defeated."(3) In consequence of this speech a notice was put up by the Company that since the Union had thus announced its intention of breaking the law, the Company, remembering its responsibility to the consumers for the supply of gas, would refuse to employ Union men. Mr. Livesey added that he "did not think there were "any members of the Union on the premises at that "time; several hundreds of the old stokers had come "back by that time, but they had come back before "the strike was at an end . . . . and had left the "Union. We did not discharge any man for being a "unionist . . . . I do not know that we should. "We say so, but if he was quiet and did not create a "disturbance we should just take no notice."(4) A clause was however inserted in the profit-sharing agreement that in order to share in its advantages a man must sign that he is not a member of the Gas Workers' Union. It had been suggested that the bonus agreement should be abolished altogether, but Mr. Livesey found that the feeling of the men was very strongly in favour of it. "The only anxiety of the "men is to sign. No sooner does a man come into the "service of the Company than he says, 'Can not I sign "'an agreement?'"(5) The result of paying high "wages with a bonus of 5 per cent. in addition was that "they were getting the best labour," the work was never so well done . . . . "we are getting better "results than we ever had before."(6) Though Mr. Higgins did not think that the scheme made the men exercise more care in avoiding waste, since they always tried to do so, Mr. Carpenter, engineer of the Company, held an opposite opinion.(7) The men are now free to belong to the Union or not as they like, but Mr. Livesey stated that as a rule "they do not see the "advantage of continuing members of the Union when "they have got permanent employment."(8) The settlement after the strike appears to Mr. Livesey to be very satisfactory. It cost the Union in all 12,000*l.*, and the Company 100,000*l.*, "but," said Mr. Livesey, "it was worth the money. Of course it checked further "aggressions of the Gas Workers' Union, one of "which would have been the additional shilling a day ". . . . . but this was the smallest part of the gain; "it broke down a system of tyranny over employers "and employed that had become intolerable . . . . "it gave in place of hostility and antagonism peace "and goodwill; in place of doubt and mistrust con- "fidence, and in place of sullen and discontented "workmen a body of cheerful, willing, and capable "workers with whom it is a pleasure to be asso- "ciated."(9)

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 130. Livesey, 26,875. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 130. Livesey, 26,877. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 130. Livesey, 26,882. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. Livesey, 26,882. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. Livesey, 26,885. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. Livesey, 26,891. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. Livesey, 27,088. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 133. Blackburn, 24,052-4. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 134. (10) Digest, Vol. III., p. 134. Ward, 24,066. (11) Digest, Vol. III., p. 127. Thorne, 25,344-71. (12) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131. Livesey, 26,897. (13) Digest, Vol. III., p. 131, Livesey, 27,089, 26,897.

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500. The strike of the London carpenters and joiners began in May 1891.(10) In November 1890 a memorandum was sent by the London United Trades Committee of Carpenters and Joiners to the Central Association of Master Builders asking for improved conditions of labour. They drew attention to the facts that

London Carpenters' and Joiners' strike, 1891.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 127. Thorne, 24,723. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 132. Livesey, 26,803, 27,055. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 126. Thorne, 25,164. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 132. Livesey, 26,905-10, 27,022. (5) Digest Vol. III., p. 132. Livesey, 26,872. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 132. Livesey, 26,955. (7) Carpenter, 26,970-2. (8) Digest, Vol. III., p. 135. Livesey, 26,915. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 135. Livesey, 26,913. (10) Report of the London United Trades Committee of Carpenters and Joiners upon the Eight Hours' Movement.

[§ 500.] nearly eighteen years had elapsed since the present rate of wages came into operation; that the men personally had derived no advantage from the improvements in machinery; and that in most cases they had to travel long distances to their work, and thus the working day frequently amounted to 13 or 14 hours. They demanded therefore that the hours should be reduced to 47 per week, that the minimum rate of wages should be 10*d.* an hour instead of 9*d.*, and that over time should be paid for at a stipulated rate. These new rules were to come into force on May 2nd, 1891. A request that the employers should receive a deputation to discuss these points was granted; but at the conference objection was made to the composition of the deputation, whose members were all unionists. "We said we would not let that stand "in the way," said Mr. Dew, "and we reformed our "deputation and waited upon them again accompanied "by non-unionist representatives."(1) A conference was then held, at which the question was fairly discussed by both sides; but the reply of the employers which was sent by letter stated that "the building trade "of London generally has been carried on for several "years frequently at a loss, and during the whole time "with a very small margin of profit," and that therefore they could not accede to the men's demands.(2) They would, however, allow them to begin work at 6.30 a.m. instead of 6, provided the time so lost were made up later in the day. At a meeting of the trade held in Exeter Hall on April 17th it was decided that this reply was unsatisfactory, and that steps should be taken to enforce the demands made "by striking firms in detail" as the committee should deem necessary on May 2nd. The committee, however, thought that "no "stone should be left unturned to try and come to a "settlement if possible,"(3) and another conference was therefore held with the employers on May 1st. No understanding was arrived at, and in consequence the men working in the firms of Messrs. Mowlem, Simpson, and Patman and Fotheringham were called out on strike on May 2nd. From the employers' point of view it appeared that the larger number of carpenters went out on strike against their will. "The strike among "our men," said one employer, "was caused by actual "intimidation and threats of violence."(4) Efforts were made by these firms to get men to take the place of the strikers, but failed. The Builders' Association then passed a resolution on May 11th that "unless the "firms struck against are able to obtain sufficient men "to meet their requirements by the 23rd of May the "only course open will be to close all shops and works "against carpenters and joiners."(5) The lock-out commenced on May 23rd, and the renewed negotiations made by the trades committee with a view to the settlement of the dispute were unsuccessful. On June 26th, therefore, a resolution was passed by the shop and job delegates that "unless the Master Builders' Association "enter into negotiations with the committee before "July 1st steps should be taken to strike more firms.(6) This was forwarded to the Master Builders' Association with a suggestion for another conference; but the association considered the tone of the resolution so unconciliatory, if not threatening, that further correspondence was thereby precluded. On July 11th "30 firms were struck," and the employers were prevented by vigilant picketing from procuring blacklegs. In consequence, however, of a proposal of the United Trades Committee, a conference was held on July 28th, at which the employers professed themselves ready to grant certain concessions. They would allow that for the forty summer weeks 52 hours, and for the twelve winter weeks 47 hours should constitute a week's work, and would pay overtime at a slightly lower rate than that demanded by the men in their first memorandum. The present rate of wages, 9*d.* an hour, was to be maintained. These terms were declined by the men, and on August 1st the men at 30 firms, and on August 15th at another 30 struck. The employers' offer was withdrawn on August 6th. Meanwhile the Conciliation Board of the London Chamber of Commerce had been endeavouring to bring about a settlement, and on July 17th had placed its rooms at the disposal of the United Trades Committee for the purpose of a meeting with the employers. This offer had to be declined, as negotiations were then pending which brought about the conference of July 28th. Renewed efforts were made by the board on August 21st, but its proposals, though accepted by the men, were declined by the employers, on the ground that no good could result from another meeting. This refusal led to a meeting of representatives of the whole of the building trade, at which resolutions of sympathy and promise of support were adopted; and in one case, where blacklegs were employed, the plasterers and other labourers actually struck out of sympathy with the carpenters. Steps were taken by the committee to prevent the employment of provincial or foreign workmen, and were in most cases successful. The London Building Trade Committee began, however, in September to view with apprehension the consequences of the strike to the other branches of the building trade. They therefore wrote to the Royal Institute of British Architects asking them to use their influence in bringing about a settlement of the strike which but for external intervention seemed likely to continue through the winter. This request was forwarded by the Institute to the Central Association of Master Builders, who were asked to suggest means of settlement. They proposed in reply that the questions in dispute should be referred to the arbitration of the President of the Royal Institute, and stipulated that with the object of avoiding future disturbances all other trades working the same hours and at the same rate of wages represented by the London Building Trades Committee should be included and concur in the reference; and further, that pending the award, the carpenters and joiners should resume work on the old terms. These terms were accepted by the United Trades Committee of Carpenters and Joiners, and the award of the arbitrator was published on November 19th, 1891. It was decided that "the carpenters and joiners have estab- "lished a claim for consideration in respect to the "present code of working hours. The abnormal size "of London, and the great distances which workmen "consequently have to travel in order to reach their "work and their homes render the conditions of "London work exceptional," (1) and therefore the working time was to be 51¼ hours for 36 weeks in summer, and 47 hours for 16 weeks in winter, equal to an average of 50 hours all the year round. With regard to wages, the arbitrator considered that "to "increase the cost of building beyond its present pro- "hibitive price would be to restrict still further an "already restricted trade, and bring disaster on work- "men and all concerned." (2) No increase was therefore made in the rate of wages. Overtime was to be paid for at the rate of 1*s.* per hour from 5.15 (or in the winter 5 p.m.) to 8 p.m., 1*s.* 3*d.* from 8 p.m. to 10 p.m., and 1*s.* 6*d.* from 10 p.m. to the time of starting next morning. The minor demands of the workmen were conceded. This award was accepted, but Mr. Dew stated that the men "feel that they were terribly sold "by the arbitration. Arbitration is a very sore point "in the London trade. . . . The arbitrator . . . "admitted that he held opinions then that no man "taking the position ought to have held." (3) He added that the carpenters and joiners have since got what they struck for, 48 hours a week, and an advance of ½*d.* an hour for all the branches of the building trade; but that they "consider this only a step towards "the full realisation of the memorial,"(4) and "will "have to meet the employers again."

[§ 500.]

Potters' strikes 1891, at Bovey Tracey and Hanley.

501. Two strikes occurred among pottery workers in 1891. The first of these took place at the pottery works at Bovey Tracey, Devonshire,(5) in May. Mr. Gardner, district secretary of the Gasworkers' Union for the Plymouth district, stated that the pottery belonged to Miss Devitt, but was managed by Mr. Clay. On May 8th Mr. Clay gave notice to the "slip and press makers" of an increase of 20 per cent. work with a reduction of 25 per cent. in wages. The majority of the men belonged to the Plymouth branch of the Gas Workers' Union. They replied that they were prepared to accept the increase of work, but must retain the old standard pay. He refused, and they gave a month's notice. On June 9th when the month was up "he "told them deliberately that if they did not accept "the wage they could leave the work, and they did so ". . . . . ."(6) They sent to Mr. Gardner at Plymouth, and on his arrival "the whole of the people "at the pottery were out at the station ready to meet "me."(7) He discovered that Clay had got three men from Staffordshire to come down and take the slip-makers' places at 5*s.* a day. When appealed to, however, these men said that they did not know that any dispute was going on, and were willing to return if

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 14. Dew, 32,315. (2) Report, p. 9. (3) Dew, 32,317. (4) Report on the Strikes and Lock-outs of 1891, p. 262. (5) Report, p. 10. (6) Report, p. 11.

(1) Report, p. 20. (2) Report, p. 21. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 15. Dew, 32,354-5. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 15. Dew, 32,358. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 120. (6) Digest, Vol. III., p. 120. Gardner, 28,049. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 120. Gardner 28,050.

[§ 501.] their fares were paid. This was done, and they were given an additional 9*s.* each "to get food and that to "go back with." Mr. Gardner then called the men together and reminded them that, with the exception of the four men who had given notice a month previously, they had all struck work without giving notice at all. He asked them if this was "consistent to "themselves or their employers," and advised them to return to work while he tried to obtain an interview with Mr. Clay. The manager refused to have anything to do with the Union, and Mr. Gardner therefore wrote to inquire if Miss Devitt would interview himself or three of her oldest workmen. She declined to see the Union official, but agreed to meet her own men. The men, advised by Mr. Gardner, suggested, and Miss Devitt, against the wishes of the manager, agreed that she should write to all the non-trade societies in Staffordshire while they wrote to all the trade societies to get the list of prices. The men were meanwhile to "work on wages" for a fortnight. A settlement was thus effected, and "the consequence was that the "men retained their position of work at the same "prices as they had been before without the added in- "crease of work or reduction of wages . . . . the "case was settled peaceably and amicably,"(1) but the manager a short time after "took advantage of his "position and discharged the man who was then secre- "tary."(2) In spite of Mr. Gardner's efforts he was not reinstated, but the Union compensated him until he obtained another situation. With regard to the strike among the pottery workers at Hanley in 1891,(3) contradictory evidence was given by employers and employed. Mr. Edwards, representing the employed, stated that "the cause of the strike was through the "manager at one factory stopping the men's wages "after they had worked for them." At this manufactory they had a system of "counting their "ovens when the ovens had wrought so much" . . . The men were paid "so much extra for all over and "above a certain quantity. These men had drawn their "six ovens through the week; the manager had taken "their account to them . . . and gave them a paper "of what they were entitled to receive from the office "at wage-time . . . When they went to the office to "receive this money they found 1*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.* had been "stopped out of the amount due to them." "The "thing had been going on for some time previous to "this, so much so that we called the Arbitration Board "together upon it." The result was that the employer promised the deputation that had been before the Arbitration Board that the men should have the count given to them the morning following the drawing of an oven and that that count should be met.(4) But on the plea of a mistake the money was withheld and the men gave a month's notice. As they gave notice on their own responsibility the Union at first took no action, but before the expiration of the month "the "employers thought fit to discharge a man at a "moment's notice" (who had disobeyed orders), and as this was "contrary to a compact made and to the cus- "tom of the district,"(5) the Union interfered. The stipendiary magistrate before whom the action was brought ruled that the extra work demanded of the man "was not an unreasonable thing for an employer "to ask, and that it was unreasonable of the man to "refuse to comply."(6) The result was that the men struck work for 18 weeks. Mr. Young, who represented the employers in describing the origin of the strike, stated that "these men handed in a notice on "December 5th, without giving the slightest reason "why they did it." The alleged reason was not stated for nearly six weeks after the men left. Before that they had for weeks on every possible pretext been saying "if we cannot have this or that we shall send "in our notices." . . . "For months before we had "been suffering great losses. The men threw the stuff "about. We even engaged a trade unionist to supervise "the men and get them into some kind of order. He "said they were the worst lot of men he had ever seen "in his life, and he could do nothing with them."(7) The places of the men who had struck were filled with non-unionists when the month's notice had expired, and the society then withdrew its men from the other factory belonging to the same employers, and a general lock-out resulted. When this had lasted 14 days the employers issued a manifesto "saying that the men "could resume work at the same prices and conditions "as they left off until 25th March next."(1) The two firms agreed to take the men back as speedily as possible; and Mr. Edwards admitted that the employers "acted very honourably. They have taken back "almost the whole of those men when they have seen "a chance to do so."(2) He contended, however, that if the employers had "been honourable and acted in "accordance with the rules of the Conciliation and "Arbitration Board . . . the strike never would "have taken place."(3) Mr. Young, on the other hand, stated that "the Conciliation and Arbitration Board "had been broken up by the workmen before this strike "took place"; (4) and added moreover that he "wished "to make it public that they should not be held up "before the public as defrauding men of their wages "when they have actually got the defendant's own "retractation of all the statements made, and his "apology for having made them."(5) [§ 501.]

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 120. Gardner, 28,050. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 120. Gardner, 28,051. (3) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 120, 121. (4) Digest, Vol. III., p. 120. Edwards, 30,627. (5) Edwards, 30,631. (6) Edwards, 30,632. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Young, 32,559, 32,563.

3. PICKETING AND INTIMIDATION AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

Attitude of employers and employed towards picketing and intimidation.

502. With regard to picketing and intimidation, the views taken by employers and employed respectively were very different. The employed were largely of opinion that the police were "over-zealous" in the discharge of their duty, and in many cases their conduct was bitterly complained of.(8) One witness stated that he regretted that he had advised the men to avoid violence when he saw how they were intimidated by the police, and looked upon their behaviour as "an invitation to enter into it."(7) It was stated that "peaceful picketing" had been interfered with, and it was maintained that employers should not seek the aid of the police in any case until such time as violence is used.(8) A complaint was made that the Glasgow men had been threatened that the Police Act, which was "unusually severe," would, as it was a special Act, override the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, which was general; and that "the very fact of this statement "being made placed the men in fear."(9) In one instance it was proposed that the law bearing upon intimidation should be so amended as to cover the case of an employer who tells his men that they must either leave his service or leave the Union;(10) but beyond this no definite remedies were suggested by the employed for the evils complained of. The employers, on the other hand, took an opposite view, and had generally clear ideas as to the improvements they wished to see carried out. Their contention was that the law is not strong enough in the case of picketing.(11) Numerous cases of intimidation were quoted, especially in connexion with the South Metropolitan Gas strike. It was stated that "the system of terrorism" is such that it is impossible for the men who wish to work to do so; and that though a penalty is imposed under the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, there is often difficulty in getting it applied, particularly in the case of corporation works where undue influence may be brought to bear by workmen. It was suggested therefore that the Act should be so amended as to extend it to the total prohibition of strikes "during "the very heavy months of winter."(9) During this period arbitration should be employed. Picketing, it was advised, should be prohibited, or the law as it stands should be more strictly carried out; because intimidation goes on notwithstanding the law.(9) Further suggestions were made that the law of conspiracy which at present protects the gas industry with regard to the individual members of a particular Union should be "extended to the linking together of the whole of the "Unions for the same purpose"; and that the funds of any Union should be made liable to compensation for the loss inflicted by any strike of members of that Union against an employer, where there was no direct dispute between the members of such Union and such employer.(12)

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

(1) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Edwards, 30,648. (2) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Edwards, 30,649. (3) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Edwards, 30,627. (4) Young, 32,559. (5) Digest, Vol. III., p. 121. Young, 32,564. (6) Digest, Vol. II., p. 109. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 133, 134. Digest, Vol. III., pp. 180, 181. (7) Digest, Vol. III., p. 133. (8) Digest, Vol. II., p. 109. Digest, Vol. III., p. 134. (9) Digest, Vol. III., p. 181. (10) Digest, Vol. III. p. 180. (11) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 181-2. (12) Digest, Vol. III., pp. 181-2.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX I.

SOUTH METROPOLITAN GAS COMPANY.

Provision for Accidents to Workmen.

In 1842 the late Thomas Livesey, then secretary and manager of the Company, formed, in agreement with the men, a sick and burial fund, to which each man contributes 3*d.* a week, and the Company pays whatever is necessary each half year, usually about 2*d.* to each 3*d.* by the men, to keep the fund going.

The sick pay is 12*s.* a week for three months, and 6*s.* for another three months in a year, and men meeting with accidents receive the usual sick pay; and in addition they are paid a further 6*s.* a week provided the accident is not the result of their own carelessness. In fatal accidents the widow is paid not less than 15*s.* a week for a year or more, according to circumstances, reduced after a time to 10*s.* for life, or during widowhood. The men are not asked to contract out of the Act, but no proceedings are ever taken by them. Seeing, however, that the entire charge for accidents is borne by the Company, for the 3*d.* a week paid by the men is not nearly sufficient to meet the cost of simple sickness, this arrangement will not be continued if the Employers' Liability Bill is passed in its present form, as, with the abolition of the doctrine of common employment and the repeal of the limitation of the amount that can be claimed, the Company will be subject to litigation. It must, in fact, then, be one thing or the other; the Company will not make provision for all accidents and be at the same time subject to litigation under the Act; it will cost much less if provision for all accidents is abolished.

GEORGE LIVESEY.

September 9, 1893.

APPENDIX II.

ORGANISATIONS OF THE EMPLOYED.

Organisations of the employed.

Copies of the rules of the London and Provincial Domestic Servants' Union, the United Trade Committee of Carpenters and Joiners in London, the Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society, and the International Union of Glassworkers have been laid before the Commission, but were received or dealt with too late to be included in the foregoing summary.

Constitution and government.

The government of the Domestic Servants' Union is in the hands of an executive committee, consisting of a president, chairman, treasurer, secretary, two trustees, and nine other members, who must be *bonâ fide* domestic servants. These officers are elected annually by ballot. There is also an annual general meeting, or committee of management, consisting of one delegate for every 100 members. Alterations in the rules may be made only with the consent of a majority of a meeting of members specially called for the purpose. The London United Trade Committee of Carpenters and Joiners consists of representatives from all societies of carpenters and joiners in the London district, in the following proportions: Societies with not more than 100 members send one delegate; those with from 100 to 200 members, two delegates; those with from 200 to 400 members, three delegates; and an additional delegate is sent for every additional 200 members. The officers of the committee are a president, treasurer, and secretary, elected half-yearly; and a sub-committee of five members is appointed quarterly to act in cases of emergency and to settle minor questions. The committee meets every month, or when specially summoned. The Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire Trade Protection Society is divided into districts, each of which is governed by a district committee and officers. The supreme government of the society is in the hands of the delegate meeting, which also elects a central secretary; and all disputed or difficult questions arising in any district must be referred to the delegate meeting for its decision. The government of the International Union of Glassworkers is conducted by a council of seven members, elected annually by the society which is chosen as the seat of government. This council meets whenever necessary, appoints the officers from its own members, and carries out the resolutions passed at the annual or special general congresses, to which the supreme control of the society is confided. Delegates to the general congresses are elected by the various societies in the proportion of one delegate for 100 members, and an additional delegate for every additional 200 members. Societies with less than 100 members may combine to send a delegate. The members of the union must be societies of glassworkers, except in the case of such foreign glassworkers as are prevented by law from forming combinations, who may join as individual members.

Contributions and benefits.

TABLE of Entrance Fees and Contributions.

Payments.	London and Provincial Domestic Servants' Union.	London United Trade Committee of Carpenters and Joiners.	Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society.	International Union of Glassworkers.
Entrance fee - -	1*s.*	—	Apprentices under the age of 21 admitted free. Journeymen or apprentices over 21, 5*l.* Glass bottle makers from other districts, 1*l.*	—
Contributions - -	1*d.* a week. A levy of not more than 2*d.* a week may be imposed by the committee.	A levy of 1*d.* a member may be made to meet incidental expenses when necessary.	1*s.* a week for journeymen. Apprentices under the age of 20, who are employed as gatherers, pay 6*d.* a week, others 1*s.* a week. Levies may be imposed by the delegate meeting.	6*d.* a member a year.

The Domestic Servants' Union declares its intention of assisting its members when out of employment, but does not specify the amount or nature of the benefit. The benefits given by the Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire Trade Protection Society, are as follows:—

1. Dispute benefit.

Victimised members receive the amount of their wages before dismissal.

2. Funeral benefit.

On the death of a member, 8*l.*

On the death of member's wife, 5*l.*

In addition to the funeral benefit on a member's death, a grant of 12*l.* is made to his widow, on condition that she remains unmarried for at least one year.

3. Out-of-work benefit.
   The amount of this benefit is fixed from time to time by the delegate meeting.
4. Superannuation benefit.
   Members over 45 years of age, who are incapacitated from following their occupation, receive—
   After 15 years' membership, 3*s.* a week.
   „ 20 „ „ 4*s.* „
   „ 25 „ „ 5*s.* „

Dispute regulations.

It is the special duty of the London United Trade Committee of Carpenters and Joiners to investigate all disputes between workmen and employers in these trades, and to endeavour to settle them by conciliatory means, and it may sanction a strike only if determined upon by a majority of at least two-thirds of the members at specially summoned meetings of not less than five branches in the district. The rules of the Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society require that any trade dispute must be referred to the whole trade before a strike may be allowed in any district. No support will be given to members who molest or intimidate men who are working during a strike. The International Union of Glassworkers requires that information of any lock-out or strike in the trade which takes place in any country should be sent to all the societies through the council, but all pecuniary assistance which may be rendered must be voluntary, and left to the discretion of each separate society.

Minor regulations.

No member of the London United Trade Committee of Carpenters and Joiners may receive less than the standard rate of wages of the district, and it is recommended that no managing foreman, or member in business for himself, should be elected on the committee. Members of the Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society are also forbidden to work for less than the regular rate of wages, or to leave their place of work without giving or receiving one week's notice. The weekly hours of work are fixed by the rules of this society. No member of the International Union of Glassworkers may migrate from one country to another without the sanction of the members in the respective countries.

Objects.

In addition to the promotion of the general interests of the members, the Domestic Servants' Union aims especially at procuring higher wages and more leisure for its members, and wishes to improve the present unsatisfactory character system, to establish and support registry offices, free for members, and to give legal advice and assistance when necessary. The object of the London United Trade Committee of Carpenters and Joiners is to secure the combined action of all the organisations in London in maintaining and supporting the rules and privileges of the trade. The Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society is said to be "established for the advocacy of peaceful "combinations amongst glass bottle makers, for the "purpose of improving their social, intellectual, and "moral condition, and to protect their masters' pro-"perty by every means in their power;" and the preamble to the rules further states that the object of the members is through united effort to defend the rights of labour against the encroaching power of capital, and to raise themselves "to a just and legiti-"mate level in the social scale." The International Union of Glassworkers desires to unite the different national and local organisations in the trade, and "to "afford a medium of information and assistance for "their common interests."(1)

(1) Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Appendices CXLIV., CXLV., and CL.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR AS A WHOLE.

SUMMARY of the EVIDENCE, oral and written, received by the ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR Sitting as a Whole.

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NOTE.

IN accordance with a Resolution of the Commission, the Secretary was directed to prepare Summaries of the Evidence (oral and written) received by the Commission Sitting as a Whole. This Evidence includes:—

1. The Minutes of Evidence with Appendices.
2. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
3. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed, and of Joint Boards of Conciliation.
4. Certain other Documents handed in or forwarded to the Commission, but not printed with the above.
5. Further Correspondence on certain subjects.
6. An Article contributed to the *Nineteenth Century* magazine by Mr. J. Burns, and forwarded by him to the Secretary in lieu of the evidence which circumstances prevented him from giving before the Commission.

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MOVEMENTS, ORGANISATIONS, AND INSTITUTIONS.

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

I. WAGES.

(i.) *Statements of Wages.*

[§ 503.] Subjects included under.

503. Evidence was given concerning the proportion of the national income devoted to the remuneration of manual labour and the effect upon wages of trades unionism, co-operation, profit-sharing, and thrift; as to State policy with regard to wages, as to the disadvantages of piece payment, and as to the advantages and nature of profit-sharing and co-operation as methods of industrial remuneration.

Proportion of national income going to wages.

504. It appeared from the figures furnished by Mr. R. Giffen(1) that, of a total national income of 1,500,000,000*l.*, 633,000,000*l.*, or 48*l.* per wage earner, is appropriated to manual labourers, as against 867,000,000*l.* appropriated to the rest of the community, and the figures quoted by Mr. Gerald Balfour in the course of his cross-examination of Mr. Tom Mann(2), as having been prepared by the same authority in 1886, show nearly the same proportion. It was contended by Mr. Tom Mann that the proportionate distribution of the rewards of industry was unfair to the manual labourers, and that, though the rate of interest had fallen, yet, owing to re-investment and other causes, a larger proportion of the national income was devoted to the payment of that charge than ever. Mr. Hyndman,(3) moreover, while not disputing Mr. Giffen's statement to the effect that during the past 50 years falling prices had been accompanied by rising wages, denied that the rise was proportionate to the increase in the property of the non-productive classes and in the productive power of human labour, and alleged that, deducting the sums paid to non-productive wage earners, such as domestic servants, the aggregate annual wages of those manual labourers whom he classed as productive was considerably less than 500,000,000*l.*, and that between one fifth and one third of this sum was paid back to the non-productive classes in the form of rent. Mr. Giffen,(4) however, pointed out that it was useless to attempt to extract from the statistics information as to the relation between wages and profits which they did not contain. Such information, he added, cannot be completely ascertained, because, in the case of a great deal of income, it is impossible to determine what portion of it is of the nature of wages and what is of the nature of interest or profit. In fact, before drawing deductions from the statistics given above, four matters must be duly considered:—First, that a comparison of the aggregate income of the manual labourers with that of the rest of the community is not a comparison of the income of labour with the income of capital, for a very large portion of the 867,000,000*l.* is derived from labour, though not from manual labour. Secondly, that the above figures of income are not equivalent to figures of production, for they do not include the value of work performed but not made the subject of exchange. Thirdly, that the said figures are not equivalent to figures of consumption, for a large portion of the income is not consumed, but re-invested. Fourthly, that a very large portion, amounting to about 80,000,000*l.* or 100,000,000*l.*, of the national income is derived from investments outside the country, and so could not be transferred to the pockets of British labourers in the form of wages in the event of an absorption by the community of the means of production at home. As to working class budgets—one of which was published by Mr. Hyndman(5)—Mr. Giffen(6) considered that their compilation and collection must be made on a larger scale and on more systematic lines than has hitherto been attempted before they will be of the slightest use for statistical purposes. Mr. Giffen's figures may be tabulated as follows:—

(1) Digest, p. 42 and Appendix CXXIII., CXXIV. (2) Digest, p. 18. (3) Digest, p. 23 and Appendix CXLIV. (4) Digest, p. 42. (5) Digest, p. 23. (6) Digest, p. 43.

[§ 504.]

TABLE I.

WAGES STATISTICS in 38 SELECTED OCCUPATIONS for 1886.

Classes of Persons.	Average earnings per week.	Average earnings per annum.	Per-centage receiving less than 10*s.* a week.	Per-centage receiving 10*s.* to 15*s.* a week.	Per-centage receiving 15*s.* to 20*s.* a week.	Per-centage receiving 20*s.* to 25*s.* a week.	Per-centage receiving 25*s.* to 30*s.* a week.	Per-centage receiving 30*s.* to 35*s.* a week.	Per-centage receiving 35*s.* to 40*s.* a week.	Per-centage receiving over 40*s.* a week.
	s. d.	£ *s.*								
Men -	24 7	64 0	0·2	2·5	20·9	35·4	23·6	11·2	4·4	1·8
Women	12 8	32 10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Boys -	9 2	23 8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Girls -	7 0	18 4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE II.

WAGES STATISTICS for MANUAL LABOURERS in the UNITED KINGDOM.

Class of persons.	Number.	Aggregate annual earnings.	Annual average* per wage earner.	Total national income.
		£	£ *s.*	
Men - -	7,300,000	439,000,000	60 0	—
Women -	2,900,000	118,000,000	40 0	—
Boys - -	1,700,000	46,000,000	23 8	—
Girls -	1,260,000	29,000,000	23 0	—
Total -	13,200,000	£633,000,000	£48 0	£1,500,000,000

* In round numbers.

Effect of trades unionism on wages.

505. Mr. J. T. W. Mitchell,(1) representing the Co-operative Union, stated that to raise wages was the function of trades unionism, whereas co-operation sought only to increase the purchasing power of the wages received. Mr. S. Webb(2) attributed the progress of the Lancashire operatives during the past 50 years to trades unionism, and looked forward to the time when the workers in industries of a necessarily fluctuating character like ship-building would have become so well organised, and so far seeing, as to manage to procure for themselves sufficient wages during good times to enable them to save enough for their support during periods of depression. Sir Thomas Farrer(3) pointed out that, in their policy with regard to wages, the trades unions manifested a tendency towards protection, not only nationally but locally. The action of their party on the London County Council, he said, furnishes instances in point. Thus, the Bridges Committee recommended the Council to accept a London tender for a ferryboat in preference to a tender, financially more worthy of acceptance, made by a Glasgow firm, on the ground that it was "the first duty of the Council, having "regard to the depressed condition of labour in London "at the present time, to give to London firms what work "can reasonably be so given, in preference to sending it "to be done outside." In this instance, however, the Council disregarded the recommendation of its committee, and the order went to the Clyde. Again, he added, on the 13th of December, 1892, Mr. Burns moved the following resolution, amending a former resolution passed in 1889,

(1) Digest, p. 8. (2) Digest, p. 19. (3) Digest, p. 24.

[§ 505.] "That all contractors be compelled to sign a declaration "that they pay the London Trades Union rates of wages, "and observe the hours and conditions of labour "recognised by the London Trades Unions." As was pointed out at the time, the effect of this resolution would be to exclude all country contractors from competition, and an amendment was carried omitting the word "London," and substituting, for the words after the word "recognised," the words "and in practice obtained by the trades "Unions in the place or places where the contract is "executed." Even in its amended form, the resolution has the effect of obliging the ratepayers of London to pay a larger price for their work than they need. Mr. C. Booth (1) stated that in the East London "sweating" trades, where the influence of trade unionism was but little felt, wages varied from good wages down to no wages except in the form of mere "keep." Mr. Fenwick(2) said that it was partly with a view to removing an instrument for reducing wages that the Trades Union Congress had condemned the system of domestic workshops.

ffect co-operation on ages.

506. Although co-operation purports only to increase the purchasing power of wages, its leaders do claim to have exercised a beneficial effect upon the wages themselves. Mr. Maxwell (3) said that the Scottish Wholesale Society, aiming, as it did, not so much at increasing its profits as at placing its workpeople in good conditions of labour, in all cases paid the full trade union rates, and where no such rates existed, higher wages than were given in private firms, the average per employé, including apprentices and unskilled labourers, being 17*s.* 3*d.* a week. In cases of sickness, moreover, employés of the said Society in receipt of "upstanding wages," *i.e.*, those that are paid for holidays, but are liable to be called upon to work overtime upon occasion for nothing, receive full wages for the four first, and half wages for the four succeeding weeks of illness. These sick allowances are charged as expenses to the department in which the recipients are employed. Most Scotch, and some English co-operative societies, moreover, give their workmen a share in the profits, and, in Mr. Maxwell's opinion, the proper realisation of the co-operative ideal would involve giving them also a share in the management. Mr. Hardern (4) contended that the fact that the industrial population of Oldham was specially well fed, well paid, well clothed, and well housed, was mainly to be attributed to the vitality of the co-operative movement in their midst.

ffect f profit-haring on vages.

507. It appeared from the evidence given by Mr. T. W. Bushill,(5) that Mr. Schloss, the author of a book called "Methods of Industrial Remuneration," had met the allegation that profit-sharing firms underpaid their men in respect of their ordinary wages by quoting extracts from trades union reports, proving that every firm that had adopted the system was paying the ordinary wages at or above the trade union minimum. There was one exception, but in that case the bonus on the wages amounted to 26 per cent. At Mr. Bushill's own firm, the wages of the letterpress printers are 28*s.* a week and upwards, with 7*d.* per hour overtime. Mr Giffen,(6) however, considered that it was because employers, whose profits were small were obliged to raise the ordinary wages of their men up to the level of the total earnings of the men employed by competing firms that had larger profits to share, that profit-sharing would not solve the whole problem of industrial remuneration.

ffect f thrift on wages.

508. A sensible increase in the rate of saving by the labouring classes, said Mr. Giffen, (7) would have an enormous effect in improving their condition, for it would bring down the rate of interest on home securities, in which their investments would chiefly be made, and so would cause a larger portion of the reward of British industries to be appropriated to labour in the form of wages. Improvement, he contended, is to be looked for in the progress of invention and education, and, above all, in the virtue of thrift. Mr. Hyndman,(8) on the other hand, was of opinion that, so far from being of value to the workers, thrift was positively injurious to them, inasmuch as it could be practised only at the expense of a self-denial impairing either their own or their children's vitality. To put money into savings banks, he added, is merely to accumulate orders on other men's labour, and is no benefit to the workers as a class, and, in any case, it is objectionable to convert the workers into small capitalists, and so to fortify the class it is desirable to eliminate. Mr. Tom Mann,(9) moreover, considered that our efforts should be directed, not towards eliminating the wants of the workers, but towards extending them and directing them into higher and nobler channels, inasmuch as the economic wants of the workers fix the minimum of their wages at the sum needed to supply them, and that it was to the development of the latent purchasing power of British workmen that employers should look for compensation for the possible loss of foreign custom, in the event of a general reduction of hours. [§ 508.]

(1) Digest, p. 26. (2) Digest, p. 27. (3) Digest, p. 11, and Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., No. 792. (4) Digest, p. 14. (5) Digest, p. 34. (6) Digest, p. 43. (7) Digest, p. 43. (8) Digest, p. 23. (9) Digest, p 17.

State policy with regard to wages.

509. Wages should not be fixed by Parliament. The establishment of a legal minimum might enable employers to meet the immediate effects of a legal day by reducing their rates of payment, and the arbitrary fixing of the actual rates of wages, even at a high figure, and with the direct intention of transferring a portion of the employers' profits to the pockets of the workers, is not desired by the large, though diminishing majority of workers that think it unfair to deprive employers of their profits altogether. Such was the statement of Mr. Tom Mann,(1) although he also said that he considered a complete elimination of profit and interest would not have a bad effect upon the prosperity of national industry generally, except in so far as capital might find other markets where it would be better paid. Mr. S. Webb,(2) moreover, while considering that the proposed regulation of the working day ought to be accompanied by a recognition of a standard minimum wage, said that such a minimum should not be fixed by law, for the workers did not seem to desire it. He pointed out, however, that the value of the relief given under the Poor Law practically did fix a legal minimum at the present time, inasmuch as a man will not long continue to work at a smaller wage than the State would give him without working at all; and Mr. Mann,(3) Mr. Webb,(4) and Mr. Hyndman (5) all considered that, in regard to their own employés, Government and municipal bodies should endeavour to lead rather than follow the market in raising the wages of their servants—a policy already carried out by by the County Council, and adversely criticised by Sir T. Farrer.(6)

Piece-work: its disadvantages.

510. The method of paying wages by the piece was strongly objected to by Mr. Allan,(7), of the firm of Messrs. Allan and Company, marine engine builders, Sunderland. He said: It is true that on purely economic grounds the system is quite justifiable, for it secures a fixed ratio betweeen the wages and the work. But in practice it operates very injuriously. Like overtime, it is unfavourable to that steady and regular employment which is so essential to the general well-being of the workers, and is a copious source of friction where, as is often found necessary, it obtains side by side with the time system. The comparatively large earnings of the piece-workers cannot but produce discontent in the minds of those, who, from the nature of their employment, are debarred from working on the same system, while the operations of the two sections of workers, being in many cases interdependent, the arbitrary and intermittent time-keeping on the part of those working at piece-work wages constitutes a real grievance and hardship to the time-workers. In slack times, moreover, a few of the piece-workers are enabled to monopolise whatever work is going, and so to continue to earn as good wages as before, while their fellows are left entirely without employment. It is plain, therefore, so Mr. Allan concluded, that all trade unions should forbid their members to work at piece wages, and should do all they can to discourage a system fraught with so much possible injury to themselves.

(1) Digest, p. 19. (2) Digest, p. 21. (3) Digest, p. 17. (4) Digest, p. 21. (5) Digest, p. 23. (6) Digest, p. 25. (7) Digest, p. 33.

(ii.) *Profit-sharing and Co-operation.*

Profit-sharing and co-operation.

511. In the evidence taken before the Committees, co-operation was dealt with as a method of industrial remuneration parallel to profit-sharing; but, in the evidence taken before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, it appears as a form of association parallel to friendly societies, building societies, and trade unions. It has appeared expedient, therefore, to summarise the evidence on this subject in immediate connexion with that on the other forms of association referred to, under the general heading "Organisations of Employed." Inasmuch, however, as the full and exhaustive account of the co-operative movement, which it has proved possible to give in that place, throws considerable light on the nature of the connexion between co-operation and profit-sharing as methods of industrial remuneration, it may be useful to call attention in advance to some of the points which will be more fully drawn out hereafter.

Co-operation its forms.

512. Briefly stated, then, the general result of the evidence on co-operation is as follows:—The co-operative movement, as it exists at present, dates from the establishment of the Rochdale Pioneer Society, in 1846. The societies formed on the Rochdale plan are consumers' societies, that is to say, associations of consumers to employ producers, but not of associations of producers to

[§ 512.] employ themselves. Their distinguishing feature is the appropriation of the profits to the purchasers in proportion to the value of their purchases. In course of time, however, associations of producers to employ themselves have been formed; but, being for the most part too weak to stand alone, they have either collapsed altogether, or fallen into the hands of the consumers' societies, or else, and this is the point most important for the present purpose, they have become amalgamated with the consumers' societies, either on the industrial partnership principle, whereby the workers share with the purchasers in both profits and management, or on the profit-sharing principle, whereby the workers share with the purchasers in profits but not in management.

Co-operative production and profit-sharing compared.

513. It would appear, therefore, that co-operative production in the only two forms in which it can be said to flourish is distinguishable from profit-sharing and industrial partnership only by the fact that the employer with whom the workers share the profits, or the profits and management, is an association of other workmen, instead of an individual or company of the capitalist class. Mr. Bushill,(1) of the firm of Messrs. Bushill and Sons, printers and bookbinders, Coventry, said that profit-sharing under a private firm had the advantage of retaining the services of the *entrepreneur* class, with all its traditional knowledge of business management, which class co-operative productive societies supplanted. And this view of the case seems to find a certain degree or confirmation in Mr. Hardern's account of the Oldham Joint Stock Companies,(2) companies chiefly controlled by the co-operative societies, in the course of which reckless speculation and bad management are mentioned as part of the cause of their comparative want of success in recent years. The representatives of the Co-operative Union, on the other hand, while praising non-co-operative profit-sharing, seemed to take the superiority of the co-operative system for granted. Thus, Mr. Maxwell(3) said: Profit-sharing under individual employers is a policy of mere justice. Indeed, it would be a great advantage to entirely supersede the wages system by the system of profit-sharing, which should always be encouraged in circumstances that preclude the substitution of the higher form of co-operation where workers and capitalists are identical. And Mr. Greenwood(4): Profit-sharing under private employers is to be encouraged, as being closely related to co-operation. It would be a great advantage to the workers. Mr. Vivian(5), moreover, stated: Partnership in profits, and eventually in management, by the workers, whether as wage earners or shareholders, might fairly be insisted upon in all cases where Government or a municipality grants monopolies or exclusive privileges to Joint Stock Companies, *e.g.*, to gas, railway, canal or tramway companies, or to dock trusts.

Attitude of the workers towards profit-sharing.

514. But, intelligible as is the attitude of co-operators towards profit-sharing, it is not quite so easy to understand the attitude of the workers themselves. According to Mr. Fenwick,(6) their attitude varies with the varying circumstances of trade and district, and, from the general tenour of the evidence given in regard to this subject, it would appear that the reason why profit-sharing is less popular than perhaps might be expected, is that it is found rather difficult to reconcile approval of it with the general policy of the trade unions. Since the primary object of the latter is to raise wages to the highest possible level, trades unionists are inclined to distrust a system which seeks to enlist the interest of the workmen in maintaining the rate of profits rather than that of wages, and which they believe to be sometimes introduced with the ulterior objects of restricting liberty of action upon the part of the men and undermining the influence of their unions. That this is actually the case would appear from the following extract from a document put in evidence by Mr. Bushill,(7) in which it is stated: — "The recent "spread of the profit-sharing system in England has "not been effected in an altogether peaceful manner. "About two years ago, the South Metropolitan Gas "Company of London put forward a scheme containing "originally a clause which entailed the forfeiture of part "of the workmen's benefit in the event of his striking (a "clause which was soon afterwards withdrawn). The "Company's scheme was accepted with cordiality by the "non-unionist workers, but it was met by the gas-stokers, "at the instance of the leaders of their Union, by a demand "for its immediate withdrawal. This demand not being "entertained, the gas stokers, almost to a man, struck "work. The places of the strikers were filled without "much delay, and the scheme is now reported to be giving "satisfaction to the present staff and to the management. "The subsequent rejection of a profit-sharing scheme "proposed by the Thames Ironworks, Co. Limited, [§ 514.] "(which was free from any penal or hampering conditions) "may be in part attributed to the prejudice existing in the "minds of London Trade Unionists against the system."

In view of this prejudice, Mr. Bushill went on to say, "it "may be well to state that in several recent schemes it is "expressly provided that 'profit-sharers will be free to "'become or remain members of any trade or friendly "'society'"; while Mr. R. Martin, of West Hartlepool, gave still stronger evidence that all profit-sharing employers are not hostile to trade unionism, by prescribing as one of the qualifications for participation, the condition: "Profit-"sharers *must* be members of their trade society."

The existence of this prejudice is still more strongly attested by the following extract from a pamphlet(1) drawn up by the London United Building Trades' Committee. It runs thus:—"Fellow workmen, we beg to draw your "attention more closely to the scheme of profit-sharing "now introduced by Messrs. Peto, Brothers. Their pro-"posal to give one quarter of the whole net profits on the "contract for the Cane Hill Asylum (Extension) is of such "importance as affecting the relations between employers "and employed that we consider it our duty to submit a "few objections, more particularly to the conditions and "restrictions contained therein. Profit-sharing is neither "a philanthropic nor a charitable project, but a business "arrangement for mutual advantage, the success of which "will entirely depend on the hearty co-operation of the "workmen, which Messrs. Peto, Brothers have made im-"possible by the unreasonable and humiliating restrictions "accompanying their proposal.

"(a) *All right to participate in the profit will be forfeited "by any who earn less than a total amount of 5l. in "wages on the contract.*

"(b) *All share of profit will be forfeited by any who may "individually or in combination do anything tending "to diminish the profits on the contract by neglecting "their duties, misconducting themselves, wasting their "time, or by joining any strike for shorter hours, or "for wages above the existing recognised rate of "wages, on which the tender for the above mentioned "contract was based, whether the strike be general "or otherwise.*

"(c) *All profit will be forfeited by any one who may do "anything tending to damage the character of the "firm for good and honest work. The shares of any "men so forfeiting their claims to be added to the "shares of the others.*"

Mr. Tom Mann, moreover, pointed out that the process of the introduction of profit-sharing and industrial partnership involved a distinct drawback in a tendency to lift the section of men to which they are being applied out of the ranks of the army of labour, and so hinder the process of the general movement which he desired to accelerate. It would further appear that the men themselves are to some extent influenced by the same idea. Thus, Mr. Fenwick(2) said that in fluctuating trades the men were generally hostile to profit-sharing, because they think that by allowing a higher rate of interest to capital in order to cover the loss during times of depression, which they themselves are not prepared to share, they are causing a proportionate reduction in wages. They may also, he added, be influenced by the idea that they would be able, during good times, to make a better bargain in securing advances of wages than they are able to do under a profit-sharing scheme. Mr. Hardern,(3) moreover, stated that the recent abandonment by the Oldham Joint Stock Companies of the profit-sharing principle, on which they were originally conducted, was due quite as much to the dislike of the workers to the fluctuations in their earnings which the scheme entailed and to their idea that their ordinary wages were being adversely affected, as to a feeling among the shareholders that profits ought to be shared only by those that shared losses. In these circumstances, therefore, it might be expected that the workmen and their unions would definitely decide against profit-sharing. But such is by no means the case. Thus, Mr. Mann,(4) while complaining that profit-sharing had the effect of taking workmen out of the ranks of the army of labour, declared, almost in the same breath, that he nevertheless heartily approved of it, and of industrial partnership more heartily still. This can only be accounted for by the fact that profit-sharing is felt by the workers to be an advantage in cases where its benefits are not obscured by such unfavourable circumstances as fluctuating trade, &c., and that their unions are compelled to modify their natural policy in correspondence with this feeling. Indeed, Mr. Fenwick's statement(5) to the effect that the men's attitude towards

(1) Digest, p. 35. (2) Digest, p. 15. (3) Digest p. 12. (4) Digest, p. 18. (5) Digest, p. 15. (6) Digest, p. 27. (7) Appendix CII., and *cf.* Summary, Group C., Part II., paragraph 428.

(1) Appendix CIV. (2) Digest, p. 27. (3) Digest, p. 15. (4) Digest, p. 19. (5) Digest, p. 27.

[§ 514.] profit-sharing varied, proves that it is sometimes favourable. And from the following extract from Mr. Bushill's evidence it would appear that it was sometimes very favourable indeed. Mr. Bushill(1) said:—With a view to testing the men's real opinion as to the working of the profit-sharing scheme established by the firm, the manager suggested to the men's committee that they should pass the resolution which they afterwards did pass, and which read as follows:—

"The Employees Consulting Committee hears with "satisfaction that the Royal Commission now sitting is "seeking evidence as to the success or non-success of the "profit-sharing system, and, with a view to securing a free "and independent expression of opinion from each adult "employee, they propose that a paper be given out on "Saturday, November 12th, to each employee above the "age of 21, on which he may write briefly (in ink) his "opinion from his own point of view: 1st, of the prin-"ciple of profit-sharing; 2nd, of the results here (no "figures to be mentioned); 3rd, of the details of our "system. Own handwriting not necessary, and no "name to be signed. A free expression is invited. If "anyone wishes to express an opinion on the shortened "hours, the space on the back of the paper should be "used."

Nearly all the men to whom circulars were sent furnished replies, of which the following are representative specimens:—

"Principle of profit-sharing is a form of co-operation "between employer and employed, the latter partaking of "a certain part of the profits gained year by year, if "successful, after interest has been deducted for use of "capital. Results: After working under the system of "profit-sharing for some years, I find it has been the "means of making me work more economically, trying to "get out the most possible work in the least possible time. "It has also been an incentive to save, fostering in me "ideas of things which, perhaps, I never should have had. "The details: According to profits made and bonuses "declared, depending upon my weekly wage, part of "which is paid in cash, the rest detained at interest "till I am 65 years of age, or 25 years' continual service. "A proviso is made that an earlier payment can be made "in case of leaving earlier than this. In case of death "the balance would be paid to my representatives."

Another reply reads as follows:—

"I cordially approve of the principle of profit-sharing, "and I consider the results of the first four years' working "in this establishment to have been most satisfactory. "The results have good, not only financially, but also for "creating a feeling of brotherhood and mutual helpfulness "throughout nearly the whole of the staff, and for adding "a new and pleasant zest to all our duties. We under-"stand better now than we did at first the meaning of the "scheme, how and where we can economise and where we "can suggest. I like to think that my provident fund "cannot be drawn upon for immediate use, but is safely "locked up for the future. It is a great stimulus to see "the balance steadily growing, and at the same time to "know that it is a perfectly safe investment, under the "security given by the firm. Severe personal losses in "the late building societies smashes have rudely shaken "any thriftiness of character I ever possessed, and con-"sequently increased my appreciation of this provident "fund. I trust the firm will be willing to assist me to "find an equally secure investment when it comes to my "turn to withdraw it. I consider the annual audit and "general details to be thoroughly satisfactory."

And another states:—

"The principle is very good, and undoubtedly more "beneficial to the workman than the employer. I look "upon it as a free gift, for I should have had to work had "nothing of the kind ever been started. I wish it had "been started 20 years ago. Results have been simply "grand, and might be kept up and made even better if "all the foremen would take the lead and set the example. "The details are all right."

Profit-sharing viewed from the employers' standpoint.

515. Viewed from the employers' standpoint, said Mr. Bushill,(2) it must be admitted that, in spite of the men's greater industry, &c., the profit system has not, in the case of our own firm, effected a saving equal to the sums expended in bonuses. Still it has proved to possess certain economic advantages. First, there has been less need of supervision, in other words, profit-sharing has introduced a system of mutual foremanship. Secondly, the men have become more economical both in time and in material, and have shown a greater readiness to devise cheaper methods of production. Thirdly, the existence of the system has tended to secure and to retain in the service of the firm the best workers, and, though it has involved a certain increase in clerical work, it has had a very beneficial effect upon the *morale* of the workers, and has resulted in an almost complete absence of loss of time through intemperance and of applications for charity recommendations. Mr. Bushill's remarks, however, were based solely upon the experience of a successful firm. In the application of the profit-sharing principle to less successful businesses, a weak point was pointed out by Mr. Giffen,(1) who said that employers whose profits were small or non-existent could only work the system by raising their ordinary wages up to the level of the total earnings of the men employed by competing profit-sharing firms that had large profits to share. And, for this reason, he thought that profit-sharing, which was as yet in a very early stage of experiment, would never solve the whole problem of industrial remuneration. [§ 515.]

(1) Digest, p. 34. (2) Digest, p. 34.

Profit-sharing: its theory and practice.

516. As to the theory and practice of profit-sharing, Mr. Bushill(2) gave full and detailed information, which may be arranged as follows:—Profit-sharing, its definition, it forms, its extent, its so-called failures, and the various methods of effecting the division of profits; profit-sharing as practised in the firm of Messrs. T. Bushill and Sons; and profit-sharing as compared with gain-sharing and industrial partnership. The definition of profit-sharing by the Paris Congress, that met in 1889 to consider the subject, as "a voluntary agreement under which the employees "receive a share, fixed beforehand, in the profits of the "business," is not—so Mr. Bushill thought—sufficiently comprehensive. The previous settlement of a basis, he said, is not an essential feature of the system. The main point is rather the payment of bonuses bearing a ratio to profits that has been determined, or is capable of being determined, independently of the volition of the employer. Mr. Schloss, in his book on "Methods of Industrial Remuneration," has divided profit sharing schemes under five heads. First, what he calls surrender participation; secondly, stimulus participation; thirdly, non-practical participation; fourthly, deferred participation; and, fifthly, bribe participation. The first is where a firm surrenders such a portion of its present profits as it cannot reasonably expect the increased zeal of its employés to make good. The second is where a firm surrenders only such a portion as it can reasonably expect to be so made good. The third is where the system is introduced by a firm that does not understand how to work it properly. The fourth prevails where a firm, desiring to prevent its servants leaving its service, joining rival firms, or starting opposition businesses, allots to them, year by year, a certain amount, withdrawable only after a certain lapse of time, and then only if they have not left its service. The term "bribe participation" is applicable where the system is introduced with the object of detaching men from their trade unions. The last three classes are, in varying degrees, open to censure, but against the first two no objection can reasonably be urged. To these classes two may be added. First, minus participation, or a scheme whereby a firm pays low ordinary wages in consideration of the bonuses. Secondly, stock-broking or advertising participation, or a scheme of profit-sharing introduced for the purpose of rigging the market. A firm, for example, is converting its business, and, perhaps, watering its stock very considerably, and, accordingly, it advertises that all its profits above 10 per cent. are to be distributed among the workers, knowing that the profits will never reach the specified per-centage. Profit-sharing is being worked successfully at the present time in the following trades, amongst others:—Chemical, confectionery, gas, grocery, oil-cake, printing, and woollen manufacturing. The present total of profit-sharing firms is 77, with over 16,000 employees. Of these firms, four are colonial, including the firm of Messrs. W. Walker, of Ceylon and Glasgow, which admits natives as well as Europeans to the benefits of the scheme. The largest profit-sharing concern is the South Metropolitan Gas Company. In Mr. Schloss' book. 15 cases of failure to work the system are recorded, but of these three belong to the "impractical" class, three to the "bribe" class, and two to the "stockbroking" or "advertising" class, and of the remaining six none have given the scheme a sufficiently long trial. Under a profit-sharing scheme there are two alternative methods of calculating the division of profits. First, the method of the reserved limit, and secondly, the method of per-centage. The former is where a firm divides with its employees all the profits over and above a certain fixed sum which it reserves to itself, and the latter is where the employees receive a certain fixed per-centage on the entire net profits. This latter is generally found more workable in fluctuating trades.

(1) Digest, p. 48. (2) Digest, p. 33, and Appendix XCIX.-CV.

[§ 517.] Profit sharing as practised in the firm of Messrs. T. Bushill and Sons.

517. In the firm of Messrs. Thomas Bushill and Sons, the reserved limit methodis the one adopted. In this instance, the profit-sharing system has prevailed since 1888. 185 persons are employed, 79 of whom are paid by time, 47 at progressive wages, and 59 by the piece. In order to qualify for participation in the scheme, every employee is required, first, to definitely express a desire to participate, and secondly, to belong to the provident fund established in connexion with the works. The men are given neither the rights nor the liabilities of partnership. They have a committee, but its duties are purely consultative. The basis of the division of profits is *pro ratâ* to the normal weekly wage. Of each man's share, one third is paid in cash, and two thirds are paid into the man's credit account on the books of the provident fund. This fund is invested in the business, but is secured by a mortgage on the premises, and thus made independent of the vicissitudes of the trade. The firm pays 4 per cent. interest on the sums so invested. A workman leaving the service of the firm gets his bonus credited for the portion of the year he has worked, not reckoning fractions of a month, and retains his full claim on the provident fund. Under ordinary circumstances, such claims are payable on the man attaining the age of 65, or on completing 25 years continuous service, whichever date first transpires, and in the event of death, or, in the case of a female employee, of marriage, payment is made immediately. An employee guilty of embezzlement or felony forfeits the whole of his claim on the fund, such claim reverting, in the first instance, to the firm as indemnity for loss sustained, and the balance to the men's committee, to dispose of as they think best in the interests of the other workers. The rules contain no clause depriving persons going out on strike of their claims on the fund. With a view to the encouragement of thrift, the cash portion of the men's share in the profits is paid into their individual accounts at the savings bank. At present, the post office regulations forbid a man having more than one account in his own name. He should be enabled to have a second account in respect of the money for which his employer is trustee. There seems to be a doubt as to whether the bonuses under a definite profit-sharing scheme are legally recoverable. It is important that this point should be settled, and perhaps the further point should be weighed as to the expediency of giving such bonuses the same priority of claim as ordinary wages.

Profit-sharing compared with gain-sharing and industrial partnership.

518. Gain-sharing, said Mr. Busbill,(1) is distinguished from profit-sharing proper, in that in the case of the former, the employer puts down in the estimate on which he bases his tender so much money as the probable cost of the labour involved in the work, and then offers the men a certain proportion of the sum saved if they do it in less time, and, therefore, at a smaller cost. The drawbacks to this system are: 1st, that the payments must be made at very short intervals, thereby entailing a great deal of clerical work; 2nd, that it occasions frequent disputes as to the basis of participation; 3rd, it sectionalises the men too much into separate departments. The time does not seem to be ripe for the introduction of a system of industrial partnership, such as prevails in the firm of Mr. G. Thomson,* woollen manufacturers, Huddersfield, nor do the advantages of the system seem to be proportionate to the loss resulting from the hampering of the management which the scheme entails.

Profit-sharing: under what conditions successful.

519. Mr. Ludlow,(2) referring to the profit-sharing principle, pointed out that its successful operation demanded perfect mutual confidence. If introduced by an employer on the morrow of a strike in order to get more out of his men, it is bound to fail. A very remarkable example of profit-sharing, he added, is furnished in the case of Brownfield's Guild Pottery, Staffordshire, where a record of 70 years free from strikes proves the existence of the essential condition of mutual confidence; 350 men, women, and children, he said, share profits, and have subscribed 2,000*l.* towards the capital.

2. HOURS.

(i.) *Statements of Hours.*

Overtime: its disadvantages.

520. Overtime was to be very sternly forbidden under the schemes for State regulation of hours proposed by Messrs. Webb(3) and Hyndman(4), the former of whom characterised it as a costly and inefficient expedient. But it was from Mr. Allan(5), of the firm of Messrs. Allan and Co., Sunderland, that there came the severest strictures on the subject. Overtime, he said, is an economic absurdity, for it is ridiculous to define the number of hours worked per day when that number is being systematically exceeded. The system is responsible for the idleness, or only partial employment, of a large number of workmen; it fosters a spirit of discontent in the breasts of those who do not get the extra work. The overtime system should be discouraged by all trades unions, if only because irregularity of employment is its inevitable result. No man can work overtime without physical degeneration, physical degeneration produces discontent, and discontent causes strikes. [§ 520.]

Sunday work.

521. Dr. Gritton, who is the vice-president of the Lord's Day Observance Society of London, put in certain tables,(1) which he had prepared specially for the information of the Commission, exhibiting the variations in the amount of Sunday labour performed in 17 different branches of industry. The general result of those tables is given by the following specimen:—

TABLE showing the STATISTICS of SUNDAY WORK in 17 INDUSTRIES.

Character of Factory.	1. No. of factories.	2. Limits of size. Employing.	3. Whole number of men employed.	4. Employed on Sunday.	5. Percentage of Sunday work.
Brewing	198	2 to 1,400	7,653	617	8·07
Brickmaking	17	5 to 850	2,337	21	0·89
Building	5	35 to 850	1,715	4	0·23
Chemicals	143	2 to 920	10,491	249	0·10
Cotton	492	7 to 1,845	145,329	249	0·10
Engineering—					
Electrical	18	12 to 1,200	2,830	58	2·05
Mechanical	84	5 to 5,297	24,168	164	0·71
Municipal	43	7 to 800	5,756	460	7·99
Gas	292	2 to 8,840	30,477	5,506	18·00
Glass	45	6 to 1,800	5,951	99	1·66
Hardware	55	2 to 600	7,324	30	0·41
Iron and Steel	112	5 to 4,500	34,242	3,127	9·13
Linen	22	6 to 3,000	8,891	7	0·08
Mining	283	5 to 6,249	77,057	1,549	2·01
Pottery	48	3 to 1,130	9,360	79	0·84
Shipbuilding	75	4 to 7,272	59,999	86	0·14
Woollen	268	5 to 1,150	55,803	113	0·20
Total	2,200	—	489,383	12,705	2·59

The amount of Sunday labour to ordinary days (columns 3 and 4) is 2·59 per cent.
Extremes of Sunday work (column 5) are: linen, 0·08, and gas, 18·00 per cent.

It appears from these tables that the variations are considerable. In some cases, the number of the workers employed on Sunday is only 1 per cent., while in others it is as large as 18 per cent. The prevalence of Sunday work is due, sometimes to the men's desire to get the higher wages paid for it, sometimes to their preference to take their holiday on a day when public-houses are more freely accessible, and sometimes to want of energy on the part of employers in adopting the best means to diminish it. In the case of gasworks, it is pleaded that Sunday work enables the public to be supplied at a lower rate than would otherwise be the case; but the economy effected in this way is infinitesimal, amounting, according to Mr. Livesey, to less than three farthings per 1,000 feet on the whole of the gas. Of the 10,000 forms of inquiry issued by the witness, 7,000 failed to elicit replies, and as these probably represent the worst cases, the average number of workmen, given in 2,200 returns as amounting to 2.59 per cent., is probably considerably below the actual average for the whole country. The large firm of Messrs. Hawthorne, shipbuilders and engineers, Newcastle, employing more than 3,000 men, has managed to abolish Sunday work altogether. The witness considered all Sunday work above the minimum arrived at by the best firms to be unnecessary, and he desired the Commission to express the same opinion. He had, however, no hope that further legislation in regard to the observance of Sunday would be more effective than the legislation which already existed, but was broken and despised.(2)

* See Summary, Group C., Part I., paragraph 332.

(1) Digest, p. 35. (2) Digest, p. 37. (3) Digest, p. 22. (4) Digest, p. 23. (5) Digest, p. 33.

(1) Appendix LXXXIII. (2) Digest, p. 32.

(ii.) *Limitation of Hours by Law.*

[§ 522.] The movement for shorter hours: its objects.

522. It appears from the evidence given by Messrs. Tom Mann,(1) S. Webb,(2) and H. M. Hyndman,(3) that the movement for shorter hours has two main objects:—1st, employment of the unemployed; 2nd, less work for those employed already. In opposition, it is contended that the first would not be attained by the proposed means, and that the attainment of the second would involve economic loss. Messrs. Mann, Webb and Hyndman, accordingly, argue: 1st, that neither contention is proved; and, 2nd, that, even if true, they do not affect the desirability of the proposed reform, which rests on non-economic as well as on economic grounds.

Shorter hours, and the absorption of the unemployed.

523. The economic arguments affect two issues:—First, the employment of the unemployed; and, secondly, the effect of shorter hours on the cost of production. With regard to the first, Mr. Webb (4) stated positively that the result of a shortening and regulation of the hours of labour would be to create vacancies in permanent and well-organised industries for persons now employed in casual and irregular ones. Mr. Hyndman,(5) however, confessed to a doubt as to whether a permanent absorption of the unemployed would take place, in view of the improved machinery which the proposed reform would induce manufacturers to adopt. Mr. Mann's (6) evidence on this point was to the following effect:—In trades where the reduction of hours diminished the daily production per man, the desired absorption would take place, provided that prices were not raised and the public demand checked in consequence. Prices, however, would so rise unless the reduction of hours was supplemented by a re-organisation of industry in the hands of the State, for unless the wages for the additional hands required came out of the pocket of the public in the form of higher prices, they must be provided out of the fund appropriated to interest and profits, and private employers would rather leave a demand unsupplied than supply it on those terms. At the same time, if employers were to voluntarily raise their wage bills by employing more hands to produce the same output at the same price, the stimulus given to industry by the increase in the workers' purchasing powers would cause an improvement in the mechanical arts of production which would be more than sufficient to recoup them for their loss. Again, in trades where the reduction of hours so far improved the efficiency of the workers as to positively increase the daily output per man, an absorption of the unemployed would take effect, provided that organised effort proved sufficiently powerful to raise the wages and increase the purchasing power of the workers, thereby creating a new demand, which additional hands would be wanted to supply. The assumption on which the argument here given is based in both cases, is that a transfer of purchasing power from capitalists to workers would result in an increased total consumption, for it is unlikely that the former would reduce their expenditure to the same extent as the latter would increase theirs. In answer to these arguments, however, it was pointed out by Mr. R. Giffen (7) that the experience of strikes has shown that a diminution of the output per worker has not only not caused an absorption of the unemployed, but has had the effect of throwing out of work members of other trades that are dependent for their employment upon the work of the trade whose members have struck. Mr. T. W. Bushill,(8) also, stated that the recent reduction of the hours of labour at his own works from 54 to 50 per week had caused no diminution of the production, and that no such diminution would result from a general reduction of hours throughout the manufacturing trades. He concluded, therefore, that such a general reduction would not be accompanied by an absorption of the unemployed.

Shorter hours and the cost of production.

524. As to the effect of shortening of hours upon the cost of production, Mr. Webb(9) said that, even if it were admitted that the cost would be raised, such an increase of cost would not necessarily be followed by either a fall in wages or a reduction in the public demand, causing a diminution in the amount of commodities produced. Unless the price were raised, he contended, demand, production and wages would remain the same, and the loss would fall exclusively upon interest and profits. And that prices would not necessarily be raised is proved by the fact that the increased cost of working railways, caused by a shortening of hours, has not been followed by a rise of fares. A reduction of profits and interest, moreover, would not necessarily either check the accumulation, or cause the emigration of capital. The rate of interest is only one of the many potent influences that cause capital to be accumulated, and there is no danger of a larger proportion of English capital going abroad so long as the gap between the rates of interest paid in foreign countries and those paid at home continues to become narrower instead of wider. And, as a guarantee that it will not become wider, there is the fact that other countries are rapidly following in our footsteps along the path of labour legislation. Mr. Webb pointed out, however, that the admission which he had made at the outset to the effect that a shortening of hours would cause a rise in the cost of production was merely hypothetical,(1) and that economists had hitherto been loth to commit themselves to any definite expression of opinion with regard to what is popularly known as the eight hours' movement, doubtless owing to the extreme difficulty of prophesying its economic effect. Mr. Tom Mann(2) contended that it was unlikely that a reduction of hours would injure us even in respect of our trade with other nations, inasmuch as our competitors are moving along the same course of social legislation as ourselves, and it is not in spite, but because of the relatively shorter hours worked by British labourers, that British commerce has occupied for so long a time its leading position. The textile operatives of Yorkshire, for example, do not fear, and have no cause to fear, a reduction of their hours to 48 per week while their French competitors are working 66. Again, even if the proposed reduction did result in a loss of foreign trade, Mr. Mann contended that British employers would find ample compensation in the development of the latent purchasing power of British workmen. Important as our foreign trade is, he urged, it is the fact that it absorbs a disproportionately large amount of the products of our industry. Too much both of our goods and of our capital goes abroad, when there are plenty of persons at home to be supplied with the former and employed by the latter. The depression of English trade is due to the failing credit of the foreign countries for which we cater. The trade we might do at home would not be liable to depression from causes external to ourselves, and it would, therefore, be desirable to be rather more self-supporting. Messrs. Mann(3) and Hyndman(4) agreed with Mr. Webb(5) in considering that, whatever increase in the cost of production there might be, it would not fall upon wages, the latter pointing to the fact that rises in wages and reductions in hours have always been concomitant. On the other hand, Sir T. Farrer(6) contended that, for certain classes of the community, an eight hours' day would be simply out of the question, and that Mr. Mann had failed to show how his proposed reform could be effected without trenching either on the wages of those employed already or on the profits of employers to an extent sufficient to drive capital out of the country. Mr. Giffen,(7) moreover, explained that, though reductions in hours and rises in wages might have gone together hitherto, it was only because such reductions had been made in consequence—not in defiance—of economic conditions, and were really only another form that rises in wages had assumed. In fact, he added, a legislative interference with the hours of labour must, on purely economic grounds, be pronounced either unnecessary or injurious. It is unnecessary in trades where additional leisure is an economic advantage, for in such cases the hours are being reduced spontaneously, and in trades where additional leisure would involve economic loss, it is a mere tautology to say that it would be economically injurious. To throw the burden of such loss upon profits and interest would be impossible, for an attempt to do so could only result in the withdrawal of the capital, which it is only just worth while to utilise for the purpose of employing labour at the present rates of interest and in the consequent increase of competition in the labour market of workers thrown out of employment.

[§ 524.]

Non-economic arguments concerning shorter hours.

525. Putting economical considerations aside, however, Mr. Giffen(8) himself thought that, on social and humanitarian grounds, it might possibly be expedient to invite the legislature to consider the advisability of limiting the hours of labour in certain specified trades. Mr. Hyndman(9) went so far as to say that no trade was worth retaining at the cost of the physical deterioration of the workers, and Messrs. Webb(10) and Mann(11) both insisted on the raising of the workers' standard of life being an end desirable for its own sake, apart from economic considerations. It is noticeable that Mr. C. Booth (12) did not view the possible extinction of the so-called "sweating" trades with complacency. According to him, the problem was to get rid of the surplus workers, and to improve their efficiency, without boycotting "sweated" goods in such a

(1) Digest, p. 16, and Appendix LXXI. and LXXII. (2) Digest, p. 22, and Appendix LXXIII. (3) Digest, p. 23. (4) Digest, p. 22. (5) Digest, p. 23. (6) Digest, p. 16. (7) Digest, p. 43. (8) Digest, p. 35. (9) Digest, p. 22.

(1) Appendix LXXIV. (2) Digest, p. 17. (3) Digest, p. 17. (4) Digest, p. 23. (5) Digest, p. 22. (6) Digest, p. 23. (7) Digest, p. 43. (8) Digest p. 43. (9) Digest, p. 23. (10) Digest, p. 22. (11) Digest, p. 17. (12) Digest p. 25.

[§ 525.] way as to immediately extinguish the industries that produce them. In fact, he considered that a legal limitation of the hours of labour could not be expected to solve the problem by itself, and, although, like Messrs. Webb, Mann, and Hyndman, he did desire it, he desired it only as part of a general scheme of reform. The objection to a policy of suppression as applied to "sweating" was put more forcibly by Sir T. Farrer,(1) an opponent of the eight hours' movement. Nobody, he said, would defend the "sweating" system, *i.e.*, the principle of squeezing the utmost pennyworth of work out of the poor and helpless. But it is very difficult to state a formula for suppressing it. To refuse to buy "sweated" goods would oblige us to precisely define what "sweated" goods are, and, while raising our own expenses, would leave the personse engaged in their production to starve altogether. Suppose, for example, we were to refuse to purchase Indian corn because the Indian ryot was insufficiently paid, the only result would be to starve the ryot as well as ourselves. Mr. Webb,(2) however, thought that the effect of a reduction of hours on the "sweating" trades would cut both ways. It might make them unprofitable, but it would certainly create vacancies in permanent and well organised industries for persons now employed in casual and irregular ones, and so would raise the standard of life among the workers generally, to the great improvement both in their industrial efficiency and in their character as citizens.

State regulation: its expediency.

526. Granting the expediency of reducing the hours, whether on economic grounds or on humanitarian grounds, or on both, the next question considered was whether it was necessary for the State to interfere. If it was economically advantageous to all concerned, Mr. Giffen(3) thought it would come of itself, and that legislative action was, therefore, unnecessary. But Mr. Webb(4) pointed out that the economic effect was so far from obvious that theorists did not venture to offer any prediction on the matter, and that, owing to this uncertainty, the proposed reform would not come of itself without a struggle. The trades unions, it is true, might conduct such a struggle, but that the matter should be left to them is undesirable on three important grounds: First, because trades union action is more effective among well organised workers than among the less fortunate ones, that need help the most. Secondly, because it generally involves an expensive strike which, even if successful, leaves no guarantee that the advantages gained in good times will not be taken away in succeeding periods of depression. And, thirdly, because it excludes an important party to the transaction, viz., the public, from a voice in the matter. It is quite possible for the trades unions and the employers to mutually agree upon a shortening of hours for the express purpose of taxing the public, and an Act for Parliament is the only medium through which the consent of the public to be so taxed can be expressed. The superior efficacy of Parliamentary to trade union action was also pleaded by Mr. Mann,(5) who added that the use of trade union power would not be a means of preserving the liberty of the individual in respect of his hours of labour, for the simple reason that such liberty was irrevocably lost already.

State regulation: methods of applying.

527. Assuming, therefore, the expediency of State interference, the witnesses made the following suggestions as to how the desired Act of Parliament should be drafted.

(i.) Mr. Hyndman's scheme.

Mr. Hyndman(6) proposed to provide for a strict limitation of the hours of labour to eight per day, or 48 per week, in every trade and every profession, overtime being in no case permitted and the principles of trade and local option being on no account entertained. No other witness, however, was in favour of so extreme a measure.

(ii.) The Trades Union Congress scheme.

Thus, Mr. Fenwick, M.P.,(7) representing the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress, said that the present instructions to the said Committee were: "to promote a bill regulating the hours of labour to eight "per day, or 48 per week, in all trades and occupations "except mining,* which Bill shall contain a clause "enabling the organised members of any trade or occupa- "tion protesting by ballot against the same to be "exempted from its provisions."

(iii.) Mr. Tom Mann's scheme.

Mr. Tom Mann's scheme(8) was to pass an Act compelling municipal and county authorities to limit the hours to 48 per week, or less, in any trade within their jurisdiction where a three-fourths majority of the adult workers of either sex demanded it. To meet the case of breakdowns and periods of pressure, local councils, composed of representatives of employers and employed, should be appointed to grant exemptions from the rule. The definition of the limits of each trade should be made in the Act of Parliament. It should include all workers, whether skilled or unskilled, whose services are essential to the prosecution of the trade in question. Labourers employed in more industries than one should have a vote in connexion with each. Provision should also be made for the registration of those entitled to vote for each trade. But the determination of the districts should be left to the workers themselves. That is to say, if the workers employed within the jurisdiction of one local authority considered that it would not be safe for them to reduce their hours of labour until their fellows in a neighbouring jurisdiction did the same, they should wait until concerted action could be arranged. In the application of the Act to agriculture, an exception should be made for harvest time. Mr. Mann characterised a universal eight hours' day on the lines laid down by Mr. Hyndman as inexpedient, and considered that no scheme of State Regulation should extend to persons working as their own employers and not for wages, although, for the more effective administration of a law regulating the hours of labour, he would like the legislature to compel employers to provide factories for their workpeople instead of giving out work to be done in domestic workshops. [§ 527.]

(iv.) Mr. Webb's scheme.

Mr. Webb's evidence(1) on the point was as follows:— The desired Act of Parliament should not take the form of an enactment limiting the hours of labour throughout the country to eight, or to any specific number indiscriminately, and without regarding the peculiar circumstances of trade and district. Such a law would not be workable. But it should take the form of an amendment to the Factory Acts, empowering the Secretary of State responsible for the administration of those Acts to make an order regulating the hours of any trade that seemed to require it. Before making such an order, he should ascertain the views of the majority of those concerned in the trade in question, and, in order to ascertain these views, he might adopt the same machinery as is now constantly employed by the Local Government Board for similar purposes. The order once made, however, should be rigidly enforced. While making due provision for cases of emergency, overtime, a costly and inefficient expedient, should be absolutely forbidden, and no district or portion of a trade should be suffered to claim exemption. If a particular district were to be exempted from the rule to which the rest of the trade was subject, a minority would be given an unfair advantage in competing with the majority, and trade would consequently be driven to the district exempted from the rule and working long hours, that is to say, the interests of the best and largest would be sacrificed to the interest of the worst and smallest portion of the trade. The objection to district option applies only to trades where the several districts serve the same market. The case of local industries which do not come into competition with the same industries elsewhere is different, and demands different treatment. Such industries are tramways, shops, &c. In their case, the proposed amendment to the Factory Acts might empower the municipalities and other local authorities, instead of the Secretary of State, to make the order regulating the hours of labour. This order would thus take the form of a corporation bye-law, and would be subject, like other bye-laws, to the veto of the Home Secretary. Mr. Webb concluded by intimating that it would be a grave error to limit the power of the Secretary of State or of local authorities in regulating hours to the case of day workmen, leaving piece-workers exempt, and called attention to the fact that the miners, who were almost all piece-workers, were also the most ardent supporters of the eight hours' movement.

(v.) Scheme approved by Messrs. Giffen, Harford, and Hardern.

Mr. Giffen(2) stated that a legal eight hours' day, generally enforced, would be injurious to the workers, and that trade and local option would be unworkable, owing to the extreme difficulty both of defining the limits of each trade and of effecting the necessary registration of members. The only practicable method, in his opinion, would be to limit the hours of labour in certain specified trades by direct enactment. A proposal based on this principle was made by Mr. Harford,(3) representing the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress, who desired an Act to be passed limiting the hours of railway servants to eight per day for signalmen and other specially busy classes, and to ten for the rest, and Mr. Hardern,(4) representing the Co-operative Union, declared that co-operative managers would be opposed to any Eight Hours' Act except one applying to the cotton trade universally, and accompanied by similar enactments on the part of foreign legislatures in respect of the same industry.

* The Witness explained that the exception as to miners was introduced because they did not want the provisions of the separate Bill that they were promoting on their own account to be tacked on to a Bill relating to other industries.

(1) Digest, p. 25. (2) Digest, p. 22. (3) Digest, p. 43. (4) Digest, p. 22. (5) Digest, p. 17. (6) Digest, p. 23, and Appendix CXLII. (7) Digest, p 26. (8) Digest, p. 16.

(1) Digest, p. 22. (2) Digest, p. 43. (3) Digest, p. 27. (4) Digest, p. 41.

[§ 528.] State regulation: progress of trade union opinion concerning.

528. Mr. Fenwick(1) traced the growth of trade union opinion on the subject of State interference with the hours of adult male labour as follows:—The question was first discussed at the Trade Union Congress at Bradford, in 1888, where the meeting instructed its Parliamentary Committee to take a vote of the members of the various unions on the following questions:—

(*a.*) Are you in favour of an eight hours' working day?

(*b.*) Are you in favour of it being obtained by Act of Parliament?

Only those that voted "Aye" in the first case were supposed to be entitled to vote in the second. In answer to the first question, the number of persons sending replies was 107,046. The total membership of societies taking part in the ballot was 178,376. voting as follows:—"Ayes," 39,656; "Noes," 67,390. In answer to the second, 40,794 replies were returned, of which 28,511 were "Ayes," and 12,283 were "Noes." At the Congress held at Dundee, however, in 1889, a motion to reject the result of the plebescite on account of the unsatisfactory nature of the returns was carried, after a protracted debate, by a large majority of the delegates; but in the following year the delegates assembled at Liverpool were induced for the first time to pass a resolution in favour of a legal eight hours' day. The number of delegates was 457. There were 193 "Ayes," 155 "Noes," and 109 abstentions. At Newcastle, in the following year, the same motion was put, and there was a proportional gain of 52 for the "Ayes"; but at Glasgow, in 1892, the motion was modified by the introduction of the principle of trade exemption, and was carried with a proportional loss for the "Ayes" of 50. The different results of the voting by delegates and by plebescite respectively, is due partly to the different sizes of the constituencies, but chiefly to the different majorities by which the delegates are elected. The present instructions to the Parliamentary Committee are to promote a Bill. regulating the hours of labour, but admitting the principle of trade exemption.

A 48 hours' week: an experiment in working.

529. An experiment in working a 48 hours week has been made by Mr. Allan,(2) a marine engine builder, Sunderland, who explained that the 48 hours rule had been in operation in his firm for 12 months. The daily hours are eight and three-quarters on five days of the week, and four and a quarter on Saturday. No overtime is worked, except in cases of emergency. Between 300 and 400 men are employed. They are all paid by the day. When the shorter hours were introduced, Mr. Allan made an arrangement with the men whereby they should accept a 5 per cent. reduction in wages, to be restored if no loss of production proved to be the result. At the end of six months, the 5 per cent. was restored, there being no loss of production, so that the men now receive as much for the 48 hours as they did formerly for the 53 hours per week. In fact, the men did not really do more than 48 hours' work per week under the old system. They are now much more punctual, and the improvement in this and other respects, visible at the time of the change, is being steadily maintained.

3. STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT.*

Division of the subject.

530. State and municipal employment was regarded by Messrs. Mann,(3) Webb,(4), and Hyndman,(5) representing the "collectivist" school, from two distinct points of view. They regarded it, first as a political principle, and afterwards as a political programme, and though from both points of view they advocated its extension, they did so from each point of view in a different degree. The principle was defined by Mr. Webb, as being "the subjection of all industrial relations to the "deliberate and conscious control of the State." And, as a step towards the ultimate realisation of that principle, it was desired to organise all local industries under local political authorities, both municipal and county. But complete municipalisation and complete nationalisation of industry were alike excluded by the witnesses from their immediate political programme.

The collectivist programme.

531. Now, though that programme consists entirely of a series of attempts to apply the collectivist principle defined above to existing industrial conditions, it contains certain items which future programmes, based on a more complete application of the same principle, would contradict. Thus, Mr. Mann declared his present policy to be to assist the existing tendency towards the formation of syndicates, trusts, and rings. While admitting that these combinations had often been productive of great evil, where unaccompanied by "proper combinations on the part of the workers,' he contended that they were worthy of approval both in themselves and as a possible approximation to the collectivist system. So, too, in regard to the relations between the collectivists and the co-operative movement. Both Mr. Mann(1) and Mr. Hyndman(2) declared it to be their present policy to support co-operative societies. The latter, however, used the term co-operation in a sense apparently synonymous with collectivism itself. While objecting to anything likely to convert the workers into small capitalists, he declared that both strikes and periodical depressions of trade must continue to recur until the community adopts co-operation instead of competition as the basis of production. Whatever be the meaning attached by Mr. Hyndman to "co-operation" in this passage, he definitely declared himself to be a supporter of co-operation in the true sense when he was explaining his immediate practical proposals. The State, he said, should at once proceed to establish a connexion between all its industrial enterprises and the co-operative societies. Mr. Mann(3) expressed a wish that productive co-operative societies would rise up in sufficient strength and number to compete with firms that act unfairly towards their workmen and the public. This witness was, however, an advocate of common as opposed to sectional control rather than of any particular collectivist system, and he stated in the course of his evidence that this common control could be brought about equally by State and municipal organisation of industry, and by the extension of co-operative or trade union effort regulating industry in the common interest. Mr. Maxwell,(4) representing the Co-operative Union, was quite ready to welcome an alliance between the co-operative and the collectivist movements, but, as he was careful to point out, only up to the point where their interests became mutually antagonistic. Municipalities, he said, should be encouraged to undertake the direction of productive industry, but only in those spheres in which co-operation has failed or cannot hope to succeed. He did not know, he added, of any industries as applied to which co-operation was certain to fail. If there were any, he would support the claim of municipal or mutual organisations to undertake them as against the claim of individuals or companies, since municipalities and Government partake of the nature of co-operative organisations in so far as they are representative of the people. But no municipality or Government ought to compete against, or to supplant, voluntary co-operative effort. It would seem to be essential, therefore, in summarising the evidence given under this head, to keep the portions relating to the collectivist principle and the portions relating to the collectivist programme as far as possible distinct, although it is, perhaps, equally important to bear in mind that the distinction is based upon the fact that the programme is provisional whereas the principle is permanent.

[§ 531.]

State ownership and administration of railways.

532. The programme, as sketched by the witnesses, is as follows:—State ownership and administration of railways and canals; municipal ownership and administration of land, water and gas supplies, tramways, artisans' dwellings, hospitals, and docks, and the establishment by municipalities of factories and workshops. State ownership and administration of railways was advocated by Messrs. Mann, Webb, and Hyndman. In reference to this point, Mr. Mann(5) said: It is expedient, in the interests of the workers and the public, who control the Government, for negotiations to be opened without delay by the Board of Trade or some other Department of State with the view of taking over the management of railways. Instead of consulting the interests of a body of shareholders, the public authority should aim both at making travelling as cheap as possible, and also at releasing railway employés from the long hours and other hardships which they are at present called upon to endure. The fact that the State railways in foreign countries compare, in some respects, unfavourably with those managed by private companies in this country does not weaken the case in favour of public control, because in those countries public opinion is not sufficiently powerful to keep the industrial policy of the various Governments on the right lines. Mr. Webb's(6) evidence was to a similar effect. He said: A desirable extension of the States' industrial functions would be the acquisition of railways, which are already subjected to a good deal of State regulation. They should be taken over by purchase under the Lands Clauses Consolidation Act. Considerable portions of the German railway system have lately been taken over by the State, and both Government and nation are satisfied with the result. One great

* A schedule of questions with regard to State and municipal employed labour has been issued by the Commission. A memorandum on the information obtained is printed as an Appendix on pp. 457-471 of this volume.—G. D.

(1) Digest, p. 26. (2) Digest, p. 33. (3) Digest, p. 16, and Appendix LXVIII. and LXIX. (4) Digest, p. 19, and Appendix LXXIII. (5) Digest, p. 23.

(1) Digest, p. 17. (2) Digest, p. 23. (3) Digest, p. 17. (4) Digest p. 12. (5) Digest, p. 17. (6) Digest, p. 20.

[§ 532.] advantage of such a change being adopted in this country would be the opportunity of reducing the excessive and criminal hours now worked by railway employés. Where such hours are now worked the State might fairly demand an abatement in the purchase price, just as if it were taking over a house in a bad sanitary condition. No harm would result from the substitution of a single public monopoly for a number of competing companies. A monopoly in private hands is, no doubt, not so efficiently conducted as an undertaking that has competitors to face, as is proved by the comparative inferiority of the southern railways, where competition is slight, to the northern railways, where it is severe, but the case of a monopoly in the hands of the public authority is different. Mr. Hyndman[1] also expressed himself as follows: The first industry that the State should take over is the railways. They are the great highways of the country, but they have been converted by capitalist Houses of Commons in the past from being worked in the interests of the community to being worked in those of shareholders and directors. The cost of the acquisition by the State of this vast property would probably amount to about 1,100,000,000*l.*, but the money would be well spent. On becoming possessed of the means of transport, the State should at once proceed to reduce its cost. At present the English railways are managed far less economically than those of other countries. The New York Central Railway,[2] for example, compares very favourably in this respect with the London and North Western. During 1891, the average train loads on the former line were 250 tons, and the working expenses ·285*d.* per ton per mile; whereas on the latter the average train loads were only 65 tons, while the working expenses amounted to ·658*d.* per ton per mile. Yet, on the English line, 77 per cent. of the goods traffic is in minerals, whereas on the American line only 30 per cent. is so composed. The New York Central Railway, moreover, pays higher wages than the London and North Western, and at the same time charges less than one third as much for its fares.

State ownership and administration of canals.

533. State acquisition of canals was mentioned only by Mr. Hyndman[3], and he contented himself with the bare proposal, unsupported by any special facts or arguments.

Municipalisation, proposals concerning.

534. The proposals as to municipalisation were less specific. While including them in their political programme, the witnesses who made them recognised that the expediency of their adoption depended upon the particular circumstances of each municipality. In some cases, the proposals have already been adopted; in others, perhaps, they would be premature. Mr. Webb[4] considered that no industrial enterprise should ever be taken over by a municipality until it could be so taken over with advantage, although, he added, the advantage need not necessarily be pecuniary; and Mr. Mann[5] stated that no municipality should be compelled to assume more industrial functions than it desired, but that they should all adopt a general policy of extension, and that, when they applied to Parliament for powers in furtherance of such a policy, Parliament should show no reluctance to grant them. The following programme was, however, prepared as a sort of working model to guide the action of the municipalities in the immediate future.

Municipal ownership and administration of land.

535. Municipal ownership and administration of land was the first subject considered. In this connexion, Mr. Mann[6] held that Parliament should show a readiness to grant the petitions of county and town councils for power to obtain land from owners at a fair price, to be let out at fair terms, as small holdings to labourers. Mr. Webb,[7] moreover, said that it was, generally speaking, desirable for a municipality to purchase land wherever it was practicable. Whether it should farm its land through a bailiff or let it out to tenants was a mere question of policy and business capacity, to be decided according to the circumstances of each individual case. With reference to London, Mr. Webb considered that, though it would probably pay to purchase the site of the metropolis at present prices in view of a probable rise in its value, it would be better to tax the grounds landlords before buying them out and, by raising the rates, perhaps eventually to 20*s.* in the £, to reduce rents, and so depreciate the property. He also approved of a proposal made by Mr. Haldane, Q.C., to the effect that the land in question should be valued, and the London County Council empowered to take it over at any future time at its value to-day, plus compensation to the owners for improvement. This proposal, he contended, was just, for, inasmuch as any rise in the unearned increment would be caused by the community, the community would have perfect right to intercept it. In opposition to Mr. Webb, Sir Thomas Farrer,[1] a member of the London County Council, quoted the expressed opinion of Lord Hobhouse, who is the chairman of the committee entrusted with the administration of such landed property as the Council already possesses, to the effect that the less of that kind of property the Council had to manage the better. [§ 535.]

Municipal ownership and administration of water supplies.

536. Municipal ownership and administration of the water supply was advocated by Messrs. Mann[2] and Webb[3] as being a practicable immediate reform in many cases. The latter further expressed his opinion that the municipalities should supply the water without charge to the consumers, and pointed out that, even at the present time, there was communism with regard to this commodity, inasmuch as every man used water according to his pleasure, and paid for it according to his means.

Municipal ownership and administration of gas supplies.

537. Municipal ownership and administration of the gas supply also was advocated by the same witnesses.[4] In this case, however, Mr. Webb[5] doubted whether it would be expedient to allow consumers to consume as much as they pleased, irrespective of their payments, although the gain resulting from the abolition of the present costly system of measuring would certainly be great. He pointed out, moreover, that in no single case where gasworks had passed under the management of municipalities in England, had it ever been seriously proposed to follow the example of Philadelphia, U.S.A., and hand them over again to a private company.

Municipal ownership and administration of tramways.

538. Municipal ownership and administration of tramways was also advocated by Mr. Webb.[6] Under certain circumstances, he thought, they ought to run free of charge. Indeed, he considered it probable that the difficult problem of housing the poor of our cities would never be solved without a very liberal service of free public tramways between the centre and the suburbs.

Municipal ownership and administration of artisans' dwellings.

539. Municipal ownership and administration of artisans' dwellings was desired by the same witness.[7] They should, he thought, be provided at an improved quality rather than at reduced rents, inasmuch as the benefit of any such reduction would probably be intercepted in the form of reduced wages by the tenants' employers.

Municipal ownership and administration of hospitals.

540. Municipal ownership and administration of hospitals[8] ought, in the opinion of Mr. Webb, to be extended. They are already, he urged, supported mainly out of the rates, and, inasmuch as private subscription is a very objectionable mode of maintaining public services, they should be supported out of the public funds entirely. Mr. Giffen,[9] moreover, so far supported Mr. Webb on this point as to say that the application of State action and expenditure to the control and endowment of public hospitals would be more beneficial than the application of the same forces to insurance against accidents and old age.

Municipal ownership and administration of docks.

541. Municipal ownership and administration of docks was advocated by Mr. Tom Mann,[10] with special reference to the docks of London. On this point, however, Mr. Webb[11] was not quite in agreement with his fellow witness, for, while approving of the municipalisation of docks as a matter of general principle, in the particular case of London he thought it would be better to entrust the management to a body like the Mersey Docks and Harbour Trust than to a committee of the London County Council, because bodies outside the county of London, such as the municipality of West Ham, are concerned. The Mersey Docks and Harbour Trust, he explained, is elected by the payers of 10*l.* a year in dock dues. This, he admitted, was certainly a very restricted electorate, but the body elected was, at all events, a responsible public authority, formed for the purpose of carrying on its work with a view to the interests of the public rather than of a body of shareholders. Even Sir Thomas Farrer,[12] who, as will appear hereafter, regarded Mr. Mann's scheme of municipalisation, and all similar schemes, with unqualified disapproval, appeared to be supporting Mr. Webb's proposal with reference to the docks of London, when he admitted the necessity of re-organisation under one control, but contended that it should be a control by a body representing the trade, perhaps including the workers, and not by a municipal council. Mr. Mann[13] prefaced the exposition of his own scheme by giving an account of the present organisation of the London Docks, and by pointing out that the Bristol Corporation had formed a precedent for this departure in municipalisation, by purchasing the Portishead and Avonmouth Docks—a circum-

(1) Digest, p. 23. (2) Appendix CXLIII. (3) Digest, p. 23. (4) Digest p. 21. (5) Digest, p. 17. (6) Digest, p. 17. (7) Digest, p. 21.

(1) Digest, p. 24. (2) Digest, p. 17. (3) Digest, p. 20. (4) Digest, pp. 17 and 20. (5) Digest, p. 20. (6) Digest, p. 20. (7) Digest, p. 20. (8) Digest, p. 21. (9) Digest, p. 43. (10) Digest, p. 18. (11) Digest, p. 21. (12) Digest, p. 24. (13) Digest, p. 18.

[§ 541.] stance also referred to by Mr. Webb,(1) who stated that although the said Corporation had been obliged to make the purchase at a sum that has caused an annual deficit to occur in the actual dock accounts, they had, in so doing, saved the trade of the Port of Bristol. At present, said Mr. Mann,(2) the Port of London is in the hands of several companies, of whom the most important are the London and St. Katherine's, the East and West India, the Surrey Commercial, and the Millwall, Dock Companies; but, for ordinary business purposes, the London and St. Katherine's and the East and West India Companies are amalgamated under one administrative body, called the London and India Docks Joint Committee. This committee controls the St. Katherine's, the London, the West India, the East India, the Victoria, the Albert, and the Tilbury Docks. The Surrey Commercial Company controls the Surrey Commercial Docks at Rotherhithe; and the Millwall Company, the Millwall Docks at the Isle of Dogs, Poplar. In addition to these docks, there is a small one at Limehouse, under the control of the Regent's Canal and Dock Company; the Poplar Dock at Blackwall, which is the property of the North London Railway Company; and another, small in itself, but with large warehouses, belonging to the Midland Railway Company. Now, the average weekly wage of the 25,000 dock labourers for the whole year is 17*s*, and the difference in the average weekly earnings as between one man and another is determined, not by different rates of payment for different degrees of skill, but by different degrees of regularity in their employment. Thus, 8,000 men earn an average weekly wage of 34*s*.; 5,000, 22*s*.; 5,000, 14*s*.; 5,000, 10*s*.; and 5,000, only 5*s*. Yet, in spite of the irregularity proved by these figures, the disorganisation of the docks is such that it is found impossible to carry on the work of the port unless each separate dock is surrounded by sufficient men to meet its maximum individual requirements. Mr. Booth's proposal that information as to vacancies and facility of transit from dock to dock, should be afforded, is of doubtful practicability, for it requires: First, an agreement to be made on the point among the various employers, of whom some are individuals, some are companies, some sub-contractors, and some gangs of men, but no one of whom poses as a philanthropic body, or is likely to countenance concerted action. Secondly, it requires a fund for the payment of the cost of transit. And, thirdly, it requires an obliteration of the feelings of resentment with which a workman from a strange dock is regarded by both employers and employed. Regularity of employment, therefore, can be guaranteed, so Mr. Mann concluded, only by substituting a common authority for the present sectional control, and by making the dock area more compact. The employers(3) themselves, he added, are favourable to the settlement of of some common control, but they want it to take the form of a dock trust, such as has been formed in the cases of the Clyde, the Tyne, the Wear, and the Mersey, whereas, under the scheme about to be proposed, the management is given to the London County Council, as more representative of the workers. The scheme(4) is as follows:—First, for the Government to hold a public inquiry into the present administration of the Port of London and the relations of that Port with its competitors both at home and abroad. Secondly, for the London County Council, furnished with the knowledge afforded by the said inquiry, to apply to Parliament for power to take over the docks by compulsory purchase, and to borrow the necessary funds. Thirdly, for the Council, on entering into possession of the property, to put into execution the engineering scheme drawn up and put in evidence by Mr. Mann himself, and approved of by Mr. Cheesewright, an engineer well known in connexion with dock work, who estimated the cost at 6,684,000*l*., excluding the purchase of land. The effect of the execution of this vast work was explained by Mr. Mann to be to bring the docks nearer together and nearer to the centre of distribution, thereby obviating $\frac{1}{20}$ of the work of reloading into trucks and lighters, and so enabling the work of the port to be performed with 7,000 fewer men than are at present required, and 11,000 fewer than are at present hanging about the docks. As to the expediency of effecting this saving of labour, Mr. Mann contended that the employment at present furnished in connexion with work that the adoption of the scheme would make unnecessary was very irregular, and, therefore, had better not be furnished at all, inasmuch as it calls into existence a class of workers whom it cannot enable to live decent lives. Fourthly, for the Council to cause all its dock employés to be registered, and to give all the men on the register permanent employment and a complete monopoly of the work. "Casual" labour would thus be entirely abolished. The construction of the new docks, however, would furnish seven years' employment to the "casuals" displaced, and at the end of that time they would be absorbed into other industries, where a regulation of the working hours would create vacancies for them, unless, as is hoped, the trade of the Port of London increased sufficiently to provide them with places on the regular staff of the docks. In any case, the difficulty of dealing with the "casuals" would only be temporary, for men would no longer crowd to the docks from other parts of the country on the chance of work when there was no longer any chance at all. Sir Thomas Farrer's criticism(1) on this scheme was as follows:—Mr. Mann's proposal, he said, is open to many grave objections. Apart from the engineering and financial difficulties of the scheme, which appear to be very great, its adoption would, according to Mr. Mann's own admission, involve the discharge of about 12,000 men. Furthermore, whether compensation be paid for the displacement of the existing docks or not, the capital invested in them would in either case be wasted. Again, the scheme would increase the local congestion of traffic, and would necessitate the making of new thoroughfares to relieve it. The dangers of navigation, moreover, would be intensified by bringing the large steamers up so high. And, finally, it is very doubtful whether the County Council would manage the docks so well as the existing authorities. For years, there has been a constant struggle to transfer docks, harbours, &c., from the hands of municipalities to those of dock and harbour trusts or other bodies representing the trade, because the former used to make use of their control of the highways of commerce to tax the trade of the country for the benefit of their own ratepayers.

[§ 541 7]

Municipal ownership and administration of factories and workshops.

542. The last item in the collectivist programme, as presented to the Commission in the division of the evidence at present under review, was the establishment by municipal bodies of factories and workshops, &c., for the performance of their own productive work, instead of giving it out to contractors. According to Messrs. Mann (2) and Webb,(3) the first step in this direction should be for municipalities to manufacture clothes for the use of their own servants, the latter pointing out that this reform stood on a different footing to the rest, in that it involved the principle of opening new businesses instead of merely acquiring businesses started by others. This proposal was criticised by Sir Thomas Farrer(4) at some length. He said: While there is no doubt that a public body is placed at a disadvantage as compared with a private individual in dealing with its contractors, inasmuch as any subsequent modification of the contract is made the subject of criticism and suspicion, yet the dangers and difficulties surrounding the alternative plan of the public body undertaking the direct conduct of its work are far greater and more numerous. In cases where machine work is a large element of the cost, all the conditions that make the intervention of a contractor beneficial are present. There must be an adequate superintending staff and a sufficient body of permanent foremen, and on their efficiency the success of the application of the machine labour and the satisfactory execution of the work must depend. There must be an adequate plant and suitable buildings suitably situated. That plant must be adequately and regularly employed, so as to be up to date and in the highest efficiency, and it must be renewed and replaced so as to be in line with every improvement and every fresh substitution of machine for hand labour which is the chief characteristic of modern production. Now, if we assume that a public body excludes the contractor and takes his place, then it must adopt these special conditions. There will be small room for saving the contractors' profits, for adequate industrial prizes in the shape of high reward and remuneration must be given to the staff if the best men are to be secured in competition with analogous private enterprise. Again, regular employment must be provided. A public body cannot undertake private work as a stop-gap, and workshops that stand still are quickly out of gear. If work does not come naturally, work must be made, and whatever objection may be urged against the performance by public bodies of their necessary work, applies with still greater force to their performance of work for which there is no demand. Sir Thomas Farrer's argument on this point was repeated by Mr. C. S. Loch,(5) the Secretary of the Charity Organisation Society, who deprecated the establishment of municipal workshops on this very ground, that the employment they would provide would be outside the market demand, and would therefore involve a large cost to the ratepayers. Members of trades

(1) Digest, p. 21. (2) Digest, p. 18. (3) Digest, p. 18, and Appendix LXX. (4) Digest, p. 18.

(1) Digest, p. 24. (2) Digest, p. 17. (3) Digest. p. 21. (4) Digest p. 24. (5) Digest, p. 29.

[§ 542.] unions, he added, naturally desire to see the unemployed provided for at the public expense, but to comply with this desire would be to increase the pauperised class which it is sought to eliminate, and to enable the worst class of labourers to compete at an advantage with the class immediately above them. Sir Thomas Farrer,[1] proceeded to point out the evils resulting from the non-competitive character of municipal enterprise. Public and municipal production, he said, means the reduction and extinction of all the conditions that make for competition, and there is scarcely an industry which does not depend upon competition for life and progress. In a few, the stages of rest may be of some duration, but the general tendency of all is to recast the methods of production, more or less radically, from year to year. A varied demand and a vigorous competition can alone create and maintain that wholesome state of progress, which, in a purely industrial community, struggling with rivals in all quarters of the globe, is the sole condition of existence. Probably in 10 years, the most modern and costly plant, and the most advanced and enthusiastic staff, would have dropped hopelessly behind in the industrial struggle, if limited to employment by public bodies and upon public work. Yet again, in cases where hand labour is the leading element of cost, the system of contracting is especially advantageous because of the extra need of the master's supervision. Hand labour, unlike machine labour, furnishes wide room for misapplication and waste of labour, and for variations in the quality of labour. It is, therefore, universally found to require exceptional care in organisation and control, and such care cannot be reasonably looked for where no adequate interest in its exercise is involved. The contractor stands to lose as well as to win. The workman knows this to be the case, and he knows further that the contractor is his unfettered employer, and is resolved to get full work for full wages under penalty of discharge. If the case were one of a public body, employing directly a more or less permanent body of workmen, supervised by salaried officials, the conditions would rather favour "nursing the job" than its prompt and economical execution, and the stimulants and checks of the contract system would be wanting. The public body cannot lose. The officials and the workman know this also, and regulate their conduct accordingly. For all these reasons, the direct conduct by municipalities of productive industrial enterprises is undesirable.

Municipal policy in the conduct of industrial undertakings.

543. No further immediate proposal was made by any of the witnesses. Evidence was given, however, as to the policy which the municipalities ought to pursue with reference to the management of these industrial undertakings. In order to obtain the necessary funds, they should, according to Mr. Webb,[2] both increase the burden of rates on the owners of real property and raise loans on the security which the rates afford. And, in regard to their employés, both Mr. Webb and Mr. Mann agreed in thinking[3] that they should set a good example to private employers by keeping their wages, if possible, slightly in advance of those paid by the best paying firm in the same line of business in the town—a policy which should be easy for them, because they would be relieved from the necessity of making profits. They should also endeavour always to arrange their work in such a way as to dovetail with the experienced irregularity of employment under private firms, and even go so far as to anticipate future work in order to provide employment for those out of work at present, Mr. Webb adding that the predicament where the municipalities would no longer have any work to give the unemployed was very remote, because their sphere of industrial action could be extended indefinitely. Boards of guardians,[4] moreover, should no longer confine themselves to granting charitable relief, but should make some kind of reasonable and honourable provision for exceptional cases of temporary distress, inasmuch as public charity is only one degree less demoralising than private, and should be resorted to only in the very last extremity. Private employers, Mr. Webb went on to say, might, and in some cases do, do much good in the direction here indicated. But, even if they did as much as could be desired, the municipalisation of industry would still be advisable, for whatever reforms are effected by a municipality in the condition of its employés are really effected by the employés themselves, inasmuch as they form the majority of the electorate constituting the municipal authority. The workers are thus virtually their own employers, and, as such, have responsibilities which tend greatly to elevate their character. As their own employers, moreover, they can guarantee that the advantages in the matter of wages and hours, &c., which they have gained in good times, will not be taken away from them in bad without their consent. Such, at any rate, is the experience of municipalities at the present time. Mr. Tom Mann[1] further stated that, while conducting their industrial enterprises on the lines here laid down, the municipalities should at the same time endeavour to save enough in their corporate capacities to provide funds for still further extensions in the future, with a view to ultimately becoming both proprietors and managers of all industrial undertakings within their jurisdiction. Many of the arguments urged against this policy are to be found in Sir Thomas Farrer's evidence on municipal workshops summarised above. Additional arguments are given in the course of his criticism of the industrial policy of the London County Council,[2] which is, in many respects, modelled on the principles laid down in the preceding paragraph. That policy, he contended, was not only unjust to the ratepayers, but would involve a private firm in bankruptcy. It consists in an attempt to raise wages artifically in defiance of the fact that both wages and profits must ultimately be paid out of the produce, and that it is only by increasing production that wages can be permanently and universally raised. It is impossible to divide a shilling amongst 12 men in such a way as to give 2*d.* to each. Not being able to make its high wages universal, the council must necessarily pursue a policy of favouritism in taking workmen into its service. In order to restore the balance, moreover, the council associates with its policy of overpayment as applied to manual labour, a scarcely less pernicious policy of underpaying mental labour. On these grounds, therefore, the policy must be condemned. [§ 543.]

The collectivist principle.

544. It is now necessary to turn from the collectivist programme to the collectivist principle—the principle of subjecting all the industry of the country to the conscious and deliberate control of the political authority. Three witnesses, Messrs. Mann, Webb, and Hyndman, defended the principle, and one, viz., Sir Thomas Farrer, attacked it. The three collectivist witnesses, however, while supporting the same general conclusion, arrived at it by somewhat different, through not mutually inconsistent, arguments, and, for this reason, it seems advisable to treat the evidence of each of them separately.

Mr. Hyndman's theory.

545. Mr. Hyndman's evidence,[3] being not so much a defence of the collectivist system he advocated as an attack upon the individualist* system he desired to supersede, may most conveniently be summarised first. It is to the following effect:—The whole system of relations between the various parties in the industrial world is based upon a series of antagonisms, a state of affairs which is little short of anarchical. First, there is an antagonism between the wage earners and the owners of the instruments of production, the former desiring to increase wages and the latter to keep them down. Secondly, there is an antagonism among employers competing for profit. Thirdly, there is an antagonism between the over-organisation of the armies of production and the entire absence of regulation in regard to distribution. Fourthly, there is an antagonism between the commodities themselves and the money which forms the medium of exchange, the means of payment and the standard of value. Fifthly, there is an antagonism between producers and middlemen. And, lastly, there is an antagonism between town and country. Strikes are the unconscious manifestations of the revolt of the wage earners against their conditions of life. So, too, the periodical depressions of trade—we are now suffering from the ninth that has set in during the present century—are the unconscious manifestations of the incapacity of the capitalist and employing class to handle the vast machinery of modern production to the advantage of the community. Both strikes and periodical depressions of trade must, therefore, continue to recur until the community adopts co-operation instead of competition as the basis of production.

Mr. Mann's theory.

546. Mr. Mann[4] expressed a similar view somewhat more fully. He said: Most of the evils at present discernible in the industrial world, the waste and misdirection of the forces of production, and the disproportionate distribution of its rewards among its various agents, are attributable to the survival of an over-sectionalised system of control. A public authority would be able to organise the various sections of every trade in such a manner as to remove the anomaly whereby the overworked and the unemployed are existing side by side, and, by so doing, to

(1) Digest, p. 25. (2) Digest, p. 20. (3) Digest, pp. 17 and 21. (4) Digest, p. 21.

* That the term "individualist" as applied to the present industrial system is to a large extent a misnomer, will appear from what follows especially in the evidence given by Mr. Webb.—G. D.

(1) Digest, p. 17. (2) Digest, p. 25. (3) Digest, p. 23. (4) Digest p. 16.

[§ 546.] make effective the latent demand for goods among those who now cannot afford to purchase what they need. Of the two possible alternative methods of dealing with this cardinal difficulty, the system of paying high enough wages during good times to enable the workers to maintain themselves in idleness during bad, involves a frightful waste of human energy, while the remedy of emigration would do nothing to prevent the fluctuations of trade that throw men out of work, deprive their demand for goods of its effectiveness and so intensify the evils out of which they arose. The present tendency(1) in the direction of substituting centralised for sectional control is, therefore, to be encouraged, although it must be remembered that a limit is placed upon the expediency of extending the functions of any public body by the mental and moral make-up of its constituents. The only kind of public authority, in fact, that can be trusted to realise the collectivist ideal in its completeness is one that is properly representative of a perfectly educated and enlightened community, and the true essence of that ideal is the development of the perfected individualism which is its necessary environment. But, granted these conditions, the full realisation of collectivism would not involve any of the evils usually predicted to result, and would enable much good to be done in preventing fluctuations of trade, irregularity of employment, and other attendant evils. The elimination of mercenary motives would not check the progress of science and the performance of good work. Public spirit has always been at least as powerful a stimulant as self interest to the production of the best work. Mr. J. H. Mill wrote:—"Education, habit, and the cultivation of the sentiments "will make a common man dig or weave for his country "as readily as fight for his country." No harm is likely to result from the undue exercise of their political power on the part of employés of public bodies, for difficulties of this sort are not increasing, but decreasing concomitantly with the extension of municipal and State management of industries. The disappearance of the personal relationship between employers and employed, which is the inevitable result of the substitution of corporate for individual management, is, no doubt, a distinct loss, but it is a means of transition towards something which is much better, and the same may be said of the existing tendency towards the formation of syndicates, trusts, and rings. The concentration of industrial functions in the State would cause the forces of production not only to be applied economically, but also to be applied to the right objects. Some industries are at present devoted to the production of articles that are useless, and, in some cases, positively mischievous. Under a reformed organisation of trade, the more enlightened portion of the community would be able to use the State machinery to give effect to its opinions in the industrial as it already does in the political sphere, and so to prevent the worst portion of the community being catered for. Pernicious literature is a conspicuous example of the misdirected enterprise which State control could prohibit. Yet Mr. Mann at the same time stated that "so long as the public demand" was "apparent," the State should not interfere in this direction, except indirectly "by educating the public taste." Again, the State(2) would turn into more profitable channels the energy now expended in fighting against nature and bolstering up decaying industries. The present condition of agriculture affords a conspicuous object lesson of the failure of sectional control. As foreign nations increase their own production of the goods we sell, our labour and capital should be gradually transferred to the production of the food we buy. At present too much both of our goods and of our capital goes abroad, when there are plenty of persons at home to be supplied with the former and employed by the latter. The periodical depressions of English trade are due to the falling credit of the foreign countries for which we cater. The trade we might do at home would not be liable to depression from causes external to ourselves, and it would, therefore, be desirable to be rather more self-supporting. While new methods of agriculture are improving the absolute productivity of English soil, the action of the public authority in facilitating the acquisition of small holdings by the labourers may be trusted to improve its relative productivity with reference to the land of other countries. A further result to be expected from a more extended application of the collectivist principle, is a better proportionate distribution of the rewards of industry among its several agents in favour of labour, as opposed to land and capital.

Mr. Webb's theory.

547. Mr. Webb,(3) instead of dwelling on the distinction between the collectivist and the present system, endeavoured rather to show how consistent had been the progress made in the desired direction during the present century. For the last 70 or 80 years, he contended, the course of legislation has been guided by the principle of subjecting industrial relations to the deliberate and conscious control of the community, as is proved by the observed tendency towards a stricter regulation of private enterprise, towards shifting the burden of taxation upon rent and interest, towards the assumption of industrial functions on the part of the State and municipal bodies, and towards collective philanthropy, *i.e.*, the deliberate use of the resources of the community for the benefit of its less fortunate members. Legislation having for its object the regulation of private enterprise is best exemplified by the Factory Acts. Although nominally enacted with sole reference to female workers and to youths under 18 years of age, this code has also had a practical bearing upon the condition of adult males. The shifting of the burden of taxation more and more upon rent and interest has followed as the natural result of a more accurate translation into practice of the principle of basing the incidence of taxation upon equality of sacrifice, which has been universally admitted since the days of Adam Smith. Nowadays, indeed, almost every tax on land is a tax on rent. Schedule A. of the Income Tax, for example, is really a tax on rent. The assumption of increased industrial functions on the part of public bodies is very strongly marked. The London County Council employs about twice as many persons as the Metropolitan Board of Works did only four years ago, and London is only following in the wake of other large municipalities. It is computed by Mr. Giffen that the provincial municipalities control an aggregate capital of about three or four hundred millions sterling. Many of them have undertaken their own water and gas supply, and the construction, and, in some cases, also the working of their own tramways, although it may be true that much of the plant of these enterprises which passes as municipal property has been obtained by capital borrowed from individuals. They are also rapidly acquiring land, not only by purchase, but also by using their power of imposing rates to tax rents and so to reduce them, and the rates thus swollen are being largely devoted to meeting the increased expenditure now demanded in the direction of collective philanthropy. Concomitantly with the growth of collectivism, there has been observable a marked improvement in the condition of the labouring classes. The marvellous progress of the Lancashire operatives during the past 50 years is to be attributed primarily to the Factory Acts, next to the rise of municipal socialism and trade unionism, then to the co-operative enterprises made possible under such conditions, and, finally, to the action and reaction of all these forms of collectivism upon one another. The great increase in the efficiency of production is to be accounted for in the same way. The pressure brought to bear upon the managers of industries by the Factory Acts, by municipal bye-laws, and by trade union demands, have had in the past a very stimulating effect, and will cause still greater improvement in the future. The application of the collectivist principle is being daily extended. Were it not so, the present condition of a large portion of the workers of this country would appear as hopeless as was that of the Lancashire operatives before the beneficent tendency set in. That the movement towards collective socialism will continue indefinitely, is guaranteed by its association with democracy. At the beginning of the century, the Government was not really in the hands of the people, and economists had some reason in opposing the extension of the sphere of State action on the ground that such action was likely to be directed in favour of a class and against the community as a whole. Collectivism unaccompanied by democracy cannot be regarded as superior to individualism, as is proved by comparing the unprogressive communism of the Bengalese and Russian peasants with the enterprising individualism of the New Englanders, who are ethnologically of the same race. Combined with democracy, however, collectivism has a highly stimulating effect upon the health of the body politic, and generates a better type of character than an individualistic and competitive organisation. Collectivism, indeed, may be described as the "economic obverse" of democracy. That is to say, the advent of the industrial classes to political power naturally results in directing the action of the State to the solution of industrial problems. A more complete application of the collectivist principle will be marked by the management or direction of all industrial undertakings passing into the hands of governmental establishments, both national and local, and by the absorption by the community of rent and interest. In the first event every position of authority in the industrial world would be a political appointment, but this would involve no great extension of the sphere of

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(1) Digest, p. 17. (2) Digest, p. 18. (3) Digest, p. 19 *et seq.*

[§ 547.] political patronage, already reduced to a minimum in the case of the Civil Service. The appointments would be made just as other Civil Service appointments are made now; they would not, and ought not, to depend upon popular election. Bureaucracy under a democratic *régime* would be a very different thing from bureaucracy uncontrolled, and there is reason to expect very great intelligence to be developed among the members of the industrial hierarchy of the future. The absorption by the community of all rent and interest would not deprive enterprise of its reward and stimulus. Enterprise and claim to rent and interest do not necessarily go together. The best work has never been done for money, and the profits of so many inventions have been gathered by persons other than the inventors, that self interest cannot be said to have had a greater stimulative effect in this direction than the mere desire to invent. Whilst the standard of life among some classes of wage earners is higher than it was 50 years ago, it is not so among others, and, on the whole, the working classes have not absorbed a fair proportion of the increased products of the national industry. Too much has gone to rent and interest. Although the collectivist principle is not applicable in the same degree to every stage in a nation's progress, it is a sound guide for political action, and we may look forward without anxiety to the continued extension of the State's industrial action, and fearlessly discard the old-fashioned notions of which Mr. Cobden was the exponent when he wrote against the Government providing even its army and navy supplies. The speech delivered at the Eighty Club by Mr. Morley, in December 1889, is a remarkable example of the changed attitude of politicians towards socialistic developments, for the speaker, while opposing an Eight Hours Bill, expressed himself very emphatically as to the duty of the State to find honourable work for the workless. One great practical advantage of placing industrial establishments under Government is that public criticism can secure the remedy of evils in their administration. It is much easier to urge the Government to pay proper wages than to urge a private contractor to do so. The importance of maintaining this greater power of criticism is proved by the very existence of defects. Such a defect is the disregard displayed by the Admiralty to the resolution of the House of Commons, in 1891, to the effect that all Government employés should be paid the wages current in the district, and the non-recognition by Government officials of the men's trade unions. The labourers employed in the Deptford victualling yard are paid only from 17*s.* to 19*s.* a week, that is to say, exactly the same as the same class of labourers at Gosport and Devonport, where the cost of living is much less. Mr. Charles Booth classed all Londoners receiving less than 21*s.* per week, with families dependent on them, as being in poverty, and all those receiving less than 18*s.* regularly, as being in chronic want, and the London County Council has fixed 24*s.* as the minimum wage for its adult workers, on the ground that it would be adding to the destitution and and poverty of London by paying less. The House of Commons ought to emphatically prohibit any Government Department from paying less than the wages authorised by the local trade unions, and, in London, less than 24*s.* Political pressure, however, is even now constantly being brought to bear upon the Government by civil servants. This is not by any means to be deplored, but rather encouraged. If that pressure were to be increased, no longer would dockyard labourers be underpaid and post office servants ill-treated. The fullest possible recognition of the right of public servants to combine to secure their common advantage ought to be accepted as an essential principle, at any rate of Liberalism. The present refusal of the Admiralty to recognise any person not employed in the yard as the representative of the Deptford labourers is a reversion to the policy which trade unions have been so long occupied in breaking down among private employers. Another great practical advantage of the Government employment of labour is that it can be made much more regular than with private firms. Government ought to deliberately aim at getting as much of its work as possible done during slack seasons, with a view to securing regularity. There is an excellent economic reason for this policy, inasmuch as, in slack seasons, the work can be done much cheaper. In point of efficiency, moreover, Government work compares not unfavourably with that of private firms. Exactly the same class of work is being done for the Government by Messrs. Armstrong, Mitchell, & Co. at Elswick, and by the Government itself at Woolwich, and the result of all inquiries shows that the latter is the more efficient.

Sir Thomas Farrer's criticism.

548. Sir Thomas Farrer[1] commented on these exhaustive statements in defence of the collectivist principle as follows:—In the first place, he said, Mr. Mann is wrong in [§ 548.] attributing the fluctuations in employment to the disorganising influence of individualism. As a matter of fact, individualism has caused to grow up unconsciously an organisation more complete than could ever be created by a system of conscious control. No commissariat department could hope to bear comparison with the wonderfully perfect mechanism that has grown up under individualism for providing London with its daily bread. The prevailing fluctuations of employment, and it cannot be denied that they are a great evil, are mainly due to unsound speculation, and no punishment would be too severe for the fraudulent bankrupts and prospectus managers that tempt small capitalists to part with their savings under false pretences. Anybody allowing his name to appear in a lying prospectus without taking proper means to verify the statements contained therein should be liable to prosecution. Again, Mr. Mann looks to the public authority to re-adjust the distribution of the rewards of production amongst its various agents in such a way as to increase the earnings of wages at the expense of capital.[1] But anything that tends to raise the wages of artisans must accelerate the speed of migration from country to town, and so intensify the evil resulting from the presence of unemployed labourers, which Mr. Mann feels so keenly. There is a desire among trades unions to acquire complete control of production, so as to enable them to dictate the rates of wages. But the only effect of such dictation would be to raise the price of British manufactures, and cause consumers to transfer their custom to foreign markets. The wider, therefore, our foreign trade extends, the more difficult is it for trades unions to make their control of the rates of wages effective. This is the reason why they are disposed to underrate the value of our foreign trade, and Mr. Mann himself, though not desiring to check that trade, yet seems to regard its possible future extinction with equanimity, and urges us to produce a larger proportion of our own food instead of fighting to preserve our foreign markets. But, considering that we are importing two thirds of our food from abroad, and that other countries can produce that food more easily than we can, to suppose that we can ever become self-supporting is an idle dream. We should rather determine to repair the loss of old industries by inventing new ones to supply the new foreign demands. It is not expedient that labour should have less than its share of the product of industry, but the amount of that share is limited, first, by the danger of killing the goose with the golden eggs; and secondly, by the equally grave danger of allowing one industry to impoverish others. Too high wages for coal miners, for example, causes the impoverishment of the workers in industries that use coal. In fact, the struggle between labour and capital is often a struggle between producers and consumers. Members of trade unions have hitherto looked upon themselves too much in the light of producers, but there are signs, such as the repudiation by the men of the action of their leaders in approving of the Sugar Convention, that they are learning from the co-operative societies to look upon themselves as consumers as well. All Mr. Mann's aims are directed at a regulation of the supply of labour. But it is impossible to control supply until you can control demand, and no public authority could ever undertake the colossal task of perpetually and rapidly shifting capital and labour towards the supply of each demand that successively arises. A public authority, moreover, can never afford to speculate with the funds entrusted to it by the nation, and so is less likely, despite all assurances to the contrary, to promote new inventions than an individual. Mr. Webb's evidence is open to similar criticism. On one point, indeed, he is more in the right than his fellow collectivist, and that is where he points to the prevalence, and looks forward to the further extension, of the use by Government servants of their political power against their employer, whereas Mr. Mann had said that difficulties of this sort were decreasing as collectivism grew. But in going on to argue that such a state of things is an advantage, he will not find many to agree with him. In short, the collectivist ideal is a dream, and a bad dream. To attempt to eliminate individualism, whether in politics or in other relations of life, is to ignore one of the deepest and most important factors of human nature, and it is futile to compare an industrial system, marred, though it be, by the imperfections which realisation has revealed, with a utopia which appears perfect only because it is an untried and an impracticable ideal.

(1) Digest, p. 23.

(1) Digest, p. 24.

4. INSPECTION AND REGULATION OF FACTORIES, AND WORKSHOPS, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

[§ 549.] omestic orkshops.

549. The object of the evidence given under this heading may be summed up in the words of Mr. Webb(1) as being "to provide East London with a Factory Act as well "adapted to its own peculiar circumstances as the Factory "Acts of the first period were to the peculiar circum-"stances of Lancashire." And the peculiarity of East London work was proved before the House of Lords' Committee on "Sweating "(2) to consist chiefly in the prevalence of domestic workshops. As to the general policy to be pursued with reference to these establishments, the witnesses did not agree. Messrs. Tom Mann,(3) F. Hardern,(4) and C. Fenwick,(5) the two latter representing the Co-operative Union and the Trades Union Congress respectively, desired to abolish them altogether, by compelling employers to provide accommodation for all their hands, Mr. Fenwick saying: "The Trade Union Congress has "condemned the system of domestic workshops because "these places are often unhealthy, and cause the rate of "wages to fall." Mr. Webb,(6) however, while sympathising with this aim, considered that a sudden abolition of domestic workshops would be inexpedient, and that it would be better to merely assist the present tendency towards a universal factory system by means of an enactment making every foreman or giver-out of work responsible for the observance of the Factory Acts in whatever place he allowed his work to be done. Mr. Booth,(7) moreover, not sharing the views of either of the preceding witnesses as to the desirability of a total abolition, whether immediate or ultimate, of domestic workshops, objected even to Mr. Webb's proposal as likely to be, in its effects, identical with that of Mr. Mann, and preferred a law making the landlord, or person to whom the worker pays rent, share a portion of the responsibility for the observance of the Acts which is at present divided among the employer, the employed, and the State. The landlord should, for example, be responsible for the registration of all his houses that are used for industrial purposes, and, if he does not desire them to be so used, he should put a special clause into the leases to that effect. He should also be responsible for the payment of fines imposed upon his tenants for breaches of the Factory Acts, and should add the amount of such fines to his rent. Although Mr. Booth was not prepared to endorse the proposal of Mr. Webb with regard to the responsibility of the giver-out of work, Mr. Webb(8) so far agreed with the proposal of Mr. Booth as to desire to make the owner of houses used for industrial purposes responsible for their sanitary condition under the Factory Acts, as he is already, to a less degree, under the Public Health Acts.

he other ubjects ncluded in he section.

550. Other subjects dealt with in this connexion were the employment of married women, the employment of children, the extension of the legal definition of "workshop," the statutory requirement of returns as to wages, and the administration of the Acts, including proposals as to registration, inspection, and the transfer of the control of the Acts to the new Labour Department.

Employ-ment of narried vomen.

551. Employment of married women should not be prohibited, so Mr. Webb thought,(9) although he also considered that it was in many respects an evil, and nearly always had a very prejudicial effect upon the wages of adult male workers. The proper aim, he said, is to hasten the advent of a social development in which mothers of families should be released from their present necessity of working for their living.

Employ-ment of children.

552. Employment of children for wages under the age of 14 was condemned by Mr. H. M. Hyndman,(10) who pointed out that there was plenty of evidence, especially in the famous report of 1875, to show that the half-time system had a very bad effect upon the physique of the future generation. Mr. Webb(11) also considered that it was highly expedient to raise the age at which children are allowed to enter the factories, and to extend the period of their school career, whether by means of the half-time system or otherwise.

Extension of the legal definition of "work-shop."

553. Extension of the legal definition of "workshop" was desired by Mr. Booth,(12) who proposed that any room or place in which any person employs any other person or persons in manufacture should be placed within the legal definition of a workshop under the Factory Acts, and that the relation of employer and employed should be deemed to exist between any persons working in company or in partnership, except between a man and his wife.

(1) Digest, pp. 21 and 22. (2) Appendix LXXXV. (3) Digest, p. 17. (4) Digest, p. 14. (5) Digest, p. 27. (6) Digest, pp. 21 and 22. (7) Digest, p. 25. (8) Digest, pp. 21 and 22. (9) Digest, pp. 21 and 22. (10) Digest, p. 23. (11) Digest, pp. 21 and 22. (12) Digest, p. 25.

[§ 553.]

554. A requirement to furnish returns as to wages should, so Mr. Webb(1) considered, be made in the case of every person employing more than three wage servants.

Proposed requirement to furnish returns as to wages.

555. The administration of the Factory Acts should be made easier by an absolutely complete registration of all workshops and all industrial establishments. As to the desirability and practicability of this proposal, both Mr. Webb(2) and Mr. Booth(3) were agreed. The registration, said Mr. Booth, should be simple and without charge, and should not necessarily be preceded by an inspection. The certificate should set forth, on the landlord's authority, the amount of space occupied, the number of persons employed, the nature of their occupation, and such other particulars as the Act required. It should be in triplicate, one copy being for the landlord, one for the occupier, and one for the Factory Department of the Home Office, and it should be periodically renewed, and the landlord should be held responsible for the registration being duly performed.

Registration of workshops.

556. Besides making the work of the inspectors easier, Messrs. Webb(4) and Booth(5) desired to increase their number, and improve their organisation. Owing to the paucity of the present staff, said Mr. Webb,(6) domestic workshops in London are not inspected, and generally not even registered. What is wanted, he considered, is not so much a very large increase in the present highly-trained and fairly well paid staff as the appointment of additional officials of a subordinate class, who could be, as it were, "the eyes of the inspectors." Mr. Booth(7) desired every inspector to be provided with an office, and with assistants to take all his clerical work off his hands.

Inspection: proposed additions to staff.

557. The transfer of the Factory and Mining Departments of the Home Office to the new Labour Department was desired by Mr. Webb.(8)

Proposed transfer of factory and mining departments of the Home Office to the new Labour Department.

5. ACCIDENT FUNDS AND EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

558. Very little addition was made by the witnesses examined before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, to the body of evidence taken on this subject before the three Committees. Mr. Fenwick, M.P.,(9) representing the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress, indeed, stated that the said committee had received instructions to endeavour to secure the abolition of the doctrine of common employment and of contracting out of the Act, and the extension of the Act to seamen, while Mr. Ludlow,(10) ex-Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies, declared himself to be personally opposed to the contracting out that usually accompanied the establishment of sick, accident, and other benefit funds in connexion with particular employments.

Employers' Liability Act, proposed amendments

559. With regard to the effect of the existence of such funds upon the relations between employers and employed, moreover, Mr. Ludlow(11) pointed out that, judging from the condition of the mining industry, they did not appear to prevent trade disputes. Many railway companies, he said, have obtained special Acts of Parliament compelling the men to subscribe to the sick and other benefit funds established by their employers. The men object to such enactments, because they are obliged thereby to choose both between giving up their own benefit societies and supporting two, and also between continuing in the company's service longer than they may perhaps desire to do, and forfeiting the benefits towards which they have been subscribing. The Court of Appeal, however, has decided in Hewlett *v.* Allen and Sons that deductions from wages for the purposes of benefit funds are illegal unless expressly sanctioned by Act of Parliament. Except where absolute confidence already exists between employers and employed, the establishment of funds supported by both parties tends not to improve, but to injure, the relations between them. Mr. Ludlow went on to say that such funds were in many cases actuarially unsound, because they depend upon the employers' contributions, which in their turn depend upon the vote of a body of shareholders, and because the employers' contributions remain fixed irrespective of fluctuations in the membership. Where, however, the employers' contributions vary with the membership, the witness admitted that the funds were financially less unsound. The only other witness who referred to the subject was Mr. E. W. Brabrook,(12) the present Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies, who gave the

Mutual insurance funds: their effect on industrial peace, and legal position.

(1) Digest, pp. 21 and 22. (2) Digest, p. 22. (3) Digest, p 25, (4) Digest, p. 22. (5) Digest, p. 25. (6) Digest, p. 22. (7) Digest. p. 25. (8) Digest, p. 22. (9) Digest, p. 6. (10) Digest, p 37. (11) Digest, p. 37. (12) Digest, pp. 35 and 36.

[§ 559.] following evidence with regard to the legal position of societies formed for the purpose of mutual insurance by employers and employed conjointly:—A large number of these societies are debarred from registration under the Friendly Societies Act because they have among their rules one providing that "a member ceasing to be employed at " — works shall cease to be a member of the society." By means of such a rule, an employer can enforce restrictive conditions on his workmen. A rule, however, to the effect that "a member ceasing to be employed at — works " shall cease to participate in the funds arising from the " contributions of employers as honorary members" does not prevent registration, although a practical difficulty arises in cases where the funds derived from the contributions of employers and employed respectively cannot be distinguished. Another arrangement inconsistent with registration is one whereby the funds of the society are deposited with the employer, inasmuch as the Friendly Societies Act requires them to be invested only in concerns giving such security as trustees may accept. The policy of the Act in this respect is a sound one, for the prohibited arrangement has the mischievous effect of putting all the workmen's eggs into one basket, so that, if their employer fails, they lose not only their employment but their savings as well, and it places them, in addition, into a position of undue dependence upon their employer. At the same time, the societies often prefer to forfeit registration by investing their funds with an employer, whether because they get an exceptionally high rate of interest, or because they get, and like to have, a stake in the employer's business, or else because much trouble is saved in the matter of buying and selling stock and in the keeping of accounts. Where the employer in question is a public company, and, as such, able to give, by debenture or otherwise, security of the type which trustees are authorised by statute to accept, the difficulty as to registration is removed. A third bar to registration is where membership of the society is made a condition of employment. But registration has not hitherto been refused to societies having among their rules one to the effect that members may direct the amount of their subscriptions to be deducted from their wages, provided always that the sum deducted be actually handed over to the society's treasurer, and paid by him to the credit of the trustees. The general result of the legal requirements as to registration has been to cause many societies to forego its benefits.

6. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

Subjects included under.

560. The portions of the evidence that may most conveniently be treated under this section are three in number. First, the evidence of Mr. Giffen relating to foreign competition in the labour market; secondly, the evidence of Dr. W. Ogle, relating to vital statistics; and, lastly, the evidence of Mr. Ludlow, relating to the progress of the working class during the past 50 years.

Alien immigration.

561. Mr. Giffen[1] said that it was a proved fact that the maximum number of foreigners that could possibly have settled in England in 1891 was 12,000, and that it was probable that the figure for 1892 would be proved not to have exceeded 8,000, partly, no doubt, owing to the quarantine regulations. It would, he thought, be dangerous for this country to place restrictions on immigration, for it would furnish our colonies and foreign countries with an excuse, of which they would be only too ready to take advantage, for placing similar restrictions upon the admission into their territories of the emigrants that leave this country in such large numbers.

Vital statistics.

562. Dr. W. Ogle,[2] Superintendent of Statistics in the General Register Office, gave the following evidence on the vital statistics of the industrial classes in England and Wales. The marriage statistics, he said, are as follows:—Of 1,000 miners who marry 704 are under the age of 25, and 169 under the age of 21; and of their wives 439 are under 21. The ages at marriage of textile hands, shoemakers, and tailors are very much the same; those of artisans and labourers are a little older; those of clerks are still more advanced; those of shopkeepers and shopmen are more advanced than those of the clerks; and those of farmers and their sons are more advanced than those of the shopkeepers and shopmen, while most advanced of all are those of the professional and independent classes, of whom only 151 per 1,000 marry under the age of 25, and only seven, but of their wives 127, under the age of 21, there being a difference of 7 years among males and 4 years among females between the average ages at marriage of the miners and the professional and independent classes respectively. The proportion of persons that remain permanently unmarried is smallest in the case of shopkeepers, larger in the case of artisans and labourers, and largest in the case of the professional class. For England and Wales the proportion of unmarried males is 266 per 1,000, but for the working men in several selected districts of London it is only 107. In these same districts every married man has, on an average, 2·97 children living at home. This implies very large families, since there are excluded all children that have died, or have set up establishments of their own, and no regard is taken of the prospects of future additions to the families. The average number of children living or dead per marriage in England and Wales is only just a fraction over four. The marriage rate is affected very considerably by fluctuations in wages. It varies concomitantly (*a*) with the value of exports per head of the population, and (*b*) with the relative proportion of persons in and out of employment as shown by the returns furnished by the Trades Unions to the Labour Department of the Board of Trade. In those areas and counties where the proportion of the industrial to the other classes is highest, the infantile mortality is far above the average, and in some places, *e.g.*, in Preston, it is so high that insurance societies refuse to take infants lives at all. This is specially the case in the towns. It is to be attributed, partly to overcrowding in unhealthy quarters, partly to the ignorance and carelessness of young parents, partly to the employment of mothers in factories, which often causes premature confinement, and partly to the alcoholic habits of a certain proportion of the artisans. In 1890 there were 2,020 inquest cases held in various parts of the country; in 767 of which cases the cause of death was returned as suffocation in bed. Of these deaths from suffocation, 283 per 1,000 took place on Saturday nights, whereas the figures for the other nights are: Sunday 124, Monday 137, Tuesday 116, Wednesday 115, Thursday 107, and Friday 118. On passing, however, beyond the period of childhood, members of the artisan class have about as good prospects of surviving to the age of 35 as members of the classes above them, but after that age the relative proportion of their mortality increases. The witness put in five tabulated statements showing the comparative mortality of males between the ages of 25 and 65 engaged in different occupations. The figures in Tables I., II., III., and V., he explained, give the number of deaths that occurred annually in 1880–1–2, among 116,261 males in each occupation, of whom 75,396 were between 25 and 45, and 40,865 between 45 and 65 years of age. This population was selected as being that in which 1,000 deaths of clergymen occurred annually. The figures can be converted into death rates per 1,000 by multiplying them by ·008601. The tables in question might, the witness admitted, be to a certain extent vitiated by the fact that, in occupations requiring large expenditure of strength, the weaklings would pass into other trades, and thus cause the death rate in those occupations to be somewhat too favourably estimated. The comparative liability of miners to accidents is counter-balanced by their superior natural physique, and healthfulness. Another difficulty, Dr. Ogle pointed out, in regard to the statistics, is the inaccurate nature of the data from which they are compiled. No improved machinery for dealing with industrial statistics, he considered, could guarantee a really successful result until householders learn to fill up their census returns more accurately.

[§ 562.]

General progress of the industrial class.

563. Mr. Ludlow[1] stated that, during the past 50 years, the condition of the working class had improved very fast, though not so fast as public opinion as to the proper standard of that condition. In former times, the artisan was opposed to both employers and unskilled labourers alike, but now members of what may be called the aristocracy of industry, represented by such men as Mr. John Burns and Mr. Tom Mann, are manfully fighting the battle of unskilled labour. Petty jealousies are dying out. Thus, whereas Mr. Applegarth, the first working man ever appointed to sit on a Royal Commission, was worried into resigning his position as Secretary to the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners through sheer jealousy, the composition of the present Commission is a mark of the total disappearance of that feeling. The improvement of the condition of the working class, both intellectual, material, and moral, has been very marked. The Staffordshire potteries and the Cradley Heath chainmaking district are examples of the few black spots that still exist.

7. THE UNEMPLOYED.

Division of the subject.

564. The problem of the unemployed involves four main issues: First, how can vacancies be more easily discovered? Secondly, how can vacancies be multiplied? Thirdly, how can work be provided in default of vacancies

(1) Digest, p. 43. (2) Digest, pp. 38, 39, 40, and 41.

(1) Digest p. 38.

[§ 564.] in established businesses? And, fourthly, how can provision be made for the unemployable?

565. (i.) In answer to the first question, various regulations (1) have been adopted by the trade unions with a view to affording information to their members as to where work may be obtained. In many, a register is kept of the names and addresses of members who are out of work. This is called the "vacant," "out of work," "call" or "job," book or slate, and it must be signed every day, or, in some cases, once or twice in each week, by members who are in want of employment. By means of such registers employers can obtain information with regard to the number of men at their disposal, and the trade union officials are enabled to exercise some supervision over the unemployed members, and to satisfy themselves that the recipients of benefit are honestly endeavouring to find work. When a vacancy comes to the knowledge of the secretary, he offers it to the member whose name stands first on the list, and if this member refuses it without sufficient cause he is often suspended from benefit for a time, or obliged to place his name last on the list. Employers are, however, as a rule allowed to ask for any particular man by name, and if the man thus called for is not the first upon the list he has the option of refusing to take the work. When members obtain work they are required to cross off their names in the "vacant" book within a stated period, or are subject to a fine. In several societies, a list of shops where men are wanted is kept at the office for the use of unemployed members, and the secretary of each branch is required to give all the information in his power with regard to vacancies to unemployed members of his own branch, or those of other branches who are travelling in search of work. All members are urged to give information at once to the secretary of their branch of any vacant situation of which they may have knowledge; and in some societies, *e.g.*, the Dundee Branch of the United Journeymen Brassfounders' Association of Great Britain and Ireland, a fine is imposed upon members who neglect to do so within 24 hours. A few societies, such as the Durham County Colliery Engineers' Mutual Aid Association, forbid their unemployed members to apply for any situation without first informing the branch secretary of their intention. In the larger societies, *e.g.*, the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, the secretary of each branch is required to send a report of the number of unemployed members and of vacant situations in the neighbourhood to the central office once in every month or quarter, and upon these returns the general secretary bases a report of the condition of trade in the various districts, which is published periodically. When it appears from such reports that there is an opening for more labour in any district, the secretary can generally direct the removal there of unemployed members from other districts, and part or the whole of their fares are in such cases paid by the society. In some cases, moreover, the societies pay the fares of members who have obtained work at a distance, although in some instances repayment is necessary within a fixed period.

(ii.) Apart from the trades unions, who, as Mr. Loch(2) and Mr. J. Burns(3)* pointed out, are naturally anxious to get their unemployed members off their hands, agencies for finding employment have been established under the name of Labour Bureaux or Free Labour Registries. They are conducted on philanthropic rather than commercial principles, that is to say, the object of their promoters is not so much to make a profit as to bring employers and workmen together, and, though in some cases a fee is charged, they are barely and rarely self-supporting. Mr. W. H. Gardener and the Rev. W. Tozer furnished full particulars of the bureaux established at Egham and Ipswich respectively.

(iii.) With regard to the Egham Bureau, the following information was given by Mr. Gardener.(4) Quoting from the opening paragraphs of its first report, he said: This registry was opened in February, 1885, to afford easy means of communication between unemployed labourers and artisans residing in the parish of Egham, and employers requiring workmen, with the hope of avoiding or diminishing the waste of time and energy and the hardships involved in "tramping for work." The need for such a registry was suggested by the case of a local workman who found work by chance near his home after walking vainly some 50 miles through incorrect hearsay reports of available work. By means of this organisation, 2,041 out of 2,465 applicants have been furnished with employment between February 1885 and December 1892.(1) The classes of workpeople so provided for are as follows:—Boys, bricklayers, carpenters, charwomen, cooks, draughtsmen, gardeners, gasfitters, general labourers, grooms, laundresses, married couples, painters, plumbers, and stonemasons. The working expenses for 1892 were 12*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.*, when employment was obtained for 268 adults and 21 boys, out of 382 applicants. The practical management is vested with the registrar, subject to the general inspectorial powers of honorary supervisors.(2) Some employers of labour pay small contributions to the funds. Applicants for employment are charged no fee, but, after they get places, they are requested to subscribe 3*d.* a week during the first few weeks of their engagement. One of the honorary supervisors, Mr. N. L. Cohen, provides a loan fund, out of which money is advanced to men travelling to distant places of employment, or desiring to redeem the tools placed in pawn during the winter, when work cannot be obtained. Mr. Gardener was not aware of the existence of any jealousy on the part of trades unions towards the registry. But the greatest care is exercised not to send labourers to a district where there is a trade dispute, lest such jealousy should arise. [§ 565 (iii.)]

(iv.) The Rev. W. Tozer(3) gave evidence with regard to the working of the Ipswich Bureau, established by himself at Ipswich, in 1885. The lowest number of persons, he said, for whom employment has been found per annum is 250, the highest 531, and the average between 300 and 400. The operations of the bureau extend all over the country. Applicants for work are required to fill up a form, a specimen of which the witness handed in. Documents are also forwarded to employers, together with descriptions of the men wanting places whose names are registered. During the present year, the bureau has received 138 applications for men which it was unable to satisfy, but it has managed to find places for all the men on its books capable of performing marketable work. The demand for agricultural labourers has been markedly persistent up to the last six months, but now it falls short of the supply. Unless an applicant can produce a written character of not less than six months from his last employer, the bureau does not undertake the responsibility of recommending him, but, short of this, it does all it can for him. It has telephonic communication with all the large firms in Ipswich, and by this means it is constantly enabled to put such men on to odd jobs. No fees are charged. The expenses, amounting to about 100*l.* a year, are met by friends of the witness and by the witness himself. The proportion of the different classes of men that applied to the bureau during one representative year is as follows:—36 coachmen and carmen, 36 errand boys, 34 gardeners, 429 unskilled labourers (including agriculturists), 54 porters and warehousemen, and six engine-drivers. Men are never sent by the witness's bureau to firms where a strike is proceeding, except by accident. The witness sometimes advances the railway fares to men going to the places found for them through the medium of the bureau, and gets the foreman in charge of their department to stop the necessary sum out of their wages, at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* per week, till the whole is repaid. The Ipswich Bureau.

(v.) Information concerning other labour bureaux was furnished by Mr. E. T. Scammell (4), the honorary secretary of the Exeter and District Chamber of Commerce. From documents put in evidence by this witness, it appeared that the labour bureau conducted by the Young Men's Christian Association found places for 352 of the 369 candidates for employment whom it allowed to enter their names on its register between January 1st and July 21st, 1892; that the bureau established by the Regent Street Polytechnic has 60 or 70 applicants per month, and finds places for 35 out of every 170, charging a fee of 1*s.* to each successful applicant; and that the bureau worked by the Salvation Army has 10 branches in London, in addition to the head office in Queen Victoria Street, and also branches at Bristol, Leeds, and Bradford, and out of 6,557 male and 577 female applicants between December 31st, 1891, and August 31st, 1892, it found employment for 1,648 in the Army workshops, or "elevators," and permanent posts for 725, and temporary posts for 2,399 elsewhere. Unlike the Young Men's Christian Associations and the Regent Street Polytechnic Bureaux, that of the Salvation Army charges no fee to applicants, but requests their future employers to pay a small voluntary subscription. Other bureaux.

(vi.) All three witnesses (5) were of opinion that all these, and other similar bureaux, ought to be taken over by the Municipalisation of labour bureaux.

* Mr. Burns was repeatedly urged to give evidence before the Commission, but, owing to want of time, was unable to do so. He was subsequently asked whether, in lieu of giving evidence, he could furnish the Commission with a written statement of his opinions. In a postcard received from him on September 26th, 1892, he states: "I "am too busy to do the thing well, so must ask you to excuse me "sending in my views." However, on October 30th 1893, Mr. Burns forwarded two pamphlets enumerated in the Extra List of Documents received, Appendix Volume p. 317, and dealt with in paragraphs 565. viii., 566, 567. ii., &c. of the present Summary.

(1) Memorandum on the Rules of Associations, p. xx. (2) Digest, p. 29. (3) "Nineteenth Century," December, 1892. (4) Digest, p. 27.

(1) Appendix LIX. (2) Digest, p. 28. (3) Digest, p. 28, and Appendix CVI.–CX. (4) Appendix CXIII.–CXVI. (5) Digest, pp. 28 and 29.

municipalities, and their expenses defrayed out of the rates. [§ 565 (vi.)] Otherwise, there is always a risk of offending the trades unions. Working men, said Mr. Tozer, will not put confidence in institutions governed by capitalists or employers, and employers will not put confidence in institutions governed by trade unions. The bureaux ought, therefore, to be entirely removed from the area of both influences, and to be placed upon a public basis.

An example at Chelsea.

(vii.) An object lesson in the form of municipal action here suggested is furnished in the case of the bureau which was established by the Chelsea Vestry in September 1891. Its operations were fully explained by Mr. T. Smyth,(1) its superintendent, who stated that, of a grand total of 1,987 adult males registered there between the 5th of October, 1891, and the 31st of August, 1892, 547 obtained employment; of 388 artisans who registered, 126 got work; of 489 boys, 178 secured posts; of 182 carmen, coachmen, &c., 24 were successful; of 76 clerks, 12 were provided for; of 68 handy men, 49 obtained employment; of 362 labourers, 127 were given situations; of 337 porters, 19 received engagements; of 16 shop assistants, 19* procured places; while, of 13 waiters, 7; and of 56 watchmen, 6 found a market for their services. The class for which it is most difficult to find work are ex-servants and soldiers, who have no special aptitude for any special trade, and, not being accustomed to hard work, usually apply for light employment as porters, &c. Sailors, on the other hand, being handy and used to hard work, find it exceptionally easy to get situations. The number of women that obtain places through the bureau is larger than that of the men, and the vestry feels that the establishment of similar agencies in other parts of London would help many to get work whom private persons would not otherwise care to employ. The Chelsea Bureau is appreciated and utilised by both employers and employed. That the trades unions are not hostile to it is proved by the fact that it was they that secured the appointment of the witness to the office of superintendent. On one occasion since the office has been opened, the witness was asked to supply men to a certain stoneworks during a strike, but he refused to do so. Up to the end of August, 1892, the expenditure on account of the bureau amounted to 162*l.* 15*s.* 7*d.*, *i.e.*, less than 1*s.* per applicant, and little more than 2*s.* per successful applicant. This sum, however, being the amount for the first year, includes several items that are not likely to appear again, and it is estimated that in future years the cost per head will be reduced.

Affiliation of bureaux under a national Labour Department

(viii.) With a view to making the work of the labour bureau more effective, all their representatives concurred in advocating the adoption of some scheme of affiliation. An attempt at reciprocity, indeed, was made between the Egham and the Chelsea Bureaux, but it failed because of the dissimilarity of their respective districts. The Egham Bureau did not want Chelsea artisans, and the Chelsea, Bureau did not want Egham agricultural labourers.(2) Mr. Smyth considered that the London Bureaux must always stand apart, and desired to affiliate all the metropolitan registries under a central bureau, to be controlled by the London County Council. He was quite willing, however to accept a national scheme of affiliation under a Government Department. Such a scheme was supported by Messrs. Tozer and Scammell. The former desired to subordinate all the labour bureaux to a Department of Labour, which, he thought, should be placed under the control of a permanent secretary, independent of the changes of ministry, but subject to the general supervision of a ministerial chief.(3) The department, he added, would act as a sort of clearing house of labour. Mr. Scammell(4) expressed similar views in greater detail. In fact, he had reduced his proposals to a definite practical scheme, for the general principle of which he had secured the sanction of Associated Chambers of Commerce. The scheme is as follows:—That a National Central Labour Bureau be created by extending the functions of the Labour Department of the Board of Trade, and affiliating it with the Emigrants' Information Department, and with the Factory Inspectors' Department. This central bureau should obtain and disseminate information on labour questions, and should register unemployed labour, dealing for this purpose with local registries established in connexion with every county and borough. It should also issue periodically an official journal, containing current information on labour questions and general statistics of employment. And it should act as a clearing house, or means of mutual exchange, between the various district registries. These latter should endeavour to bring persons wanting work into touch with persons wanting workmen. They should be supported by the rates, and should take no fee from the applicants, whether they be employers or employed. They should not interfere in any way with wage questions, but should leave the parties to make their own bargains and fight their own battle, and they should never accept the registration, whether of employers wanting men or of men wanting employment, if the want is occasioned by a strike, save and except when such registration is accompanied by a notification of the fact. Furthermore, they should never require applicants for registration to produce credentials of character, although they should receive such credentials if voluntarily offered. And, finally, they should perform the same functions in regard to their several districts as the central bureau in regard to the whole country, by collecting and publishing information. Messrs Mann(1) and Webb(2) considered that the Labour Department should undertake the functions here laid down, among others. They also were of opinion that the said department should deduce from the information it collected forecasts of future fluctuations in trade, but it was pointed out by Mr. Giffen(3) that this would be impossible, inasmuch as any man capable of preparing even tolerably accurate forecasts of the kind would be found, not applying for employment in a Government office, but on the Stock Exchange, making a large fortune for himself. A similar suggestion was made by Mr. John Burns in an article that appeared in the "Nineteenth Century" magazine for December 1892, in words to the following effect:—"A "central labour exchange should be established in con- "junction with an imperial labour bureau for Great Britain, "utilising the 18,000 post offices for ascertaining and "exchanging the varying local industrial needs. The "whole of these arrangements should form part of a "Ministry of Labour and Fine Arts, dealing in a method- "ical and systematic manner with the industrial, technical, "and artistic sides of the production of wealth that are "now forgotten in the vulgar scramble for personal gain."

[§ 565 (viii.)]

Labour bureaux criticised.

(ix.) Mr. Loch,(4) the secretary of the Charity Organisation Society, did not approve of the labour bureaux system in any form. The experience of the society, he said, had not been in their favour, and there was a strong body of opinion among the witnesses examined by a special committee of the said Society that sat to inquire into homeless cases, to the effect that they have tended to demoralise the men, by causing them to relax their efforts both in seeking work for themselves and in sticking to the work found for them, a fact which Mr. Tozer disputed.(5) The criticisms made by the chairman of the Finance Committee of the Chelsea Vestry, Mr. Loch continued, upon the working of the bureau opened by that borough, are very much to the point. He said that it had, in his opinion, failed to perform the services expected of it, and that it was too costly in proportion to the number of persons for whom it found employment. He pointed out that the largest class of engagements was that of charwomen and domestic servants, who could obtain free registration at the ordinary servants' registry offices, and he contended that the bureau offered no proof that the larger proportion of persons whom it sent to places really engaged themselves, or that their engagements were permanent, while the number of *bonâ fide* male workers for whom employment of any kind had been found was only 2·5 *per diem*. He also criticised the various figures, with the object of showing that every person sent after a place had cost the vestry over 2*s.* Of course, Mr. Loch concluded, if the trades unions and the employers were to come to some understanding as to the use of labour bureaux, there would be a new element in the case, which it would be worth while to consider; but, at present, such institutions are generally formed when employment is scarce, and it is precisely during such times that they are useless, for employment cannot be organised by a bureau when there is no employment to be had.

How can vacancies multiplied

State regulation of the hours of labour.

566. (i.) How, then, are vacancies to be multiplied? The answer given to this question by Messrs. Mann(6), Burns, and Webb(7) is, by State regulation of the hours of labour. To these witnesses, it was objected that this would increase the cost of production, raise prices, and check demand, and so prevent the desired absorption of the unemployed. But this the witnesses would not admit. Owing to the greater efficiency of more leisured workers, they considered, the cost of production would not be increased. In that case, it was objected, how would the absorption take place? By associating reduced hours with

* The Witness explained the apparent inconsistency by saying that some of the persons who obtained places as shop assistants had registered under other headings.

(1) Digest, p. 28, and Appendix LXVI. and LXVII. (2) Digest, p. 28. (3) Digest, p. 28. (4) Digest, p. 29, and Appendix CXI., CXII., and CXVII.

(1) Digest, p. 16. (2) Digest, p. 21. (3) Digest, p. 43. (4) Digest, p. 30, and Appendix XCVIII. (5) Digest, p. 28. (6) Digest, p. 27. (7) Digest, p. 22.

[§ 566 (i.)] increased wages, Mr. Mann replied, thereby augmenting the purchasing power of the workers, and creating a new demand, which additional hands would be wanted to supply. It is true, he added, that the rise in wages would be at the expense of profits and interest; but, as it is unlikely that employers and capitalists would reduce their personal expenditure to the same extent as the wage-earners would increase theirs, an increased total consumption would be the net result. But, admitting that a reduction of hours increased the cost of production, Mr. Webb contended that prices would not necessarily tend to rise, for demand is relative to a certain price, a fact proved in the case of railways, where the increased cost which has certainly resulted from a shortening of the hours in this particular industry, has not been followed by a rise in fares. And, admitting even further that an increased cost of production were accompanied by an upward tendency in prices, Mr. Mann contended that by supplementing the reduction of hours by State management of industry, that tendency might be forcibly counteracted.

Emigration. (ii.) Emigration was mentioned by Mr. Mann(1) as a possible method of increasing the number of vacancies relatively to the number of those seeking work. But he did not expect its extension to produce any very useful result, inasmuch as it would not have any effect on the fluctuations of trade, which must always throw men out of work in bad times, so long as they continued to exist. It would be far better, he thought, to check the emigration of capital and develop our unused resources at home. Too much, he said, both of our goods and of our capital goes abroad, when there are plenty of persons at home to be supplied with the former and employed by the latter. The depressions of English trade are due to the falling credit of the foreign countries for which we cater. The trade we might do at home would not be liable to depression from causes external to ourselves, and it would, therefore, be desirable to be rather more self-supporting. Mr. Loch,(2) on the other hand, thought that emigration was a satisfactory method as far as it went, and if properly carried out, although he considered that very careful selection was necessary in order to secure good results. The subject, however, is fully dealt with in an Appendix to Vol. II., Foreign Reports, on the Migration of Labour.

Resuscitation of agriculture. (iii.) A third method of creating vacancies, advocated by Messrs. Mann and Burns, was the resuscitation of agriculture. This point was clearly drawn out by the latter in the course of the article already referred to, where he wrote:—"Whatever may be done of a gradual and tentative "character in the towns or cities by public works or by "reduction of the hours of labour, will be permanently "useless till the influx from the countryside is stopped. "Nothing but the justifiable appropriation by the rural "authorities of the uncultivated land will do it. In the "general interests of the country something must be "attempted to prevent the land lying idle. Year by year "the community looks on as field after field is added to "sporting estates, and men give way to deer. The creation of parish and district councils must stop this, and, "let us hope, will furnish the labourer and farmer with "the means not only of cultivation where now desolation "reigns, but will provide the means for more attractive "life on the soil, higher wages, and that steadiness of "work that will stem the exodus to the towns."

How can work be provided in default of vacancies in established businesses.

(a) *By direct employment by public bodies for the performance of their work.*

567. (i.) Whatever the advantages of State regulation of hours or emigration might be, their respective advocates did not trust to them exclusively for solving the whole problem, but made several suggestions for providing employment in default of vacancies in established businesses. The public authority, said Mr. Mann,(3) should not only make better provision for the regulation of the industrial operations of private firms, but should extend its own functions as an employer of labour in fulfilment of its obligation to provide the workless not only with food but also with a fair outlet for their energies. The first step that State and municipal authorities ought, according to Messrs. Mann(4) and Webb,(5) to take, was to start factories and workshops for the performance of the work which would otherwise be let out to contractors. But it was pointed out by Sir Thomas Farrer(6) that less employment would be furnished in this way relatively to the funds which the public authority had at its disposal than through the contractors, whose management would be much more economical. Mr. Webb,(7) however, defended the remedy he proposed by saying that the predicament where the municipalities would no longer have any work to give the unemployed was very remote, because they could always raise funds and extend their sphere of industrial action indefinitely.

(1) Digest, p. 16. (2) Appendix, XCVII. (3) Digest, p. 16. (4) Digest, p. 17. (5) Digest, p. 22. (6) Digest, p. 24. (7) Digest, p. 22.

[§ 567 (ii.)] (b) *Artificial employment.*

(ii.) In fact, it was proposed to deal with the unemployed not merely by utilising them for doing the work which the public authorities required, but by undertaking work that was not required in order to provide them with employment. Sir Thomas Farrer, indeed, pointed out that, in regard to municipal and State employment, such a policy is, in slack seasons, a matter not of choice but of necessity. A public body, he said, cannot undertake private work as a stop-gap, and, as workshops that stand still are quickly out of gear, work must be made if it does not come naturally. And he proceeded to argue that whatever objection can be urged against the policy of setting up by the public authority of workshops to do its necessary work, would apply still more strongly to the policy of setting up workshops for the performance of work for which there is no demand. The case against artificial employment, however, was most forcibly presented by Mr. Loch,(1) who pointed out that it inevitably had the effect of forcing into pauperism the class immediately above the class it rescued, and by merely substituting the labour of the worse class for the labour of the better, it raised the cost of production and intensified the evil it sought to remove. This indictment he proceeded to prove by specific instances. The Salvation Army, he said,(2) has established workshops for the employment of the unemployed, and brings the products of their labour into competition, not only with those of the labour of persons that have found places independently, but also with those of the labour of persons for whom work has been provided by other charitable institutions. Thus, the London School Board has accepted the tender of the Salvation Army for the supply of firewood to the schools for the next 12 months, in preference to the competing tenders of the Church Army, Dr. Barnardo's Home, and the Boys' Home of Regent's Park.

On the other hand, Mr. J. Burns in his article in the "Nineteenth Century" for December 1892, wrote:—"A committee should be formed in each county council "area, consisting of representatives of trade unions, the "Charity Organisation Society, friendly societies, and, if "possible, also the guardians of the poor and members of "the vestries, which should differentiate the men willing "and able to work from the mere loafers. All money "subscribed for the relief of the former class should be "handed over to the authorities responsible for the cleansing, sanitation, and making of such public works as "roads, streets, parks, and sewers. The surveyor or "engineer should be the responsible authority for the "expenditure of this money, and, so far as possible, the "conditions of hours and wages current at the time should "be observed. The men (marked out as fit for employment) could be employed at fewer hours per day, or "fewer days per week than ordinarily, so that the aggregate wage earned should be no inducement either to "malinger or refuse work elsewhere under ordinary conditions. If the amount of money is sufficient, then the "work should proceed as if in that district no exceptional "distress existed. The poor law guardians should act in "conjunction with this committee, and should hand over "to the local authority that amount of money to be spent "in useful work or non-pauperising relief that would "have been spent in other directions if no such public "works had been instituted. At Paddington in 1887 a "public committee co-operated and jointly subscribed "money for work for 350 men, and gave employment to "133 women on needlework. The advantage of this "course is that you distribute over all the men employed, "without pauperising them, that amount of money which "all people in the parish subscribe through the rates, and "you make the support of the unemployed a collective "compulsory charge on the district that profits by the "work they perform. The application for work should "be restricted to local men with at least three months' "residence. Work should be of public utility, not necessarily of immediate demand, but prospectively required. "The work should be such as would give simple employment to the class which is mainly influenced by depression—the unskilled. Ground work on roads, sewers, "and recreation grounds is the best, as the bulk of the "cost of these works goes in wages for manual labour. "Each locality to be responsible for its own unemployed, "unless the extent of the works permit otherwise, and "equitable arrangements are made with other districts. "As in the case of the common poor law fund, the richer "districts with no unemployed ought to contribute *pro "ratâ* for work that poorer districts do in relief of metropolitan distress. The equalisation of rates would remove "many objections now urged on the score of cost by poor "districts. The Government could also lend money on easy

(1) Digest, p. 29. (2) Digest, p. 30.

[§ 567 (ii.)] "terms, and in many cases make a contribution, but should "leave the carrying out of work entirely to local authority. "The character of the work to be done is of course difficult "to decide upon, as in many districts there are staple "trades the skill and delicacy of which prevent hard and "laborious work being undertaken easily by the men. "But generally, as was found on the 2,000,000*l.* of work "undertaken by local authorities in Lancashire in 1862 "and 1863, as told by Mr. Arthur Arnold in his excellent "'History of the Cotton Famine,' and by Mr. Torrens "and Sir Robert Rawlinson in their reports, the men "soon adapted themselves to the work, which, when "finished, was of lasting benefit to the community. Public "works in India, Ireland, and the colonies, even though "some of the works in the latter may have been under-"taken for political reasons, go on the whole to prove "that it is better to spend 1,000,000*l.* on useful labour "than 2,000,000*l.* in charity."

Labour colonies.

(iii.) It is in the larger and more important experiments that the effects of artificial employment can be seen most clearly. Such experiments are labour colonies. This method of providing work had been previously mentioned with approval by Mr. Keir Hardie,(1) who was examined before Group A. That witness had suggested that remunerative work should be found for the unemployed in home colonies, constituted after the model sketched by Mr. H. V. Mills, in his book entitled "Poverty and the State," and had intimated that an attempt was being made to obtain a portion of the Scotch Equivalent Grant for the purpose of founding one of these colonies by way of experiment. The persons settled in them, he had contended, should be allowed to send the produce of dairy farms and orchards, but not manufactured goods, to outside markets. The initial cost should be met by doubling the Poor Rate for one year, and the colonies should, in return, be charged with the future maintenance of the poor and aged, in addition to that of the unemployed. A poor rate doubled for two years would yield about 20,000,000*l.*, while, according to the returns published by the Board of Trade, and to deductions drawn from them, there are at the present moment (January, 1892) 400,000 unemployed workmen in Great Britain. Even if the colonies could not pay their way, Mr. Keir Hardie had concluded that it would be better to find these persons employment at a cost to the community than to maintain them, still at the cost of the community, in idleness. Similar colonies, he had added, have been established in Austria and Holland, where they are said to be highly successful. Concerning this last statement, however, different opinions are held. Mr. Loch,(2) who furnished a very full account of the working of the Dutch and other labour colonies, contended that they were all of them failures, because, instead of raising the efficiency of the colonists and enabling them to stand alone, they are constantly invaded by the return of the men that have already passed through them unreformed.

The Dutch Free Labour Colonies.

(iv.) At the same time, Mr. Loch was quite ready to admit that the Dutch Free Labour Colonies were quite the most remarkable experiment that had yet been made in the direction of artificial employment. Their chief originator, he said, was General Van der Bosch,(3) whose idea was that able-bodied indigent persons of good character might be enabled to support themselves by reclaiming waste land, provided that a sufficient amount of capital were devoted to their maintenance during the progress of the work. It was anticipated that, under the training and discipline of a well regulated establishment, the moral character and the habits of that class of persons might be greatly improved, and that they would give employment to industry in supplying their wants, instead of being, as they then were, a burden upon the community. The first colony was established in 1818, amid the greatest enthusiasm throughout the country. A society was organised, with a central committee and allied districts, each of which was entitled to send to the colonies a family for every 140*l.* subscribed. The original site of the colony consisted of more than 1,200 acres, a small part of which had already been brought under cultivation, but, for the most part, it was covered with short heather, growing on flat, sandy soil, and covered with a layer of moss several inches thick. This was at once peopled with 52 households, or 356 souls in all, each $7\frac{7}{16}$ acres of land to each house. A school, a warehouse, and spinning house were built, and the little river that came by was made navigable. Six other colonies were formed soon afterwards on the same plan, each being divided into districts consisting of 25 farms, and each district being divided into two sections, each of which was placed in charge of a supervisor, who should give instruction in agriculture. The whole seven colonies were governed by a director and assistant-directors. For the first three years the colonists cultivated the land in common, and stored up the produce in a common granary for the common benefit, but, as the various farms were brought under cultivation, this system died out. When a fresh farm was brought under cultivation, the head of the household to whom it was allotted was debited 5*l.* as interest on the remainder of his capital (cost of furniture deducted), and had to pay rent. So long as a family could not provide its own sustenance, it received food daily from the common store to which it was also obliged to contribute; but when it could provide for itself (as it was supposed to be able to do when it began to earn 6*s.* 8*d.* a week) it forfeited its claim to a dole, and was allowed to prepare its own produce for home consumption instead of sending it to the common granary. Incompetent persons were not entrusted with farms, but had to be content with the position of labourers, and, in course of time, the majority of the new arrivals proved to be awkward, town bred men, and quite unsuitable for agricultural work at all. To meet their requirements, other industries, such as mat-making, rope-making, spinning and weaving were started.

[§ 567 (iv.)]

Their condition in 1827.

(v.) In 1827, there were as many as 2,233 persons in these colonies.(1). Mr. Nassau Senior, writing about that date, said:—"The land occupied by the Dutch Labour Colonies "is of little value, and the employing of persons taken indis-"criminately from other occupations and trades, almost all "of them are the victims of idleness or misconduct, and little "urged by the stimulus of individual interest in farming "the worst land of the country—land so worthless that the "fee simple is only worth 24*s.* an acre—at an expense of "outfit, exclusive of the value of the land, of more than "130*l.* per family, and under the management of a joint "stock company of more than 20,000 members, cannot but "be a ruinous speculation. Nor does the institution "appear to have repressed pauperism by the disagreeable-"ness of the terms on which it offers relief. We have seen, "on the contrary, that it has not prevented its steady "increase."

Their condition in 1853.

(vi.) In 1883(2), the number of free farmers, or occupiers of land, as opposed to labourers, in these colonies, was only 16, as against 25 in 1848. At that date, Sir John McNeill reported on their condition, and quoted the following observations that had been made to him by one of the officials:—"Considered as an attempt to make these "families maintain themselves, the free colonies have "proved, after an extensive period of 34 years, not only "a complete failure, but there is reason to believe that "the scheme could not possibly have succeeded, and this "even if the colonists selected were from classes well "suited for the occupation. The condition of the colonist "is little affected by the greater or less amount of work "he performs, and, however small it may be, he is assured "of a comfortable habitation, clothing, and fuel, with food "enough to keep himself and his family in health. There "is, in consequence, a great desire among the able-bodied "indigent persons in the *communes* to come to the colony. "There are always more applications than can be "accepted, and the children, though carefully educated, "are accustomed to see their parents and everyone "about them rely upon outside aid for their means of "subsistence, and so have not learned to trust to their "own exertions for a livelihood, and therefore few of "them are able to maintain themselves."

Their reconstitution under the State in 1859.

(vii.) By 1859(3), the debt owed by the society to the State and other creditors amounted to 461,000*l.*, in spite of the Government purchasing the produce of the colonies at special rates. Whereupon the Government remitted the debt, and took over the whole concern. At the time of the reconstruction, the number of free farmers was 176, and, of the labourers, 2,471. The Government policy, however, was to increase the number of the former, and that policy was so far successful that, by 1870, the number of free farmers had increased to 1,313, while that of the labourers had fallen to 530. Under the new *régime*, six model farms were established, and a forestry department was opened. The colonists were allowed to keep all they earned, coinage took the place of the token currency, and piece-work was substituted for time-work. There was more judicious management, and something of an improvement was observable in the character of the colonists, who were now selected with great care. Rents were low, and no interest was charged on arrears; outfit, cattle, manure, &c., were furnished in the colony workshops during bad times; medical attendance and education were granted cheap; and instruction and superintendence were given gratis; while the whole concern was administered in a kindly and a

(1) Digest, Group A., Vol. II., p. 28. (2) Digest, p. 29, and Appendix XCI., XCII., and XCIII. (3) Digest, p. 29. *See also* Foreign Reports, Vol. III., Holland, p. 31, and Vol. V., Germany, p. 90.

(1) Digest, p. 29. (2) Digest, p. 30. (3) Digest, p. 30.

[§ 567 (vii.)] friendly spirit. Yet the only result was that the colonists still failed to maintain themselves, could not pay their rents in full, and did not save a penny. In 1889, about 40 farms were vacant, and were not filled up owing to the dearth of suitable applicants, some of those who applied being totally incapable of managing them, while most of those for whom the Government was most anxious to provide objected to exchanging town for country life.

The Dutch Beggar Colonies.

(viii.) Soon after the first labour colony(1) was established (1818), there were added certain beggar colonies on the same plan. Their history is very similar. They were instituted in 1820, at Ommerschans, where the land (1,900 acres) was given by the Government, and at Veenhuizen, where the land was bought by the society. Their object was to provide every mendicant who showed his willingness to work with healthy outdoor labour, good food, and moral surroundings. They were open to the following classes:—First, to ablebodied persons convicted of mendicancy, vagrancy, and other petty offences, whose sentence was commuted from imprisonment to residence for a certain number of years in one of these colonies; secondly, to voluntary inmates, paid for by the *communes*; thirdly, to old soldiers and their families; and, lastly, to orphans, foundlings and deserted children. In 1827, their population, including officials, was 4,518. In 1853 (2), Sir John McNeill reported that the evils noticeable in the case of the labour colonies were in the case of the beggar colonies intensified. It took 15 colonists to do the field work of one good day labourer. Supervision was impossible; a low standard of work was accepted, and ex-colonists were constantly returning. In 1859, the beggar colonies were reconstructed like the rest, and are now better managed than they used to be, but, even at the present time, they are not a financial success, and utterly fail to elevate the paupers into self-support. Of their 3,353 inhabitants, only 425 are there for the first time. All the rest have been there more than once, very many are there for the fifth, sixth, or seventh time, and some have been there much oftener.

The Arbeiter Colonies.

(ix.) The history of the Arbeiter Colonies(), which were founded at Wilhelmsdorff, Germany, in March 1882, is very similar. A detailed account of their working is given on page 90, Vol. V., Foreign Reports.(3)

The Belgian Agricultural Beneficent Colonies.

(x.) Mr. Loch also put in a document containing the following information with regard to the agricultural beneficent colonies in Belgium(4):—For the six provincial Depôts de Mendicité that existed in 1830–1, and two colonies, a forced one at Merxplas and a free one at Workl, there have been substituted a non-able-bodied colony at Hoogstraeten of about 270 acres, and two able-bodied colonies, one of 1,300 acres at Merxplas, and the other of 1,425 acres at Workl. In December, 1890, the able-bodied colonies contained 2,928, and the non-able-bodied, 1,285 persons. The former have quite failed to make their colonists self-supporting. Of the 2,928, no fewer than 2,507 have been there before.

The Irish Labour Colonies and Labour Colonies generally.

(xi.) Coming nearer home, Mr. Loch cited the case of the Irish Labour Colonies,(5) which were started on similar lines to the Dutch Free Labour Colonies in 1852. The men were carefully selected for them, he said, and, for a short time, they seemed to be succeeding. But latterly the cost was found to be 90*l.* 13*s.* 5*d.* per head per annum, less 27*l.*, which proved to be the average value of the produce of a colonist's labour, so that they can hardly be said to be other than a failure. In short, Mr. Loch considered that no colony system had ever been or could ever be permanently successful. On this point he was in striking agreement with Mr. J. Burns, who expressed his disapproval of artificial employment in this particular form in the course of the article before referred to, in the following terms:—"Of the fiscal, charitable, or economic rostrums "that are hourly preached for the redemption of mankind, "labour colonies are the least scientific. A labour colony "presupposes male labour. What have the unemployed "working women done to be thus ignored? It also means "manual unskilled labour being mainly employed. From "whence to be drawn? Not from the skilled trades that in "the main are engaged on foreign work and most liable "to fluctuation and depression, but from the labourers in "the building trades, gasworks, agricultural labour, and "other internal occupations of the manual labour class. "The labour colony has no room for the spinner, weaver, "lace-maker, jeweller, engineer, and others, the bulk of "whose work goes abroad. It is intended rather for the "relief of men whom I would rather see repairing roads, "cleansing streets, reclaiming foreshores, purifying rivers "and canals, pulling down unsanitary areas and rebuilding, emptying dustbins, general sanitary work, and "other useful and reproductive employment on which they "could use their labour to greater advantage to themselves and the community than on farm work, that is, "supposing they would stay, which in ninety cases out a "hundred they would not. This is proved by the experience of all labour colonies, which shows that they can "only be conducted by earnest, intelligent, unselfish men, "enthused by the highest spiritual or social ideals, or by "the most absolute discipline, on a prison labour basis, "to which your out-of-work, who would leave his home "and the town, would not voluntarily submit, and which, "for different reasons, the honest unemployed would not "tolerate. The fact is, labour colony advocates assume "the absence of home ties, associations, and the strong "and laudable desire in genuine unemployed men to be "so situated in their temporary work in depressed times "as would permit of them seizing the first opportunity to "leave and return to their proper industries, conditions "impossible in labour colonies. Men destitute of these "qualities lack the essentials for continuous work, and "generally would be a source of demoralisation. The "labour colony, as a remedy for the unemployed, is, I "maintain, foredoomed to failure, and is nothing but the "revival in another form of the hated casual ward with all "its physical moral and iniquities. If municipalisation of "agriculture is intended, that is something I can understand but that for years is not likely to prove a remedy for "the workless. Rather will it come after easier things have "been undertaken and accomplished—the abolition of "overwork, the reduction of the hours of labour, and the "reorganisation of labour in every trade, that is now "going on—too slowly I admit—in the right direction by "trade union, municipal, and parliamentary action. And "should the municipalisation of agriculture be undertaken on Socialist lines, its initial stage must be conducted not by the unskilled unemployed plus an in-and-out army of loafers, casuals, and wastrels, but by the "best of labour attracted by those better conditions "which would accompany such an undertaking started by "people with brains along the lines followed by the L.C.C. "in doing its own work. A pious wish to get the townsman into the country will not help us. The fact is, "sentiment and personal repugnance to country labour is "often the cause of rural depopulation, assisted, of course, "by increased use of machinery, cheaper foreign food "stuffs, and other causes. The argument that the produce of labour colonies should be used and consumed "inside and should not be sold to people outside is absurd "and presupposes that the colony is sufficiently large to "include the numerous trades that are required to supply "the wants of a working class population, and that the "organisation should be such as could only be arrived at "after years of experiment. It therefore fails to touch the "problem of providing employment at once for those who "are without. The labour colony products must be sold "and exchanged outside if the colony is to succeed. If "this is done, what will be the effect on the displacement "of agricultural labour is shown by Mr. W. E. Bear, an "agricultural authority, who says, in the course of one of "his reports to the Royal Commission on Labour (The "Agricultural Labourer, Vol. I., part 1, Page 113.):—

"'Around Nottingham, where there is an excellent "'market for vegetables and fruit, small and large "'market gardens are numerous. The evidence of those "'engaged in the industry, many of whom I visited in "'their homes or in the market, was generally depressing. "'They said that the market had become glutted in recent "'years, so that prices had become barely remunerative, "'and that rail rates were so high that the bulky produce "'of their gardens could not profitably be sent to distant "'markets. One reason of the depression given was that "'thousands of the working men of Nottingham had "'acquired allotments, on which they not only grew al "'the vegetables they required, and so ceased to be customers to the market gardeners, but also frequently "'had a surplus to sell, thus becoming competitors.'

"This being so, the establishment of labour colonies "outside every town would only accentuate the unemployed difficulty, and lead to the permanent degradation "of agriculture and its labour. Agricultural labourers "now at work will be displaced by the labour of the "colonists, unless protection is adopted with its greater "train of evils, just as Salvation Army brickmakers are "displacing honest brickmakers at the present moment, "and prison, pauper, reformatory and industrial school "labour is displacing and destroying several trades. "Besides this objection, the cost of labour colonies must "come from some source. The only one available is the "consumer and producer. Is it not better that the cost of "keeping the unemployed should be borne, not by spending money in creating superfluous farms and municipal "workshops, but by slightly adding to the cost of production if necessary in all trades by absorbing the unem-

[§ 567 (xi.)]

(1) Digest, p. 29. (2) Digest, p. 30. (3) Appendix XCIII., and see Foreign Reports, Vol. V., Germany, p. 90. (4) Appendix XCII. (5) Digest, p. 30.

[§ 567 (xi.)] Other schemes of artificial employment.

" ployed through the reduction of hours of all and the " employment at all trades of their now surplus workers?"

(xii.) Mr. Loch thought that the principle of artificial employment, apart from any of its particular applications, was essentially unsound. He handed in various documents, moreover, containing information as to certain cases where artificial employment had resulted in but doubtful advantage, even when adopted for a purely temporary object. In 1887–8, for example (1), a committee of the Mansion House managed the work in connection with some gardens opened and put in order by the Public Gardens Association. It was a mixed committee, on which were poor law guardians, working men, &c. 456 men received the offer of employment, 406 were married, 50 single; of this number 62, or about 14 per cent., to whom tickets were given, did not present themselves at the works, but assigned no reason: 134, or about 30 per cent., were dismissed at various times for misconduct, continued absence, or incapacity; 164, or about 36 per cent., after careful, in some cases prolonged, investigation, the committee found themselves powerless to raise from their present position; 17, or about 4 per cent., left the work of their own accord for better employment; 54, or about 12 per cent., were assisted by being made members of trade or benefit societies, by migration, by obtaining or taking out of pawn tools or clothes when there was definite prospect of work; and in other ways 26, or about 6 per cent., were emigrated to colonies at their own request. The ages of the men were as follows:— 15, or about 4 per cent, were under 20 years; 111, or about 28 per cent., between 20 and 30; 148, or about 36 per cent., between 30 and 40; 78, or about 20 per cent., between 40 and 50; 28, or about 7 per cent., between 50 and 60; 14, or about 3 per cent., over 60 years. Again, Mr. Loch(2) put in an abstract of the evidence given by Mr. Acworth before a Select Committee of the House of Lords that sat on Poor Law relief, in the course of which he criticised the results of the policy of the Wandsworth Board of Guardians in providing artificial employment during 1886, in words to the following effect:—"In this case," he said, "men were set to dig out foundations, " which foundations were not wanted at the time, and " were not actually built on for, I think, nine months " afterwards, and they had then been very much damaged " by wet, and they were found not to be in the place " entirely where they were wanted for subsequent building " . . . We sifted very large quantities of sand. We " charged no royalty, it was our own freehold, we credited " ourselves at the full value that it would be to sell, but " we have not hitherto sold it. The men worked at 3¾*d.* " per hour. They had a very short day's work, only about " seven or seven and a half hours. Labourers would have " been paid paid 5*d.* on an average. In this instance, " they could hardly be considered deprived of their work, " because it had to be done twice over, otherwise they " would have been deprived of it. In the following win- " ter there was a general expectation that employment " should be again provided. The board had deputations " every week for some period, requesting them to give " work at wages, and they had to explain that they had " not work at wages to offer. They did not attempt to do " any other work again otherwise than by contract, and " subsequently the Guardians opened a labour yard. This, " too, succeeded in attracting new paupers, or was of assis- " tance to those who had in previous years applied. Of " 24 under one relieving officer, four had relief since; out " of 62 in another district, 17 had relief since; out of 58 " in a third, 10 had had relief; in a fourth, where the " relieving officer had two districts, out of 21, 7 had " applied for relief before or since, and out of 68, 25; in " the remaining district, 19 out of 60 men in 1886 have " either had or applied for pauper relief since."

Tendency towards artificial employment deprecated.

(xiii.) Unsatisfactory as artificial employment may be, Mr. Loch pointed out that expectation and demand for it during bad times was undoubtedly growing, and that the questionable policy of satisfying such expectation and demand was already beginning to be adopted, as was proved by the circular addressed to relieving officers by Messrs. Chamberlain and Fowler,(3) Presidents of the Local Government Board in 1886 and 1893 respectively, ordering them to send applicants for relief to the works provided by various vestries, such as Chelsea and Nottingham, without poor law tests.* Referring to this matter, Mr. J. Burns, in the above-mentioned number of the "Nineteenth Century," wrote, "One of the best instances of the " efficacy of public relief works is the case of Chelsea " in 1886, when 16,000*l.* was spent in paving and " laying out roads and streets. The work was of excel- " lent character, equal, even better, in quality and price " than contract work; and for three months gave " employment to over 200 men of many trades, who " soon adapted themselves to the work, and, with the " parish, derived great benefit. In 1887 similar work on " a smaller scale was undertaken with like success. At " Paddington, also, in 1886 a joint committee of subscribers " and vestrymen carried out road work and the improve- " ment of public gardens in that district. At Wandsworth " many men were engaged in digging sand, foundations, " and other ground work. Battersea, St. Pancras, and " many other parishes, also the Metropolitan Gardens " Association, carried out many useful improvements and " in the best way relieved distress, discouraged loafing, " and benefited the community by the works carried out. " At Oxford, Norwich, Ipswich, Yarmouth, Eastbourne, " and at Brighton similar work was done: 1,000 men " were employed for some weeks on necessary roads; at " Yarmouth and King's Lynn general relief works were " also undertaken, also at Southampton, Dudley, Walsall, " and Stourbridge, in cleansing roads and similar work. " Tynemouth employed some hundreds of men upon a " public park, sea road, and sea banks. South Shields " gave work to 400 men three days per week; and Sunder- " land to 1,300 men of all trades on foreshore works, of " which the Local Government Board official states:—'It " ' is impossible to contemplate without a feeling of satis- " ' faction the great improvement to the district that has " ' resulted from the judicious employment of these men " ' at a critical time.' And of Wales, where street im- " provements, parks, gardens, and foreshore works were " undertaken, Mr. Murray Bourne, of the Local Govern- " ment Board, says:—'Relief was no doubt considerable. " ' The carrying out of such works at such a time possesses " ' obvious advantages. The work is possibly done some- " ' what more cheaply than when labour is in demand.' " For the less skilled men who are willing to work, " London and all other towns can always find work for " many who have strength enough to use a broom or shovel. " The condition of our streets in summer is bad enough, " and it is more than the insufficient permanent staff " can do to keep them clean; whilst in winter the staff " could be easily doubled, and if this were done when " mud, snow, and dirt are much in evidence, from six to " ten thousand men could find employment. If to this was " added a crusade against dirt and filth in all the side " streets, slums, and alleys with broom, whitewash, and " disinfectant, in fact a vigorous enforcement of the new " Public Health Act, work would be justified and secured " for a still larger number. The recent disclosures of Dr. " Dudfield as to the filthy condition of cisterns provides, " until they are removed, a source of employment for " many; as also does the removal of dust and other " refuse. The man with the muck rake, the scavenger of " to-day, is not the dejected, semi-pauperised automaton " that he used to be, working for less than the current " wage, and one step from the workhouse. He had been " enthused and organised, and as Mr. Giffen testifies, has " reduced his hours of labour 30 per cent. and raised his " wages from 10 to 25 per cent. His calling is no longer " what it was, and men who used to look upon road- " sweeping as derogatory now cheerfully look for it as an " alternative to the other work that through age, and for " many other reasons, fails them. The Battersea Vestry, " beyond establishing 25*s.* as a minimum wage for their " scavengers, have decided that no man under 40 years of " age will be eligible for this class of work. This is a " good step, as it throws the burden of the industrial fight, " as it should, on the young and the unmarried, and gives " to the older more municipal protection from the " increasing intensity of competition, and, through the " rates, throws upon the employer his share of the public " duty towards the veterans of industry. I have gone " fairly into the matter, and believe if Mr. Fowler's cir- " cular is loyally adopted by the 14,000 local authorities " throughout the country, as it has been anticipated by " the London County Council, that there are many useful " works that could be carried out in each district of general " sanitary character, which, combined with repairs of " roads, streets, and sewers, on the standard of Chelsea in " 1886, would give a total of 24,000 to 30,000 men " employment in London alone, or about 200,000 through- " out the country. And why should not this be done? " When a busy man has an hour to spare, how does he " occupy it? He tidies up, set his rooms and papers in " order; when a thrifty housewife has an opportunity of

[§ 567 (xiii.)]

* The circular addressed by the Local Government Board to the clerks to Sanitary Authorities on the 30th September, 1893, to the effect that they should forthwith proceed with the execution of works which, in the interest of their district as regards its sanitary condition or local improvement, or otherwise, it is desirable should be carried out at the time when other employment is difficult to obtain, and that they should "make arrangements for the employment in connexion with the works " of those who are recommended by the guardians of the poor as persons " who, owing to their previous condition and circumstances, it is desir- " able should not become subjects of Poor Law relief," marks a still further step in the direction indicated.

(1) Appendix XCVI. (2) Appendix LXXXVIII. (3) Appendix XC.

567 (xiii.)] "an additional cleaning it is undertaken. Why, then, "should not each community utilise its surplus labour "that must be kept somehow, and give to its cities and "towns, its roads and buildings, that winter and spring "cleaning they require?" Mr. Webb (4), moreover, expressed the following opinion:—Boards of guardians, he said, should no longer confine themselves to granting charitable relief, but should make some kind of reasonable and honourable provision for exceptional cases of temporary distress, inasmuch as public charity is only one degree less demoralising than private, and should be resorted to only in the very last extremity. Mr. Loch's contention, on the other hand, was the direct opposite. According to him,(2) artificial employment, never being remunerative except at the expense of other labourers, in which case it is a positive evil, is at least only charity in a veiled form, and without the advantages which charity open and avowed possesses. Charity, for example, can adapt its mode of relief to the peculiarities of individual cases, which artificial employment cannot.(3) The charity fund, moreover, evaporates with the wants it supplies, whereas the funds of artificial employment remain, to form a permanent temptation to the recipients to remain idle. A strict administration of the present Poor Law and a rigid application of the workhouse test, supplemented by an equally wise administration of independent systems of charitable relief, seemed to Mr. Loch to be the best policy to pursue.

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(xiv.) That the improved administration of the Poor Law during recent years has been accompanied by a very marked reduction in the number of persons dependent upon it for relief, appears, so Mr. Loch contended,(4) from the following figures:—In England and Wales, the able-bodied indoor pauper is 0·9 per 1,000 of the population, and so he has remained, varying only between ·7 and ·8 since 1872, when he stood at 1 per 1,000. The outdoor able-bodied pauper stood at 6·7 in 1870, 5·6 in 1872, 4·6 in 1873, and he is now at 2·3 per 1,000. Taking both classes, the indoor and the outdoor together, the figure is 3·2, as against 7·8 and 7·9 in 1869 and 1870. The metropolis shows similar results. Able-bodied indoor paupers are now 1·7 per 1,000, able-bodied outdoor paupers 1·4, and both classes combined, 3·1. In 1880 and 1888, two exceptionally bad years, the figure was 3·3. In the provinces, moreover, it was 4·6 in 1880, and 3·7 in 1886–7–8. Mr. Loch further contended that the Poor Law returns furnished a much truer indication of actual distress than was frequently admitted to be the case. Distress, he said, which puts skilled labourers out of work, affects the unskilled, who are dependent in a measure upon the skilled labourer. The skilled labourer, by his trade union and in other ways, may be able to tide over the difficulty, or at least, would require help from without only in the last resort, but the unskilled, and particularly the older labourer, who depends on him as soon as his credit with the tradesman comes to an end, or pawning is no longer possible, comes on the rates. To a certain extent charitable relief may be a help, but, unless under unusual circumstances, or worked on a plan of division of labour with the Poor Law authorities, it would not prevent any large mass of the people of the labouring class falling upon the rates should they not be able to avoid doing so by their own efforts, and though the figures vary less than they used to do in times of distress, owing partly to better administration, the Poor Law returns have been proved to be in the last 20 years a very fair meter. Thus, in London, the mean numbers in 1880 were 98,916, or 26·7, as against 94,565 in the previous year; in 1888, 108,638, or 26·8; in 1889, 108,788 or 26·5 per 1,000; with similar figures since. It should be remembered also that a year of distress leaves behind it, as a rule, an increase of pauperism for two or three subsequent years.

mmary preceding ragraphs.

568. This closes the review which it has proved possible to extract from the evidence of the possible solutions to three out of the four questions that make up the problem of the unemployed, the questions, namely, how can vacancies be more easily discovered, how can vacancies be multiplied, and how can work be provided in default of vacancies in established businesses. In regard to the first, the solutions attempted by the trades unions and labour bureaux have been examined, and the arguments for and against the extension to the latter of Government support, have been enumerated. In regard to the second, the mutually conflicting views of the witnesses as to the effect of State regulation of hours upon the absorption of the unemployed and their opinions with reference to the efficacy of emigration, have been set forth. And, in regard to the third, the merits of municipal and State employment generally, and of particular schemes, such as labour colonies and temporary relief works, have been examined and discussed. It now only remains to deal with the evidence relating to the solution of the fourth, and last, question, namely, how can provision be made for the unemployable. [§ 568.]

(1) Digest, p. 27. (2) Appendix LXXXVII. and Digest, p. 29. (3) Appendix LXXXVII. (4) Appendix LXXXIX.

569. (i.) By the unemployable is meant all persons obviously incapable of doing sufficient work to earn their living, persons to whom, owing to age or infirmity, employment would not bring livelihood. For such, provision is made already under the Poor Law, but it was the opinion of all the witness that referred to the subject that such provision was not altogether satisfactory or sufficient. Even Mr. Loch,(1) who considered the present Poor Law system to be superior to all the schemes hitherto suggested, thought that it might with advantage be reformed, though not remodelled, in both substance and administration. It was, in fact, admitted on all hands, that under the present system the number of persons that depended upon the rates for their support during old age was far too large, since, for some unexplained reason, the members of the industrial classes are far less ready to save money for insurance against old age than against sickness or accident, and it was pointed out(2) that 8,500,000*l.* were now being spent in poor relief, that the aged poor were a third of the whole number, and that their maintenance cost more than one third of the sum expended. It was contended, therefore, that, if by any means an adequate old age insurance fund could be created, the ratepayers would be relieved of a very heavy burden, while the old people would at the same time be made more comfortable. How can provision be made for the unemployable. Old age pensions.

(ii.) With this object in view, several schemes were propounded, but they all appeared to be open to more or less serious objection. Mr. Booth, in his book entitled "Pauperism, a Picture; and the Endowment of Old Age, an Argument,"(2) explained and criticised four such schemes, and then proceeded to detail and defend a scheme of his own, which was, in its turn, criticised by Mr. Loch. Schemes enumerated.

(iii.) The first is the scheme prepared by the National Providence League, of which Mr. Booth's account was to the following effect:—The main suggestion, he said, is that everyone shall be encouraged to provide for their old age a pension of 6*l.* 10*s.* per annum, by the promise that then an equal sum shall be added by the State (out of Imperial and local taxation jointly), so as to secure in all 13*l.*, or 5*s.* a week, to each old person. According to Mr. Booth, the great objection to this proposal is that it might not, to any extent, reach the classes that now come upon the rates in their old age. Again, it is not clear whether the league expects the State to provide at once for the supplementary pensions which would be provided under this scheme. This liability, as it seems, would have to be met as it arose, but the present generation cannot afford to bear both its own burdens and also those of the generation to follow. Under any voluntary scheme, indeed, so Mr. Booth continued, it is impossible to know to what extent, if at all, future burdens would be lightened, for the comparatively well to do would be the most sure to avail themselves of cheapened thrift, and little good would be obtained if the poor still came on the rates. If, however, the scheme were made compulsory, and *every* young person were compelled to provide him or herself, before 21, with an annuity of 6*l.* 10*s.* at 65, and if to this the State promised to add a further sum of 6*l.* 10*s.*, then Mr. Booth considered that the bargain might be a good one for the State. But, even so, he added, not for more than 40 years would the results of the scheme begin to operate. In fact, he concluded, if anything is undertaken for the future, something must also be done for those still in active life, but beyond the scope of any scheme of early thrift. (a) *Scheme of the National Providence League.*

(iv.) Next there is the scheme propounded by Mr. J. Chamberlain.(2) Its details were described by Mr. Booth as follows:—To the account of every man who, when he is 25, shall have paid 5*l.* into the pension fund, there will be added from State funds the sum of 15*l.* This account must then be supplemented by a payment of 1*l.* each year for 40 years. These payments must at no time be more than 5*l.* in arrear, or all claim to benefit will be lost. All arrears must be paid up, together with 5 per cent. per annum interest before benefit can be claimed. The whole fund and its accumulations will entitle depositors to receive:— (b) *Scheme of Mr. J. Chamberlain.*

(1.) If they live to 65 a pension of 5*s.* a week for their remaining years;

(2.) If they die before 65:—

(*a.*) Five shillings a week for the widow for 26 weeks;

(1) Appendix XCVII. (2) Appendix LXXXVI.

[§ 569 (iv.)]

(*b.*) Two shillings a week for each child till 12 years old (but not to exceed 12*s.* in all for the first 26 weeks, and 8*s.* a week afterwards);

(*c.*) If neither widow nor children are left, the original 5*l.* to be returned to the depositor's representative at his death.

It is evident, said Mr. Booth, that this proposal, if universally accepted, would provide a complete pension system, but it would not have this effect for 40 years. In order to bridge the interval, therefore, it is further proposed that the State should assist all persons over 25 at the time of the adoption of the scheme, provided that they either have already secured, or shall, within three years (being then under 50) secure, a deferred annuity. The annuitant, moreover, must have provided himself with a pension of not less than 6*l.* 10*s.* a year, and pay in a sum (according to age) of from 4*l.* to 10*l.* in order to establish a claim for an equivalent contribution from the State. The scheme contains no proposal for dealing with the cases of men already over 50. The foregoing regulations refer to men only; those for women are on a lower scale. Every woman under 25 is to deposit 30*s.*, and to this the State will add 8*l.* Her yearly payments will be 8*s.* 8*d.*, and her benefit a pension after 65 of 3*s.* a week. It is also to be allowable for any man to deposit 2*l.* 10*s.* in place of 5*l.*, and pay to 10*s.* in place of 20*s.* each year, if he forego the benefit offered to widow and children or any return in the event of death before 65. A clause is also inserted permitting subscription to friendly and provident societies to replace the stipulated annual payments to the pension fund. Mr. Booth, in commenting on this scheme, said: As about 480,000 men and women reached the age of 25 in 1891, the cost of pensioning them, at 15*l.* per male and 8*l.* per female, would be nearly 5,500,000*l.*, and if the effort to bridge the interval between the present time and 40 years hence were assumed all at once, it would involve an enormous liability, which, spread over the whole period of payment, would represent very heavy annual charge to the State in addition to what the individual insurers would pay for themselves.

(*c*) *Scheme of Mr. Fatkin.*

(v.) A third scheme mentioned by Mr. Booth[1] was that proposed by Mr. Fatkin, who suggested that advantage should be taken of the comparatively high rate interest at which municipalities borrowed, for the establishment of a system of municipal banking, which, by the excellence of the return guaranteed to depositors, would encourage thrift. This proposal, however, Mr. Booth did not make the subject of special comment.

(*d*) *Scheme of Mr. Vallance.*

(vi.) The last scheme criticised by Mr. Booth[1] was that drawn up by Mr. Vallance, who, like Mr. Fatkin, desired to encourage thrift independently of State aid. He suggested that weekly wage earners should be induced to put by a small sum—1½*d.* or 3*d.* in the £ on their wages—by the imposition upon their employers of a legal obligation to add a similar sum. The contribution of the workman, with compound interest, was to be withdrawable by him at any time, but the contribution of the employer, and its accumulations, were to be payable only at death, if happening before 65, or to be commuted into a pension together with the workman's own deposits, if these had not been withdrawn previously. Mr. Booth pointed out, however, that all schemes involving a legal claim on employers were objectionable, because the burden of the employers' contributions must ultimately fall upon the wages.

(*d*) *Scheme of Mr. Booth.*

(vii.) In fact, after examining all the schemes at present before the public, Mr. Booth[1] had come to the following conclusion:—That to be effectual, any system whereby men are encouraged to contribute during their youth to their support when they are old must be universal, or else the improvident will still trust to the rates, and that to be universal it must be compulsory. Now, any compulsory method of contribution, universally enforced, is a form of taxation, and Mr. Booth accordingly proposed that every man and woman should be entitled to a pension of 5*s.* per week at the age of 65, to be paid two thirds out of taxes and one third out of the rates. There are at present, he said, about 1,323,000 persons over 65 in England and Wales. At 5*s.* per week each, a universal pension list would reach 17,000,000*l.* Putting, therefore, the total national income at 1,000,000,000*l.* per annum, and assuming that taxation falls, or can be arranged to fall, in true proportion to income, in order to maintain such a pension scheme, everyone would have to pay about 1¾ per cent. of his income. Mr. Booth was quite ready to admit that, under this scheme, the rich would pay much more in proportion to what they received than would the poor, and that the long lived would exist on the saving of the short, but he contended that the saving to the ratepayers, especially in respect of outdoor relief, would be very great, and that it would simplify the whole problem of poverty to so large an extent that it was worth while to consider whether these financial difficulties could not be overcome.

[§ 569 (vii.)]

(viii.) Mr. Loch[1] opposed all these schemes alike, on the following grounds. First, that the recognition of the principle that a large portion of the population have a right to public maintenance, irrespectively of destitution, is in itself an evil. Secondly, that the pauperisation of all persons of 65 and upwards would involve a great economic loss, inasmuch as many persons of that age are still able to work. Thirdly, that the direct cost would be enormous. And, finally, that there is no ground for supposing that thrift would be encouraged. Poor law reform, he urged, and improved administration, is the true line of progress in the matter. Pauperism is an evil to be prevented rather than cured. The unsatisfactory physical condition of children is a great cause of pauperism in later life. Great pains should, therefore, be bestowed upon the proper physical training of the young. In his criticism of old age pension schemes, Mr. Loch was supported by Mr. Giffen,[2] who stated that a scheme of State insurance, whether against accidents or for old age pensions, would involve a very large extension of State officialism and expenditure in pursuit of an object less useful than many others towards which they have hitherto been directed, such as national education, or towards which they might be directed, such as the control and endowment of the public hospitals.

Old age pension schemes criticised.

8. FUNCTIONS OF THE LABOUR DEPARTMENT.

570. The Commission had not completed its sittings for the purpose of taking evidence before the new Labour Department was formed. Several of the witnesses, however, had previously expressed a wish that such a step should be taken, and stated the functions which, in their opinion, the newly created office ought to discharge. It will appear from the following paragraphs that some of their suggestions have been carried out, while others remain unadopted.

The new Labour Department.

571. Many of the witnesses urged the advisability of effecting some improvement in the publication by the Government of industrial statistics. Evidence to this effect was given by Mr. Ben Tillett,[3] of the Dockers' Union; Mr. J. Morrison,[4] of the Shipping Federation; Mr. R. S. Macnamara,[5] of the Cork United Building Trades' Society; Mr. T. W. Bushill,[6] of the firm of Messrs. Bushill and Sons, Coventry; Mr. S. Webb,[7] and Mr. Tom Mann.[8] These statistics, it was urged, should include full information as to cost of production, the condition of the labour market, and the cost of strikes, and should be accompanied with full reports of the causes, origin, development, and effects of every strike and lock-out, the results of such experiments as profit-sharing, and every important industrial change. All this information should be published in a journal rather than in a Blue Book, at fixed intervals, and a popular price. More specific evidence to a similar effect was given by Messrs. W. J. Williams and W. J. Parry, of the North Wales Quarrymen's Union, and by Mr. W. Small, of the Blantyre Miners' Association. Mr. W. J. Williams [9] said the information obtainable from Government returns on the subject of quarrying is more incomplete than that supplied in connexion with any other trade in the kingdom. Every employer ought to supply particulars as to the number of persons employed, the number of slates and slabs manufactured, and their price. And Mr. Parry[10]: There is a great deal of dissatisfaction among the quarrymen of North Wales because the statistics that used to be supplied to the Government have ceased to be published with the inspectors' reports. Mr. Small,[11] moreover, desired more definite and precise information relating to mining to be published in the official Blue Books.

Its proposed statistical functions.

572. These proposals are, to some extent, in process of being carried out through the medium of the "Labour Gazette" [12]. In addition to publishing this journal, the new department continues to issue, in Blue Book form, the annual, periodical, and special reports which it used to prepare as a section of the Board of Trade before it was placed in its present quasi-independent position. These reports, Mr. Giffen [13] stated, were first issued in consequence of a resolution passed by the House of Commons, in

How far they are already being discharged.

[1] Appendix LXXXVI.

[1] Appendix XCVII. [2] Digest, p. 43. [3] Digest, Group B., Vol. I., p. 14–16. [4] Digest, Group B., Vol. II., p. 29. [5] Digest, Group C., Vol. II., p. 47. [6] Digest, Whole Commission, p. 35. [7] Digest, Whole Commission, p. 21. [8] Digest, Whole Commission, p. 16. [9] Digest, Group A, Vol. I., p. 28. [10] Digest, Group A., Vol. II., p. 13. [11] Digest, Group A., Vol. II., p. 26. [12] Memorandum on the Progress of the Work of the Labour Department. [13] Digest, Whole Commission, p. 42.

§ 572.]

1886. The work done in this direction, he said, may be classified under three principal heads. First, the compilation and publication of the wages statistics of the leading industries of the country; secondly, the compilation and publication of annual and periodical returns relating to trades unions, strikes and lock-outs, and alien immigration; and, thirdly, the compilation and publication of special reports on various topics, such as sweating in the East End of London, profit-sharing, the cost of living, &c.

proposed inistra- ctions.

573. But the Labour Department undertakes no administrative function whatever. The proposals, therefore, made by the witnesses with reference to functions of this sort remain unadopted. Such proposals were: 1st, that the department should act as a labour exchange; 2nd, that it should assume the administration of the laws relating to mines and factories, and, 3rd, that it should arbitrate in trade disputes.

act as a bour change.

574. The first proposal has already been referred to in paragraph 566, viii., relating to the affiliation of labour bureaux. It was put very prominently forward by Mr. Ben Tillett (1), who wished labour bureaux to be established in every town and every country district, to be put under the immediate control of the local authority and federated under the department, which would thus act as a clearing house of labour and prevent the labour market from being locally congested. Proposals substantially similar were made by Mr. G. Kilpack,(2) of the Affiliated Society of London and Suburban House Painters; Mr. G. W. Greenman, of the London Domestic Servants' Union(3); and, as has already been noticed in paragraph 565, by Messrs. Scammell, Gardener, Smyth, and Tozer, whose evidence mainly related to the labour bureaux system here propounded.

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575. The second proposal was made most definitely by Mr. Webb,(4) who said that the department ought to be formed by amalgamating the existing Labour Department of the Board of Trade with the Factory and Mining Sections of the Home Office. The head of the department, he added, might or might not be a new Minister. Mr. Small,(5) however, was of opinion that there ought to be a Minister of Mines, and Mr. J. Henderson,(6) Her Majesty's Inspector of Factories for Scotland, stated that there ought to be a Minister of Mines and Manufactures, while Messrs. Ben Tillett(7) and Macnamara,(8) representing the Dockers' Union and the United Cork Building Trades' Society respectively, expressed their opinion that the Labour Department should be placed under the immediate control of a separate responsible Minister. Mr. Ben Tillett(9), further suggested that the Labour Department should be obliged to confer with the Parliamentary Committee of the Trade Union Congress as to amendments to the Factory Acts, which Acts he apparently assumed it would have to administer. Mr. Scammell,(10) moreover, suggested that, besides acting as a central labour exchange, the new department should be affiliated with the Factory and the Emigrants' Information Departments.

o arbitrate n trade isputes.

576. The third proposal, that, namely, to the effect that the new department should arbitrate in trade disputes was made by Messrs. Ben Tillett,(11) Macnamara,(12) Webb,(13) and Mann.(14) The two former, indeed, desired it to definitely issue awards, which the parties should be bound to obey, but Mr. Webb wished it merely to conduct inquests into the causes of disputes and to publish the result, while Mr. Mann advocated a middle course. The evidence of the last mentioned witness on this point was as follows:—Joint committees of employers and employed, he said, should be established. If they failed to agree, appeal should be made to voluntary boards of conciliation established in connexion with various trades and districts. Inasmuch, however, as these boards either fail to effect a settlement or are not formed at all, there should be in the background a central board of mediation established for the whole country in connexion with the Labour Department. This board should be composed of six persons elected by the trades unions and six by the associations of employers, with a government official to act as umpire. In order to encourage settlement between the parties as much as possible, this board should not be authorised to interfere, even if appealed to by the parties, until an outbreak actually took place. Then, on receipt of an invitation from either side, it should arbitrate, but there are practical difficulties in the way of giving it power to enforce awards. If no appeal was made, it should wait for a fortnight, and then should investigate the matter on its own responsibility, publish facts, and issue, as mediator, a recommendation as to the lines on which the quarrel should be composed, trusting to public opinion to secure the recommendation being carried out. The board should act as arbitrator only when appealed to, and only on condition of work being resumed on the original terms pending settlement. [§ 576.]

(1) Digest, Group B., Vol. I., p. 14–17. (2) Digest, Group C., Vol. II., p. 43. (3) Digest, Group C., Vol. III. p. 89. (4) Digest, Whole Commission, p. 21. (5) Digest, Group A., Vol. II., p. 26. (6) Digest, Group C., Vol. I., p. 70. (7) Digest, Group B., Vol. I., pp. 15–17. (8) Digest, Group C., Vol. II., p. 47. (9) Digest, Group B., Vol. I., p. 16–17. (10) Digest, Whole Commission, p. 29. (11) Digest, Group B., Vol. I., p. 15. (12) Digest, Group C., Vol. II., p. 47. (13) Digest, Whole Commission, p. 21. (14) Digest, Whole Commission, p. 19.

Other proposed functions not yet discharged.

577. In addition to these administrative proposals, one suggestion relating to the statistical functions of the department has failed to secure adoption. That was that the department should accompany its reports with forecasts as to imminent fluctuations in trade. This proposal was put prominently forward by Messrs. Mann(1) and Webb,(2) but it was subsequently pointed out by Mr. Giffen(3) that to publish inaccurate forecasts would be worse than useless, and that even approximate accuracy could never be guaranteed, because men capable of preparing even tolerably correct forecasts of the kind would not consent to work in a Government office, but would go to the Stock Exchange, where they would be certain to make large fortunes. Another proposal not yet adopted was that made by Mrs. A. Hicks, of the London Ropemakers' Union, and Mr. W. J. Parry, of the North Wales Quarrymen's Union, relating to the compulsory supply of returns of wages. Mrs. Hicks,(4) said: It should be made compulsory on employers under the Factory Acts to furnish a balance sheet to Government, to be used as indicating what wages they could afford. She was careful to point out, however, that this proposal was not associated with a demand for the establishment of a legal minimum rate of wages. Mr. Parry,(5) moreover, contended that individual employers should be under an obligation with regard to the supply of returns to Government, somewhat similar to that laid upon limited liability companies. Such returns, he considered, should always include the total make of slates in tons and value, the number of men employed, the wages paid, and the other expenses of working. The value of such returns, he added, was fully demonstrated by those that appeared in the annual reports issued by the bureaux of industries and the bureaux of labour statistics in Canada and the United States. This proposal has not been adopted by the department, indeed its adoption would involve the exercise of administrative power which the department does not possess. The same objection applies to the last following series of proposals made by Mr. Morrison,(6) of the Tyne and Blyth District Committee of the Shipping Federation. He said: There should be a Government department collecting and publishing trustworthy statistics relative to the origin, development, and effects of strikes. To the schedule of questions addressed by Mr. Burnett to officials of trade unions, there should be added:—

1. Give a brief but succinct account of the efforts (if any) that were put forth by the union, to obviate or prevent strikes.

2. How many of the men affected actually voted in favour of the strike, and was the vote taken by ballot or otherwise.

A similar set of questions should be addressed to employers concerned, and the answers of both parties should be published side by side. It would, moreover, be well to make it compulsory (under a penalty) on the part of trade union secretaries and employers to send in accurate information.

The Labour Department of the United States.*

578. Before the department was formed, the Commission had received a full account of the working of the Labour Department of the United States from one of its statistical experts, Dr. Elgin R. L. Gould.(7) His evidence was to the following effect:—In connexion with the Federal Government of the United States, he explained, there are six Cabinet offices or departments, and under each department there are grouped different bureau, having different functions. The Department of Labour was originally created in 1885 as a bureau under the Department of the Interior, but, in 1888, it was placed into an independent position, though without being raised to the dignity of a Cabinet office. By this arrangement, the Commissioner of Labour, as the chief of the department is called, has the double advantage of being responsible directly to the President of the United States and of being at the same time independent of the vicissitudes of party warfare for continuing in office. By the law of 1885, the functions of the department were set forth as follows:—"There shall "be at the seat of Government a Department of "Labour. The general duties of the Commissioner of "labour are to acquire and diffuse amongst the people "of the United States useful information on subjects

* *See also* Foreign Reports, Vol. I., United States.

(1) Digest, Whole Commission, p. 16. (2) Digest, Whole Commission, p. 21. (3) Digest, Whole Commission, p. 43. (4) Digest, Group C., Vol. I., p. 42. (5) Digest, Group A., Vol. II., p. 13. (6) Digest, Group B., Vol. II., 29. (7) Digest, Whole Commission, pp. 41, 42, and Appendix CXVIII-CXXII.

[§ 578.] "connected with labour, in the most general and "comprehensive sense of that word, and especially "upon its relation to capital, the hours of labour, "the earnings of labouring men and women, and the "means of promoting their material, social, intellectual, "and moral prosperity." The same law goes on to specifically oblige the Commissioner to issue a report every year, but leaves him to choose its subject. He is also permitted to issue additional reports on his own responsibility, such as the report on the Scandinavian Liquor Legislation, upon which the witness is at present engaged; but, with this exception, the only special reports yet issued have been drawn up at the invitation of Congress. In conducting its inquiries, the department keeps in view the following principles: First, to collect all information at first hand, through the personal investigation of one of its own accredited agents; secondly, to procure for this purpose the services of skilled experts, who, previously to conducting their inquiries, shall have set themselves to study the subjects which they are about to investigate, with a view to ascertaining what information is required and what information it is possible to obtain; thirdly, to avoid making specific recommendations, but simply to publish the facts, and leave the public and the persons interested to draw their own conclusions. The first annual report issued by the department was on the subject of industrial depressions. It was a study of the various commercial and industrial crises from 1815 to 1885. The second annual report was on convict labour. It was the result of an inquiry into the effects of the different systems of employing prisoners practised in different States. The third report was on strikes and lock-outs for the five years 1881–6. The fourth was on the social condition of working women in the larger cities. The fifth was on railway labour. And the sixth, published nine or ten months ago, was on the cost of production in the iron and steel industries. In addition to these annual reports on subjects chosen by the Commissioner of Labour, Congress has twice ordered the department to conduct special investigations, the first on marriage and divorce statistics in the United States for the 20 years ending in 1887, and the second, the result of which is shortly to be published, on the progress of manual training and trade organisation in the United States and Europe. For the financial year 1891–92, the permanent staff of the department consisted of 75 persons, 55 of whom formed what may be called the interior, and 20 what may be called the exterior staff, the latter consisting of special agents employed outside the office. The appropriation for the same year, exclusive of the bill for printing the annual reports, for which a special appropriation is made in proportion to the bulk of the volumes issued, was 168,720 dollars or about 33,600*l*. Of this sum, 101,020 dollars were expended in salaries to the permanent staff, 47,500 dollars in travelling and subsistence allowances and in the salaries of temporary employés, 5,000 dollars in rent, 1,000 in stationery, 250 in postage to foreign countries, 8,000 in extra printing, bookbinding, &c.; 1,000 on the library, and 4,000 in miscellaneous items, such as furniture, advertising, telegraphs and telephones, expressage, fuel, lighting, &c. When Congress orders the department to conduct special inquiries, it makes special appropriations to meet the expenses connected with them. 22,500 dollars have been so appropriated in connexion with the two special inquiries already made by order of Congress. The United States Department has been the means of substituting inquiry by a skilled permanent body for inquiry by committees of the Legislature, much to the general advantage. It has provided the country with a body of trustworthy statistical information, in the absence of which the people would be certain to use statistics that were not trustworthy. In addition to the Labour Department of the Federal Government, labour bureaux have been established in 27 of the States. Of these, the oldest is that constituted in the State of Massachusetts in 1869. In 16 states, viz., California, Connecticut, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Dakota and Utah, the functions of the labour bureaux, like those of the United States Department, are purely statistical. In seven, viz., Illinois, Maine, Minnesota, Missouri, Rhode Island, Tennessee and Wisconsin, the control of mine and factory inspection is added. In two, viz., Idaho and Mexico, certain duties in regard to emigrants are assigned. And in two, viz., Colorado and North Dakota, the Commissioner of Labour is obliged to intervene on the petition of 15 of the workmen in the event of a strike taking place at a firm employing 25 or more hands. The State bureaux follow the same principles of conducting their inquiries as the United States Department, as far as their means allow, but, in many cases, they cannot afford to send out agents to collect information at first hand. Unfortunately, too, the Labour Commissioner's tenure of office depends, in many of the States, upon the continuance of a particular political party in power. There is absolutely no organic relation between the State bureau *inter se* or between them and the United States Department, and, owing to the strength of the sentiment of State autonomy, it would be impossible to institute any such relation. Up to the present time, the United States Department has not called upon the State bureaux to supply it with information, but the State bureaux have made such communications to each other, and every year a convention is held of the various labour commissioners of the various States in order to discuss matter of common interest. All the State bureaux originated in response to the distinctly expressed wishes of the principal labour organisations, each of which has a legislative committee formed for the purpose of urging the passage through the State Legislatures of enactments in which it is interested. These committees have always bestowed part of their efforts upon securing liberal appropriation for the labour bureaux. The United States Department, reporting to the Federal Government, does not make recommendations as to labour legislation, &c., because to do so would be considered an infringement of the prerogatives of the separate States, to which the formation and administration of industrial codes, except in relation to employés of the Federal Government, solely belong. But it is clearly within the province of the State bureaux, reporting to the State Government to do so, and they frequently do exercise this function.

Deductions from American experience

579. Speaking from his experience in connexion with the American Department, Dr. Gould(1) stated that he thought it would, in all cases, be better to confine the functions of labour departments, wherever established, to the compilation of statistics. In exceptional cases, he admitted, it might be advisable for the head of such a department to intervene in a dispute, but he should always be allowed to use his own discretion in so doing, and should not be fettered with any legal obligation in the matter. In no circumstances, moreover, should he be empowered to issue an award. His interference should be limited, as is the case in Colorado and North Dakota, to the task of mediation, that is to say, to the work of a peacemaker, without power of adjudication. A parliamentary chief of a labour department might—so Dr. Gould considered—utilise his power as arbitrator, if such power were conferred upon him, for the benefit of the class that possessed the greatest influence with the political party for the time being in power.

B. ORGANISATIONS.

1. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYERS.

Organisations of employers compared with the men's trade unions.

580. It appeared from the evidence given by Mr. Brabrook,(1) the chief registrar of friendly societies, that employers' associations fell within the legal definition of a trade union, and could claim registration accordingly. Mr. Allan,(2) of the firm of Messrs. Allan and Company, marine engine builders, Sunderland, pointed out that these associations to a large extent lacked the identity of interest that the men's trade unions possessed.

Attitude of co-operative societies towards.

581. Mr. Hardern(3) stated that the Oldham Co-operative Managers belonged to the same association as the private employers in the district, and so had to combat a strike that occurred in 1885; but Mr. Maxwell(4) said that the Scotch Co-operative Wholesale Society had persistently refused to join the Employers' Association, and added that to do so would, in his opinion, be to give the lie to all its professions.

Chambers of Commerce and industrial arbitration, &c.

582. With the exception of the information given by Messrs. Scammell(2) and Boulton(3) as to the policy of certain chambers of commerce in regard to a national labour bureau and arbitration boards respectively, no further evidence was given on the subject of the present section. And, the evidence of the two witnesses in question is dealt with in the paragraphs devoted to the Unemployed, the Labour Department, and Conciliation, Arbitration, and Mediation.

2. ORGANISATIONS OF EMPLOYED.

Organisations of employed Divisions

583. The evidence given under this head related to friendly societies, building societies, co-operative societies, and trades unions. They all come under the jurisdiction of the chief registrar of friendly societies in virtue of the

(1) Digest, p. 37. (2) Digest, p. 23. (3) Digest, p. 14. (4) Digest, p. 11.

(1) Digest, Whole Commission, p. 42. (2) Digest, p. 29. (3) Digest, p. 31 *et seq.*

[§ 583.] Acts of Parliament applying to each group of them respectively. Mr. Brabrook,(1) who is the present holder of the office, quoted with approval the opinion expressed in 1874 by his predecessor, Mr. Ludlow, who was also examined, to the effect that it would be advisable to include them all under the general enactment that afterwards became the Friendly Societies Act, 1875, but this opinion has not been adopted by the Legislature, so that, for administrative purposes, working men's societies remain divided in the manner here indicated.

Financial position of.

584. Before proceeding to deal separately with each of these groups, Mr. Brabrook(2) gave the following figures relating to their finances.* In 1892, the funds of the societies registered as friendly societies in the United Kingdom amounted to 26,003,061*l.*; the funds of building societies, excluding the Birkbeck Society, which is registered under a separate Act from the rest, to 51,546,007*l.*; the funds of co-operative societies, under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 18,915,793*l.*; and the funds of trades unions, including some unregistered organisations, to 1,515,319*l.*; making a total of 97,980,180*l.* out of an aggregate estimated working class capital of 220,863,346*l.*†

Friendly societies: classes of.

585. Friendly societies,(3) or societies registered under the Friendly Societies Act, include the following:—Independent societies, affiliated orders, dividing societies, mutual insurance societies in connection with employers, societies in connexion with particular trades, and collecting societies. In addition to these friendly societies proper, certain other organisations, viz., benevolent societies, working men's mutual improvement societies, and societies especially authorised by the Secretary of State under section 8, sub-section 5, of the Friendly Societies Act, are admitted to registration as friendly societies.

Independent friendly societies.

586. To take each of these organisations in order: The independent friendly societies(4) are purely local, and devoted to raising, by subscription, funds for subsequent distribution in mutual relief, and maintenance during old age and sickness. The average contribution per member is about 20*s.* per annum. Their aggregate income for 1890 was 2,117,000*l.*, and expenditure 1,791,000*l.*, leaving a balance of 326,000*l.* They are, to a certain extent, self-supporting, but are sometimes aided by the contributions of honorary members, such as the employers and the clergy. They are not increasing in number, inasmuch as the new registrations do not keep pace with the dissolutions, and they are, generally speaking, giving way in point of popularity to the branches of affiliated orders.

Friendly societies with branches, or affiliated orders.

587. These affiliated orders may be defined(5) as societies having branches. Of these, the two most important are the Ancient Order of Foresters, which has 830,720 members, and the Independent Order of Oddfellows, Manchester Unity, which has 769,503. The total membership of all the affiliated orders making returns was 1,727,809, representing 16,400 branches, but both these figures require considerable additions in consequence of the transfer of societies, previously independent, to the associations. The average contribution per member is 31*s.* per annum, *i.e.* 27*s.* for benefit and 4*s.* for management, and the aggregate receipts for 1890 amounted to 3,555,000*l.* Both a central fund and branch funds are essential to the legal existence of a society with branches. But the law requires nothing further, and there is observable in the constitutions of the various societies every degree of centralisation within the prescribed limits. Thus, there are some societies in which the central body provides all the benefits and the branches are only allowed to reserve to themselves a fund sufficient to defray the expenses of the local management, and there are other societies where the branches provide all the benefits, and only contribute to the central body a sum that barely suffices to keep the central office open. The legal requirement as to a central fund has caused a great advance in the direction of centralisation, but at present every branch remains as financially independent in respect of its liabilities as if it were an independent society. A distressed branch has no sort of legal claim on the funds either of other branches or of the central body. The popularity of affiliated orders is largely due to the fact that members moving from place to place can get their accounts transferred from one branch to another.

Dividing friendly societies.

588. Dividing societies(6) are those in which the funds are, with the exception of a small sum, divided periodically. Their object is to provide sick pay and death allowances in consideration of a weekly subscription. They are also called "benefit societies," "slate clubs," and "tontines,"* the last title being derived from the fact that the sum remaining at the end of the year, after all claims for sick pay and death allowance have been met, is divided among the survivors. [§ 588.]

Friendly societies in connection with particular firms.

589. Passing over the evidence relating to mutual insurance societies in connection with employers, which has already been summarised under Accident Funds and Employers' Liability, we come to societies in connexion with particular firms,(1) but not supported by employers. These societies are, for the most part, of the nature of dividing societies, and are to a very large extent unregistered, owing to the expense and trouble entailed by the requirements of the Act with regard to the printing of rules and the making of periodical returns by registered bodies. It was the opinion of Mr. Brabrook, from whose evidence the information here given is derived, that, when the Act came to be reconsidered, it would be advisable to curtail these formalities as much as possible.

Friendly societies in connection with particular trades.

590. Societies in connection with particular trades,(2) *e.g.*, the stationers', the gardeners', and the farriers' societies, are distinguished from trades unions in that their object is not connected with the relations between employers and employed. They are partly supported by donations from outsiders.

Collecting friendly societies.

591. The collecting societies (3) are concerned almost exclusively with providing funeral benefits out of subscriptions collected from members. The 3,318,942 members, which 35 of them contain, were for the most part admitted in infancy. The fact that the accumulated funds of the societies are only 2,289,858*l.*, or 13*s.* 11*d.* per member, whereas those of other† friendly societies amount to 21,410,563*l.*, or 5*l.* 10*s.* 11*d.*, per member, shows that they stand on quite a separate footing, and, in the opinion of Mr. Brabrook, they should therefore be dealt with in a separate Act of Parliament. It is to them that section 30 of the Friendly Societies Act applies.

Benevolent societies.

592. Turning from friendly societies proper to other societies eligible for registration under the same Act, we come to benevolent societies,(4) a group of organisations including all those that do not limit the benefits they offer to such persons as have subscribed to their funds.

Working men's mutual improvement societies.

593. Working men's clubs(5) "for the purpose of social "intercourse, mutual helpfulness, mental and moral "improvement, and rational recreation," are also permitted by section 8, sub-section 4, of the Friendly Societies' Act, to be registered under it. But, in the opinion of Mr. Brabrook, such ought not to be the case, inasmuch as they provide no sort of insurance, the essential function of a friendly society, and often have a strongly defined political bias. Clubs avowedly political in their aims cannot be registered. Registration is valued, however, as enabling the clubs to get security for their funds and power to hold land and houses through trustees acting in their name.

Societies specially authorised for registration under the Friendly Societies Act.

594. Societies specially authorised(6) by the Secretary of State to become registered are those formed for the purpose of providing relief to members out of employment. Several of the societies in this group provide, in addition, the benefits of a friendly society proper, but they do so at a disadvantage, because they have to fulfil all the responsibilities without possessing any of the privileges which ordinary friendly societies possess, in respect of exemption from stamp duty and a preferential claim on the estates of their officers in the event of death or bankruptcy. As a means of improving their position, Mr. Ludlow (7) considered that they should be eligible for registration under the Friendly Societies Act without special authorisation. It appears(8) from the latest published returns of these societies that the Liverpool Clerks' Association has 3,067 members and 24,680*l.*; the Manchester Warehousemen's and Clerks' Provident Association, 2,186 members and 15,701*l.*; the London and Suburban Railway Officials Association, 150 members and 3,180*l.*; the Metropolitan Foremen Tailors, 303 members and 3,020*l.*; the Northampton Artisans and Labourers, 2,706 members and 15,677*l.*; and the Birmingham and District Clerks', 235 members and 230*l.* Another special authority under sub-section 5 of section 8 grants registration to societies formed for the purpose of "protecting and defending members of "any lawful trade or calling against frivolous, vexatious, "or malicious prosecutions, and, in cases of robbery and "other crimes affecting them, affording them legal or "other assistance for the detection and prosecution of the

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* The figures have been brought up to date by reference to Mr. Brabrook's Report for 1892, issued on 27th March 1893.
† Mr. Brabrook was careful to point out that these figures referred only to England and Wales.
(1) Digest, p. 37. (2) Digest, p. 35. (3) Digest, p. 35. (4) Digest, p. 35. (5) Digest p. 35, and Appendix LIII. (6) Digest, p. 35, and Appendix LIV.

* Compare note. Minutes of Evidence, as to origin of this term.
† This does not include the funds of the benevolent societies, working men's clubs, and societies specially authorised, whose aggregate funds amount, according to Mr. Brabrook, to 4,510,000*l.*
(1) Digest, p. 36. (2) Digest, p. 36. (3) Digest, p. 36. (4) Digest, p. 36. (5) Digest, p. 36. (6) Digest, p. 36. (7) Digest, p. 37. (8) Digest, p. 36.

[§ 594.] "offenders." Societies of this kind exist among cabmen and omnibus and tramcar men, and among dairymen, licensed victuallers, and other similar tradesmen. Their number is very small. Some societies, as, for example, the South Side of the Thames Firemen's Society, are registered under both the above special authorisations.

Building societies.

595. Building societies,[1] with the exception of the Birkbeck Society, which is under an Act of 1837, are registered under the Building Societies Act, 1874. They were defined by Mr. Ludlow as "associations for the "purpose of advancing money on real property."[2] It appears from the returns[3] for 1891 that the total membership of 2,333 societies, *i.e.*, of all the societies other than the Birkbeck, was 605,000, and the total funds 50,582,000*l.* Of this sum, 35,892,000*l.* represents the amount of members' investments, *i.e.*, 60*l.* per member, and 14,689,000*l.* is borrowed capital. A short time ago, a return was presented to Parliament, on the motion of Mr. Gerald Balfour, showing the number of building societies that had ceased to exist between the passing of the Act of 1874 and June 2nd, 1892. From this it appeared that, of a total number of 1,237 societies, 26 had terminated in the ordinary course, 181 had been stopped by notice, 410 had executed instruments of dissolution, 38 had been wound up by order of the court, 84 had been amalgamated with other societies, 32 had transferred their engagements to other societies, and 466 had been dissolved irregularly. According to Mr. Brabrook, the many recent failures among building societies have been largely due to the receipt of deposits withdrawable at call or short notice, when the funds were lent on securities that could not be quickly realised. It would not be possible, he thought, to absolutely prohibit the receipt of deposits at less than three months' notice. The only thing would be to make building societies, in holding out promises to pay on demand, state that those promises were qualified by the provisions of the existing Act, limiting their power of borrowing to the amount of two thirds of their mortgages and the liability of their members to the amount of their deposits and arrears. Mr. Ludlow's idea[4] was that the provision contained in the Industrial and Provident Societies Act of 1867, to the effect that no deposits repayable at less than two days' notice should be received, should be applied to building societies, and that a stricter limitation of the amount of deposits withdrawable at short notice that may be received, should also be effected, although, he was careful to add, such a limitation would not touch the main cause of failures, for they arise, not so much from the large amount of the deposits, as from the absence of control over the committees of management, especially with regard to taking repeated valuations of the assets so as to keep pace with depreciations. Mr. Brabrook[5] made six further proposals. First, that the words "if any" should be omitted after the words "within what limits" in section 16, sub-section 2. of the Act of 1874, in order that it should no longer be in the power of the directors of a building society to defeat the claims of existing ordinary members by the unlimited issue of preference shares. Secondly, that the right of members to ascertain the condition of a society's affairs by inspecting its books should be secured by the insertion in the Building Societies Act of provisions similar to those of section 14 of the Friendly Societies Act of 1875. This proposal was also made by Mr. Ludlow.[6] Thirdly[7], that provision should be made for control by the members over the trustees appointed for the purpose of dissolving a society under section 32 of the Building Societies Act of 1874. Fourthly, that the provision contained in section 43 of that Act as to penalties for wilfully making false returns, should be made more stringent, and that provision should be made also for recovering penalties from a society or its responsible officers, without requiring the prosecutor to prove the offence in the case of an individual. Fifthly, that a form of annual return should be prescribed, with provisions as to dates, &c. And, sixthly, that power should be given to the registrar, upon a proper requisition, to appoint persons to inquire into the affairs of a society or to call a special meeting of the society, as is provided by section 23 of the Friendly Societies Act. Mr. Brabrook, however, considered that it would not be expedient to give the persons so appointed precisely the same functions as are discharged by the committees of inspection under the Trustee Savings Bank Act.

Co-operative societies.

596. Co-operative societies[8] are registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1867, which gives them the same advantages as societies under the Friendly Societies Act, with the additional privilege of incorporation.

(1) Digest, p. 36, and Appendix LV. and LVI. (2) Digest, p 37. (3) Digest, p. 38. (4) Digest, p. 37. (5) Digest, p. 36. (6) Digest, p. 37. (7) Digest, p. 37. (8) Digest, p. 37, and Appendix LV.

[§ 596.] Mr. Ludlow attested the wonderful progress which co-operative societies had made during the last 40 years, but pointed out that they had tended to become representative of the middle class rather than of the workers. Thus, although, as he contended, employés of these societies, and all persons concerned in their working, whether in the direction of production or distribution, ought to have a share in the profits as well as the purchasers or consumers, such was not the case, and, though it was urged that the employés could share as purchasers the profits which they could not share as workers, yet they were, in many cases, expressly excluded from the committees of management, and, in some cases, even from membership. How far this statement is borne out by the facts may be gathered from the full account of the history and working of the co-operative societies which was furnished by their own representatives.

Witnesses representing co-operative societies.

597. The witnesses referred to were Mr. J. T. W. Mitchell,[1] the chairman of the English Co-operative Wholesale Society, who traced the general development of the movement in England; Mr. W. Maxwell,[2] the chairman of the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society, who sketched the history of the same movement on the other side of the border; Mr. J. Greenwood,[3] the manager of the Hebden Bridge Fustian Manufacturing Society, who supplemented the evidence of Mr. Mitchell on the subject of co-operative production; Mr. F. Hardern[4], the chairman of the Oldham Industrial Co-operative Society, Limited, who gave special information with regard to the progress of the movement in the town of Oldham, Lancashire; and Mr. H. Vivian,[5] who represented the Labour Association for Promoting Co-operative Production, or, in other words, the minority party within the movement which the four first named witnesses represented as a whole. By combining the information given by these witnesses, it has been found possible to present the following view of the past history and present position of the co-operative movement in the form of a single continuous narrative.

History of the co-operative movement: first period, 1779-1844.

598. The earliest recorded experiments in industrial co-operation were set on foot towards the end of last century, both in England and Scotland. When and where the very first attempt was made, however, appears doubtful, although, by comparing the evidence given by Messrs. Mitchell and Maxwell respectively, it would seem that the northern country was first in the field, for the latter witness[6] represented the Govan Society, which is still in existence, as having been founded in 1779, and stated that this is a typical instance of a whole class of societies that were founded about the same time. These were called victualling societies. They are distinguishable from co-operative societies proper by the fact that they distributed their profits to shareholders and not to purchasers, the result being that the poor artisans, having little or no capital to invest, had but small inducement to join them, and the membership was accordingly recruited mainly from among the small employers of labour, of the lower middle class. On the other hand, the sole evidence given by Mr. Mitchell[7] for the existence of co-operation in England before 1800, was the institution of a co-operative flour mill at Hull, as the result of a petition addressed by the poor inhabitants of that town asking for assistance in creating a fund for building the same in view of the high price charged for flour by the millers. The mill proved successful, and its success so exasperated the millers that they indicted the society that owned it as a nuisance at the York Assizes, in 1811. The jury, however, gave a verdict of acquittal, and thus saved the mill, which has prolonged its existence down to the present day. Other mills were started soon afterwards on the same lines, and their success, accompanied by the agitation for social improvement conducted by Robert Owen, led, in 1828, to the application of the co-operative principle to the purposes of general trading. Societies were, accordingly, formed in large numbers, but formed on the communistic principle of accumulating the profits in a general fund instead of distributing them among the members. By 1835, however, they, one and all, showed signs of decay, owing to the following causes:—First, because the members possessed little knowledge, and less experience, as to the rules of trading. Secondly, because they employed improper agents, without any guarantee as to their honesty. Thirdly, because, in many cases, the credit system was in operation among them. Fourthly, because they failed to secure due legal recognition and protection, either for themselves against their members, or for their members against themselves.

The Rochdale System.

599. In the meantime, some crude attempts were being made in Scotland[8] towards the working of schemes of

(1) Digest, p. 6. (2) Digest p. 9. (3) Digest, p. 12. (4) Digest, p. 13 (5) Digest, p. 14. (6) Digest, p. 9. (7) Digest, p 6. (8) Digest, p. 9.

[§ 599.] distributive co-operation in the interests of the consumers, but nothing of importance was effected in either country till 1844, when the establishment of the Rochdale Pioneer Co-operative Society(1) on the principle, afterwards known as the Rochdale system, of appropriating the profits to division among purchasers in proportion to the value of their purchases, gave the movement a fresh start. This principle is to be distinguished both from the communistic plan of the earlier co-operators, which was to accumulate the profits in a general fund, and also from the system adopted by supply associations, such as the Army and Navy and Civil Service Stores, which consists in an attempt to eliminate profits altogether by selling as near as possible at cost price. As a matter of practice, however, purchasers do not actually touch the dividends appropriated to them unless and until they make application for them, for it is considered better for members to accumulate on deposit the sums due to them during good times in order that, during bad times, the societies may be able to continue to supply goods without violating the ready money principle which they profess. Indeed, notwithstanding all rules to the contrary, credit is sometimes given after all, and though Mr. Maxwell(2) explained that, in Scotland, it was usual to limit the credit given in such cases to an amount equal to a certain proportion, varying from one half to three fourths, of the members' paid-up share capital, and is given conditionally upon the society having a lien over such share capital; yet the same witness afterwards attributed all the bankruptcies that have occurred of late years, partly, indeed, to permitting the control to fall into the hands of an individual or clique, but, for the rest, to the carelessness of committees in allowing too much credit. This point was not allowed to pass unnoticed by Mr. R. Walker,(3) the representative of the Traders' Defence Association of Scotland, who came before the Commission for the express purpose of criticising the co-operative movement. Private traders, he said, who declare their terms to be cash, stick to their word, whereas co-operative societies frequently break their rule in this respect. With regard to the general working of the Rochdale system, moreover, Mr. Walker(4) expressed himself as follows:—Neither in quality nor in price do the goods sold by co-operative societies conducted on the Rochdale system compare favourably with those sold by cash shopkeepers, and, in their large dividends—much larger than what would otherwise be a private trader's profit—members of the stores are only receiving back what is, in some cases, but a very small proportion of the extra price originally charged. This is proved by the complaints repeatedly addressed to the "Co-operative News" by members of the co-operative societies themselves, and by the failure of the general public, which is not subject to undue influences, to join the movement. To quote a specific instance, the proposal to start a co-operative store at Wishaw was rejected at a public meeting, on the ground that the branch of the Clelland Store, which it was proposed to take over, had been selling for 24*s.* or 25*s.* what could be bought in private shops for 20*s.*, and had been repaying in the form of dividend only 2*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.* of this price. Members of the Traders' Defence Association would heartily welcome the abolition by co-operative societies of their system of paying dividends to purchasers, and the substitution of the system of selling the goods at cost price plus the expenses of distribution. Then it would be possible to institute a fair comparison between the relative advantages of dealing with the stores and with private traders, and the result would be in favour of the latter. In fact, the reason why the really poor do not join the co-operative societies is that they cannot afford to pay the high prices charged by them, not that, by dealing with private traders, they can get credit, for to members of this class no credit is given.

History of the co-operative movement: second period: the Rochdale Pioneer Society.

600. Such, then, being the nature, and such the alleged defects, of the Rochdale system, it is now necessary to resume the thread of the narrative at the point where it was broken off, and to trace the course of events that have marked the translation of that system from theory into practice. As has been already stated, the first step in this direction was taken by the establishment of the Rochdale Pioneer Co-operative Society, in 1844. The objects of this society(5) were originally defined as follows: First, to establish a store for the sale of provisions, clothes, &c. Secondly, to build, purchase, or erect a number of houses, in which members desiring to assist one another in improving their domestic and social conditions might reside. Thirdly, to commence the manufacture of such articles as the society might determine upon for the employment of such members as might be without employment or suffering in consequence of repeated reductions in their wages. Fourthly, to purchase or rent an estate or estates of land, which should be cultivated by members out of employment or in receipt of bad wages. Fifthly, to proceed as soon as possible to regulate the powers of production, distribution, education, and government, or, in other words, to establish a self-supporting home colony of united interests, and to assist other societies to do the same. Sixthly, to open a temperance hotel in one of its houses as soon as convenient. These objects have for the most part been carried out, although the third, relating to the undertaking of productive enterprises, has not been realised. The Rochdale society has supported the English Wholesale Society in its productive work, but has practically confined its own efforts to the sphere of distribution. At the present time this society is subject, with slight modifications, to the same constitution and rules as were drawn up at its commencement. Its affairs are conducted by a committee, consisting of a president, a treasurer, a secretary, and eight unofficial members, elected periodically. This committee is divided into four sub-committees, each in connexion with one of the following departments, viz., grocery, coal, furnishing and apparel, and finance, whose proceedings are subject to revision by the general committee at its ordinary weekly meetings. The only qualification necessary for membership is the purchase of 4*l.* worth of goods a year. The average portion of the share capital subscribed for per member does not exceed 30*l.* The Industrial and Provident Societies Act limits the amount to 200*l.*, but the society has by its own rules gone further, and imposed a limitation of 100*l.* Mr. Mitchell put in(1) a tabulated statement showing the extension of the society's operations between 1845, when its membership amounted to 74 persons, its funds to 181*l.*, its sales to 710*l.*, and its profits to 22*l.*, and 1891, when its membership amounted to 11,647 persons, its funds to 370,792*l.*, its sales to 296,025*l.*, and its profits to 36,823*l.*, or, including the interest on the investments which, by a change of policy, the society had made outside its own business, to 52,198*l.* It is to the capital sum represented by such investments that the excess of the funds over the sales is due. The figures furnished by Mr. Mitchell show between 1877 and 1891 an increase of membership but a decrease of sales. This fact, he explained, is due to the increase in the families of co-operators being more rapid than the increase in their purchasing power. Of the net profits, 2½ per cent. is appropriated to educational purposes. By this means, the society has instituted a large central newsroom, and provided 18 branches with libraries, containing an aggregate number of 17,318 volumes, and has organised science, art, and technology classes, which have been attended during the current session by 345 students, paying 12*l.* in fees.

[§ 600.]

The co-operative movement in England and Wales.

601. Other societies followed the Rochdale Pioneers in quick succession. In some places, as, for example, in London, where its want of success is very marked, retail distributive co-operation has made less progress than in others. In illustration, however, of its general development in England and Wales, Mr. Mitchell(2) put in a table showing the number and character of the shops connected with 919 retail distributive societies in 1887. The number was 5,010, and the businesses conducted were as follows: Baking butchering, and trades connected with flour, grocery, coal, clogging, drapery, millinery, boots and shoes, tailoring, earthenware, furniture, hardware, ironmongery, and beer, wine, and spirits.

The co-operative movement in the town of Oldham, Lancashire.

602. Nowhere in the kingdom has the co-operative movement made such progress as in the town of Oldham, Lancashire. Mr. Hardern put in a statement(3) relating to the five principal societies established in the borough, and remarked(4) that the fact that the industrial population of Oldham was specially well paid, well fed, and well housed, was mainly to be attributed to the vitality of the co-operative movement in their midst. It is a fixed rule with each of the five societies referred to that every member must belong to a different household, and their membership includes fully 50 per cent. of the householders in the town, while they furnish employment for 75 per cent. of the industrial population.

Of these societies the Industrial, of which Mr. Hardern is chairman, and the Equitable, are the two largest. They were both established in 1850, and the three other societies subsequently. In all five the capital is withdrawable at call. Their aggregate sales during the past 20 years have amounted to 11,735,589*l.*, of which 1,871,138*l.* has gone as interest on share capital and in dividends to members; 444,213*l.* to education grants, and 3,007*l.* for charitable purposes. The total amount lent by the three societies that have building departments for erecting cottages, is 165,103*l.*,

(1) Digest, p. 6. (2) Digest, p. 10. (3) Digest, p. 15. (4) Digest, p. 15. (5) Digest, p. 6, and Appendix III.

(1) Digest, p. 7, and Appendix IV, which gives accounts for the quarter ending September, 1892. (2) Digest, p. 7, (3) Appendix XLV. and LI. (4) Digest, p. 13.

[§ 602.] of which 125,018*l.* has been repaid, and 40,085*l.* is still owing. The number of cottages so built is 1,026. No member is allowed to borrow for building purposes more than 300*l.* at a time, the object being to avoid assisting persons to become owners of houses which they do not themselves intend to occupy. The societies have exceeded the strictness of the law, limiting the amount of share capital per member to 200*l.*, by imposing further limitations, in the case of the Industrial to 25*l.*, in that of the Equitable to 30*l.*, and in that of Crompton Society to 30*l.* The reason why these limitations were imposed was that the amount of share capital so far exceeded the requirements of the trade that the societies, being bound by their rules to restrict the area of their investments to the town of Oldham, were unable to find within that area a sufficient number of safe securities yielding 5 per cent. to absorb it. Mr. Hardern's own opinion was that it would have been a better policy to reduce the rate of interest than to limit the number of shares per member; but the shareholders insisted on their 5 per cent., even at the cost of entailing loss upon their societies, which were accordingly compelled in self-defence to protect their finances against the self-interest of their own members, in the manner indicated. In consequence of the introduction of the 25*l.* limit, the Industrial Society returned 131,500*l.* to investors. The total amount, whether repaid or not, that has been added to this Society's share capital during the last 21 years, is 2,022,638*l.* The average annual purchases per member are worth 30*l.* The working expenses amount to 4·59 per cent. and the net profit to 16·28 per cent. on the sales. The educational grant is 2½ per cent. of the net profits, and consists of considerably over 3,000*l.*, while depreciations are estimated at nearly 14 per cent. of the value of the fixed stock.

The co-operative movement in Scotland.

603. Turning to Scotland,[1] it appears that, since 1846 or 1847, when the Rochdale system was first introduced into the country, the progress of the co-operative movement has been such that, in 1890, the number of retail distributive societies amounted to 333, with an aggregate membership of 171,088, their share capital to 1,335,809*l.*, and loan capital to 971,181*l.*, their sales to 800,897*l.*, and their profits, after paying all the expenses of management and interest on capital, both loan and share, to 10¼ per cent., or 830,860*l.*, representing an average dividend of 4*l.* 17*s.* 1½*d.* per member. Of these profits, about two thirds are actually withdrawn per annum by the members to whom they are apportioned, and about one third is left on deposit. The division of the profits re-acts upon the prosperity of the stores by increasing the purchasing power of the customers, almost all of whom are members, inasmuch as outsiders do not, as a rule, take advantage of the absence of a rule prohibiting them from dealing. In 1891, the Scotch societies devoted 3,411*l.* to educational, and 3,211*l.* to charitable purposes.

Statistics of retail distributive societies in Great Britain and Ireland.

604. Mr. Mitchell[2] gave the following figures relating to the position of the retail distributive societies in the whole of Great Britain and Ireland at the end of 1891. The number of such societies was 1,459, and their aggregate membership 1,098,352; share capital, 11,520,045*l.*; loan capital, 1,207,204*l.*; reserve fund, 478,861*l.*; value of saleable stock, 3,554,771*l.*; value of land, buildings, and fixed stock, 4,944,512*l.*; allowance for depreciation, 202,150*l.*; investments, 5,786,516*l.*; amount received during 1891 for goods sold, 31,514,634*l.*; trade charges during 1891, 1,831,216*l.*; total net profit made in 1891, 4,342,373*l.*; amount applied for educational purposes during 1891, 32,651*l.*; amount applied for charitable purposes during 1891, 10,156*l.*; subscriptions of the Central Board, 4,319*l.* 5*s.* 4*d.*

Wholesale co-operation: 1831–1863.

605. Wholesale, as opposed to retail co-operation, was first instituted in 1831, by the formation of the North-West of England United Co-operative Company,[3] but this first attempt failed, owing to want of sufficient capital to enable it to compete with other wholesale establishments. A second venture, promoted by the body of Christian Socialists in London, met with no better fate, and the failure was repeated in the case of the wholesale department attached to the Rochdale Pioneer Society, which was opened in 1853. In 1862 and 1863, however, the matter was again taken up, and, as a result of several conferences in the northern districts of England, where the societies had all along shown greater vitality and more striking signs of progress, it was decided to establish the "The North of "England Co-operative Wholesale Society," of which only registered co-operative societies were capable of becoming members or shareholders. In course of time, this society altered its title to "The English Co-operative Wholesale "Society," in view of the enlargement of its business connexion in other parts of the country.

The English Co-operative Wholesale Society,

606. This Society[4] entrusts the administration of its affairs to an executive committee, elected by the committees of the various retail societies in membership, and consisting of eight members for the Newcastle and London branches respectively, and 16 representing the general body, whose headquarters are at Manchester. The presence of two of the members for both Newcastle and London, however, in addition to the 16 at Manchester, is deemed sufficient to complete the executive authority. Two Manchester, one Newcastle, and one London member of the committee, retire quarterly, but are eligible for re-election. The society was registered on August 11th, 1863, and commenced business on March 14th, 1864, when 50 societies, representing 17,545 persons, had become shareholders, and had subscribed capital to the extent of 999*l.* In two years, the number of societies in membership had increased to 96, representing 26,240 persons, and a depôt was opened at Tipperary, Ireland, for the purchase of butter and eggs, in pursuance of one of its principal objects, viz., to eliminate the middleman and purchase direct from the producer. At the present time, the society has six depôts of the kind in Ireland, and their combined shipments for 1891 amounted to 122,151 firkins of butter, worth 468,706*l.* In 1881, a similar depôt was opened at Copenhagen for the purchase of Danish produce, and its shipments—comprised chiefly of butter—are now worth over 930,800*l.* per annum. Depôts have subsequently been started at Hamburg and Aarhus, the shipments from the former being 232,215*l.* for the year, and from the latter 131,422*l.* for the 31 weeks that have elapsed since its establishment. In 1876, moreover, a depôt was opened at New York, which now sends over to England cheese, bacon, flour, and other produce to the annual value of 476,746*l.* Prior to 1871, the English Wholesale Society had conducted all its business with the distributive societies in England from Manchester, but in that year a branch was established at Newcastle-on-Tyne for the benefit of the societies in that district. In 1891, the sales of this branch amounted to 1,907,265*l.* In 1874 a similar branch was opened in London to supply the requirements of the societies in the south of England. Its sales amount to 1,283,612*l.* per annum. In 1882, a saleroom was opened at Leeds, where a representative is stationed to show samples of goods and receive orders from those societies that are situated in the immediate neighbourhood. Seven other such salerooms have since been opened at Nottingham, Blackburn, Huddersfield, Birmingham, Northampton, Bristol, and Cardiff. In 1872, the banking department was instituted. Its turnover for 1873 was 1,581,495*l.*, and for 1891 28,590,670*l.* In 1873, the nucleus of an insurance fund was formed by transferring the sum of 2,000*l.* from the reserve fund. The society now insures its own steamships in this fund, as well as a portion of its various buildings, fixtures, stocks, and goods in transit by water. Notwithstanding the fact that large payments have been made to meet losses by fire, damage to steamships, &c., the fund has now accumulated, through premiums and additions from the profits, to the large sum of 205,766*l.* In 1876, a small vessel was purchased to ply between Goole and Calais, taking out English coal and manufactures and bringing back French produce. The society now owns a fleet of six steamers "Pioneer," "Unity," "Progress," "Equity," "Federation," and "Liberty," which were built at a cost of 84,500*l.*, and have a registered gross tonnage of 3,898. The receipts of the shipping department, however, have not always been sufficient to pay the charges for interest and depreciation. In 1882, a buyer was appointed to take charge of the purchase of teas and coffees direct from the importers, instead of, as heretofore, conducting this business through a firm of tea merchants. The success of this step was soon demonstrated by the rapid increase in the sales of tea and coffee, which now amount to 570,431*l.* per annum, against 190,020*l.* in 1882. The manufacture of chocolate and cocoa has been added to this department, and is making very satisfactory progress. The department finds employment for 300 hands. On the whole, therefore, the progress made by the English Wholesale Society has been rapid and continuous. In the first period of its existence, it confined its operations almost exclusively to groceries and provisions, but by degrees there have been added the drapery, boot and shoe, furnishing, hardware, and other departments, and, at the present time, it can supply almost every article that co-operators require. The figures furnished by Mr. Mitchell[1] relating to its position at the end of 1891, in respect of its distributive work—for, as will appear hereafter, it has also embarked in some successful enterprises in the sphere of production—are as follows:—Number of members, 966; share capital, 202,923*l.*; loan capital, 891,216*l.*; reserve fund, 41,997*l.*; value of saleable stock, 645,930*l.*; value of land, buildings, and fixed stock, 402,710*l.*; allowance for depreciation, 33,737*l.*; invest-

[§ 606.]

(1) Digest, p. 9. (2) Digest, p. 9. (3) Digest, p. 7. (4) Digest, p. 7, and Appendix V.

(1) Digest, p. 9.

[§ 606.] ments, 296,542*l.*; amount received for goods sold during 1891, 8,177,478*l.*; trade charges during 1891, 164,640*l.*; total net profit made during 1891, 115,146*l.*; amount applied for educational purposes during 1891, 50*l.*; amount applied for charitable purposes during 1891, 387*l.*; subscriptions of the Central Board, 150*l.*

The Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society.

607. The Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society(1) was started in 1868, on the same lines as the corresponding English Society, which had originated four years previously. It consists of a federation of 268 retail societies. Every society in membership is required to take at least one 1*l.* share per person. There are accordingly no fewer than 131,086 individual shareholders. All societies in membership are furnished with tickets of admission to the quarterly meetings, and, in addition to the ticket obtained by the mere fact of membership, every society receives one for every 1,000*l.* worth of goods purchased during the quarter. Generally speaking, the Scottish Wholesale is well supported by the retail societies. It employs about 300 hands in connexion with its distributive, as distinguished from its productive business. According to Mr. Mitchell's figures,(2) it appears that, at the end of 1891, the financial position of the society in respect of its distributive business was as follows:—Share capital, 20,211*l.*; loan capital, 510,791*l.*; reserve fund, 64,938*l.*; value of saleable stock, 241,138*l.*; value of land, buildings, and fixed stock, 121,837*l.*; allowance for depreciation, 9,173*l.*; investments, 196,921*l.*; amount received for goods sold during 1891, 2,660,062*l.*; trade charges during 1891, 58,140*l.*; total net profit during 1891, 77,467; amount applied for charitable purposes during 1891, 350*l.*; subscriptions of the Central Board, 50*l.* It also appeared from figures furnished by Mr. Maxwell(3) that, of the 89,090*l.* which formed the net profit of the distributive and the productive departments combined, 68,734*l.* was disposed of to members, 931*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.* to non-members, and 3,011*l.* 4*s.* as bonuses to the society's employés. The payment of these bonuses is one of the points that distinguishes the Scotch societies from their English counterparts. It is made at the same rate per pound on the wages as the payment to purchasers on the purchases. In 1891, 23 per cent. of the profits went in this manner to the workers. The ordinary dividend paid on purchases is 7*d.* per pound. Possibly about 4*d.* per pound of the profits of the retail societies is given them by the wholesale as a share of its profits. Harmonious relations exist between the English and the Scotch Wholesale Societies. The latter has 25,000*l.* in the funds of the former in the shape of a loan, and proposals have been made for amalgamating the two organisations. Such a proceeding, however, appears to be illegal.

Production by distributive societies in England.

608. The progress made by the distributive societies both wholesale and retail, has led a large number of them to undertake the production of the articles they sell. But, as will appear hereafter, when the relations between the co-operative and the trades union movements come to be discussed, it is important to distinguish the co-operative production, which consists in the combination of consumers to employ producers, from co-operative production proper, which consists in the combination of producers to employ themselves. The total annual value of the goods made by the retail distributive societies in England(4) that employ productive labour is put down at 3,347,480*l.* The number of persons employed in their production is 4,600., viz., 1,600 bakers, 600 butchers, 1,200 bootmakers, 700 tailors, and 500 dressmakers. In addition to this, some of these societies own corn mills, viz., those at Leeds, Banbury, Barnsley, Carlisle, Cleator Moor, Leicester, Leigh, Lincoln, Mansfield, and Stockton-on-Tees, all of which, with the exception of the one at Leigh, work them at a profit. Production is also carried on by groups of distributive societies for their common benefit. The Derwent Co-operative Flour Mills, Shotley Bridge, Durham, and the Colne Vale Corn Mill, were mentioned by Mr. Mitchell as examples of this phase of co-operative effort. More important, however, are the productive enterprises undertaken by the English Co-operative Wholesale Society. The first of such enterprises was set on foot in 1873, by the establishment at Crumpsall,(5) near Manchester, of a factory for making biscuits and boiled sweets. At the same works, there was subsequently added the manufacture of jams, marmalade, and dried goods. The progress of these works has been continuous. They now find employment for over 260 work-people, and purchase over 69,000*l.* worth of goods annually. Boot and shoe works(6) were also established in the same year at Leicester, and are now annually making 1,000,000 pairs of boots, of the aggregate value of 250,000*l.*, and employing 2,000 hands. Encouraged by the success of these undertakings, the Wholesale Society established a soap-works at Durham(7) in 1874, and, in 1880, opened, another boot and shoe works at Heckmondwike.(8) A woollen mill was started at Batley in 1887,(9) a clothing factory at Leeds in 1888, and, in 1891, a large flour mill was erected at Dunston, near Newcastle-on-Tyne, capable of manufacturing 40 sacks of flour per hour.(4) The total capital expended on the Wholesale Society's various productive works amounts to about 350,000*l.*, and the total value of the goods produced to 714,480*l.* At the present time, the number of persons employed in connection with these works is over 3,000. The figures furnished by Mr. Mitchell relating to their financial position at the end of 1891 are as follows:—Share capital, 271,033*l.*; value of saleable stock, 187,112*l.*; value of land, buildings, and fixed stock, 172,677*l.*; allowance for depreciation during 1891, 7,856*l.*; amount received for goods sold during 1891, 588,952*l.*; total net profit made during 1891, 19,862*l.*

[§ 606.]

Production by distributive societies in Scotland.

609. Speaking generally, the Scotch societies(5) are distinguished from their English neighbours, not only in giving their employés a share of the profits, as has already been mentioned—but also in confining their investments to co-operative undertakings and in investing a larger proportionate amount of their capital in productive enterprises. The Scottish Wholesale(6) manufactures furniture, clothing, shirts, hosiery, preserves, confectionery, boots and shoes, and tobacco. It also employs a large staff at printing and bookbinding and in making paper bags, and is directly employing workmen to build a large flour mill at Edinburgh. The productive departments are carried on almost entirely for the use of the various distributive societies. Among possible customers outside the movement, indeed, there exists a prejudice against supporting either co-operative or other productive firms where the profit-sharing system prevails. A notable exception is the case where the tenders of the Wholesale Society, competing against all comers for a certain contract, was accepted by the Corporation of Glasgow. The profits of all the productive departments of the Wholesale Society are pooled and divided at equal rates among all those who can claim a share. The aggregate account has always shown a profit. The departments might be worked independently of each other, but, if they were, the men employed in the less successful of them would be discontented at not receiving so large a share of profits as their fellows. The hope, however, that starting several industries at once would enable men thrown out of employment in one department to be transferred to another, has been disappointed. The number of persons employed by the Scottish Wholesale in its productive work is about 1,800. The following is the statement prepared by Mr. Mitchell(7) as to the financial position of that society with respect to that work at the end of 1891:—Share capital, 75,167*l.*; value of saleable stock, 48,832*l.*; value of land, buildings, and fixed stock, 39,830*l.*; allowance for depreciation during 1891, 2,260*l.*; amount received for goods sold during 1891, 167,974*l.*; total net profit made during 1891, 11,623*l.*

Co-operative production.

610. Now, easy though it be to establish a clear distinction between combinations of consumers to employ producers and combinations of producers to employ themselves, it is by no means so easy to preserve it when dealing with the actual facts. And that for two reasons. First, that both forms of co-operative association are not only comprehended within the same general co-operative organisation, but—perhaps, as was hinted by Mr. Vivian,(8) from a desire to minimise the great conflict of opinion that is known to exist within the movement as to the proper status of the workers—are left absolutely undistinguished in the returns of the Central Co-operative Board. And, secondly, that both tend, as it were, to converge from their opposite points to a common centre, where each merges its identity in the other. Thus, as has been seen already in the case of the Scotch societies, the combinations of consumers begin to share their profits with their workmen, while, as will appear from what follows, the combinations of producers either surrender the control of their undertakings to consumers or retain it and employ others to do the work. The result is that co-operative production in the proper sense of the term, though the desire of many associations, is the possession of few.

Product societies proper

611. Of attempts,(9) indeed, on the part of workmen to become their own employers, there has been no lack. As early as the beginning of the present century, four co-operative productive societies were started, at Birkacre, at Huddersfield, at Kendal and at Loughborough; but they never managed to furnish work for more than a small fraction of their members, and have now ceased to exist. The next attempt was made about the year 1850, by the Christian

(1) Digest, p. 10, and Appendix XV.-XVII. (2) Digest, p. 9. (3) Digest, p. 10. (4) Digest, p. 8. (5) Appendix VI. (6) Appendix VII.

(1) Appendix X. (2) Appendix IX. (3) Appendix XI. (4) Appendix XII. (5) Digest, p. 11. (6) Digest, p. 11. (7) Digest, p. 9. (8) Digest, p. 14. (9) Digest, p. 12.

[§ 611.] Socialists,(1) who formed various associations of producers in both London and the provinces, and then established an organisation called the Society for Promoting Working Men's Productive Associations, in order to secure for them a connexion among the various associations of consumers.(2) In 1851, there were 37 of such societies in existence in both London and the provinces.(3) In the provincial societies, all the capital was found by the workers, but, in the London Working Men's Productive Association, only 474*l.* of the 13,560*l.* worth of capital it possessed in 1852 was subscribed by the men employed, the remaining 13,086*l.* being advanced by Mr. Vansittart Neale and other gentlemen interested in the movement. In 1883, the English Wholesale Society(4) published in its annual a list of 224 alleged failures of co-operative productive societies, registered between 1850 and 1880, whereupon Mr. Greening, the present treasurer of the Labour Association for Promoting Co-operative Production(5) which was established in the course of the same year, obtained from Mr. Ludlow, the then chief registrar of friendly societies, permission to examine the rules and constitutions of the societies that were reported as having failed, and the result of his analysis was to prove that only 24 of these societies were conducted on the basis of giving even a portion of the profits and the management to the workers. Mr. Greenwood(6) stated that there were, at the present time, 88 independent co-operative productive societies in England, with an aggregate membership of 8,081, with an aggregate loan capital of 235,244*l.*, a reserve of 18,979*l.*, a saleable stock of 141,703*l.*, a fixed stock of 100,829*l.*, an annual sale of 594,594*l.*, and a profit of 25,214*l.*, of which 8,213*l.* was paid as interest to capital, and 3,450*l.* and 3,713*l.* as dividends to labourers and purchasers respectively, while 484*l.* was written off as "loss." But he was careful to explain that among these societies he had included both those concerns where distributive societies and patrons of the movement provided some of the capital, and where the workers shared the profits with capitalists and purchasers, and also those where profit-sharing was practised under an individual employer or firm, as well as co-operative productive societies proper, where the workers monopolised both profits and management. Mr. Mitchell,(7) moreover, placed the number of the so-called productive societies in Great Britain and Ireland, of whose financial position at the end of 1891 he furnished statistics, at the high figure of 25,217, from which it is clear that his interpretation of the term "co-operative production" was more liberal even than that adopted by Mr. Greenwood. Indeed, it appears doubtful(8) whether there is any society existing at the present time that is conducted on the strict lines of co-operative production as defined above. The following, however, are those that approach most nearly to the true form:—The Nelson Self Help Weaving Society, the Finedon, the Northamptonshire Productive, the Raunds, and the Tingdene Boot and Shoemaking Societies, the Bromsgrove Nail Forgers' and the Dudley Nail Manufacturing Societies, and the Brighton Artisans and the Brixton Building Societies. And of these, the Finedon Society(9) has only 27 members, although its sales for the past year have amounted to 19,881*l.* and its share capital is 1,860*l.*, the fact being that it employs as workers persons other than members, and the Co-operative Union has recently called a conference to urge it to admit more workers to membership and to a share in the profits. The Northamptonshire Productive Society(10) has been decidedly successful. During the last 10 years, it has earned a total profit of 3,443*l.*, and, during 1891, a profit of 2*s.* 8*d.* in the pound on wages. It is noteworthy, moreover, that most of the above mentioned societies are connected with the boot trade, and depend very largely upon Government contracts.

Co-partnership productive societies.

612. Of societies, however, wherein the workers share, though they do not monopolise both profits and management, there are 47.(11) Their aggregate membership is 11,000, their annual aggregate business is 666,000*l.*, their capital 326,000*l.*, their profits 37,000*l.*, and the number of workmen they employ is 3,653. These figures show a striking advance upon those for 1883, which give the number of these societies as only 15, their membership 2,557, their annual business 160,000*l.*, their capital 103,000, and their profits 9,000*l.* A typical example of these "co-partnership" societies, as they are called, to distinguish them from co-operative productive societies proper on the one hand, and from consumers' societies of the other, is the Leicester Boot and Shoe Co-operative Works.(12) This society is registered under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, with limited liability. Its shares are 1*l.* each. The total profit since 1887 is 5,200*l.* [§ 612.] Of this, 1,874*l.* has been appropriated to the workers, 937*l.* to purchasers, 562*l.* to the official staff, 468*l.* to the provident fund, 468*l.* to capital, in addition to the 5 per cent. reserved to it before the division of profits is effected; 348*l.* to the reserve fund, 234*l.* education, to 140*l.* to the special service fund, 102*l.* to the charitable agencies, and 67*l.* to "other purposes." Every worker is also a shareholder, because he is not allowed to draw his share of the profits until he has accummulated sufficient to enable 5*l.* to be added to the capital. The general meeting of shareholders elects the committee of management, consisting of a president, a secretary, and twelve others, and three subcommittees, to deal with minor matters of detail. The committee of management appoints departmental managers, who have power to suspend a worker, but not to discharge him. Of the other co-partnership societies, 11 are engaged in textile, 10 in leather, 12 in metal, and 12 in miscellaneous industries, such as building, farming, cabinet-making, tailoring, &c. The history of the Paisley Manufacturing Society, one of the 11 societies engaged in the textile industry, is instructive as illustrating the tendency of producers' and consumers' societies to become fused.(1) This society was instituted in 1862, by a body of weavers and others, being members of the Paisley Provident Co-operative Society, on co-operative productive lines. During 1868, however, the propriety of giving a share of the profits to purchasers was discussed, and the system was introduced forthwith. A year later, it was agreed to pay a dividend on wages to all the workers alike, to employés as well as to members. Until 1870, the membership was confined to individuals; but, in that year, the Paisley Equitable Co-operative Society took up one share, and, by the end of 1873, 24 societies were members. In 1870, the share and loan capital amounted to 1,177*l.* and the sales for the year to 2,463*l.* From this point, the following figures record the progress of the society, in periods of five years. First, as to capital. By the year 1875, it had increased to 4,421*l.*, of which 2,403*l.* was for shares. At 1880, the share and loan capital was 6,174*l.* At 1885, it amounted to 9,166, and, at June, 1890, the total share and loan capital was 19,546*l.*, share capital being 8,563*l.*, and loan 10,983*l.* The sales for the five years ending June 1875, were 28,644; for those ending June 1880, 34,783*l.*, an increase of fully 1,200*l.* a year. For these five years ending June 1885, the sales were 74,779*l.*, an increase of 8,000*l.* a year. For the five years ending June 1890, the sales were 154,563*l.*, or an annual increase of nearly 16,000*l.* These figures show that, during the first ten years, the capital and sales have doubled in each of the five years. The amount paid in wages for the five years ending June 1880 was 4,920*l.*; for those ending June 1885, 13,369*l.*; and for those ending June 1890, 31,463*l.* For the five years ending June 1880, the dividend paid to purchasers was 550*l.*; to workers 68*l.* For the five years ending 1885, to purchasers, 2,056*l.*; to workers, 279*l.* For the five years ending 1890, to purchasers, 6,837*l.*; to workers, 873*l.* As a result of the growth of the society, a meeting of members, in 1888, gave powers to the directors to proceed with the building of a factory and warehouse. During 1889, a site was fixed upon the lands of Colnislee, and contracts were arranged for a factory and warehouse, and also for 48 looms and winding machines, &c. By the end of March 1890, all the looms were working. At a general meeting of members, held on the 9th of August 1890, further powers were given to the directors. A large addition to the original factory has been completed. The weaving shed is now capable of accommodating about 200 power looms (99 are already laid down and fully employed), also beaming and winding machines. During 1891, the growth of the society has been fully maintained. The membership now includes 211 societies. The loan and share capital is 33,754*l.*; the amount expended on property and machinery, 26,740*l.*; the nominal value of property and machinery is, 18,779*l.*; the reductions are 1,961*l.*; the sales for the year, 48,361*l.*; the dividend paid to purchasers, 1,943*l.*; wages paid for the year, 8,918*l.*; dividend paid to wages, 365*l.* The society now manufactures wool, union and cotton shirtings and shirts, cloakings, aprons, bed quilts, union flannelettes, &c.; also ladies' clan tartan, tweeds, and serge costume cloths; fancy, Thibet, and cotton skirtings and skirts; tweed, Saxony, and velvet shawls; wool handkerchiefs (shawlettes) and scarfs. Its employés work the ordinary factory hours, viz., 56½ per week. Not only are they admitted to the board of management, but the chairman of that board is himself one of their number This has not led to any relaxation of discipline, although, in the tailoring department, there has been some little trouble with the men's trades union, which objected to the employment of women.

(1) Digest, p. 12. (2) Appendix XXIII., XXIV., and XXV. (3) Appendix XXV. (4) Digest, p. 14. (5) Appendix CXXVIII. and following. (6) Digest, p. 12, and Appendix XXVII. (7) Digest, p. 9. (8) Digest, p. 14, and Appendix XXVIII. (9) Appendix XLIII. (10) Appendix XXVI. and XXX. (11) Digest, p. 15, and Appendix CXXX. (12) Appendix XLI. and Digest, p. 15.

(1) Digest, pp. 10 and 15.

[§ 613.] Profit-sharing productive societies.

613. The third class of productive societies are those where the workers share in the profits, but not in the management. This, as has been seen, is the case with almost all the Scotch societies. The form of co-operation, indeed, that is exemplified by all societies of this class is essentially identical with profit-sharing, just as co-partnership is essentially identical with industrial partnership, the only difference being that in the former case the employer whose profit the workers share is a co-operative society, whereas, in the latter, he is an individual, or company, unconnected with the co-operative movement. The best example, given in the course of the evidence, of a society of this class is the Hebden Bridge Fustian Manufacturing Society, of which Mr. Greenwood is manager.(1) It originated in 1870, when about 30 fustian cutters agreed to put by 3*d.* a week each towards establishing a fustian cutting and dyeing works. It was to be conducted on the lines of genuine co-operative production, only persons actually engaged in the trade being admitted to membership. The rules were registered on September 1st, 1870, under the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1867, and, by resolution of the members, the object of the society was set forth to be—"To find employment for its members in "the manufacture and sale of fustian, and it shall, by "contributions (of money, labour, and profits) accumulate "1,000*l.* for that purpose. The society will aim at the "regulation of wages and labour in this branch of trade, "but it will not enter arbitrarily into any dispute between "masters and workmen. Still, it will practically educate "its members in the causes which operate for and against "them in their daily employment, and in the principles "that will tend to their elevation and improvement." From the manner in which this resolution is worded, it would appear that it was not expected that the society would find employment for all its members, but that some would be working for other firms. By the end of 1870, the society had 95 members, 83*l.* capital, 55*l.* sales, and 3*l.* profit. In December, 1871, the first bonus was declared at 1*s.* in the pound on wages. In July, 1873, the rate of interest payable on share capital was limited to 7½ per cent. per annum. In 1877, the society found that, owing to the habit of members selling their shares to outsiders on leaving its service, a large proportion of its share capital was in the hands of the public. To counteract this tendency to violate the principle on which it was founded, it refused to allow its share capital to be held outside its organisation, but made an important exception in favour of co-operative societies. At the same time, it began to issue withdrawal shares, which it could repay and cancel when the holders left its service. In 1885, the society decided to issue no more shares bearing 7½ per cent. interest, and brought B. shares at 5 per cent., and finally, in January 1890, it reduced to that rate the interest on all shares alike. In December, 1891, the share capital amounted to 22,899*l.*, of which 9,644*l.* was held by 266 co-operative societies, 5,593*l.* by 274 workers, and 7,662*l.* by 192 others, including ex-workers, the last item being a decreasing quantity, in consequence of the rule made in 1877. The loan capital amounted to 8,979*l.*, of which 873*l.* was subscribed by the workers, and the interest paid on it was at the rate of 3¾ per cent. The profits, after paying interest on the loan capital and allowing 840*l.* for depreciation, amounted to 3,723*l.*, of which 1,111*l.* was appropriated to interest on the share capital, 1,277*l.* to bonuses to purchasers, 527*l.* to bonuses to workers, 60*l.* to education, 400*l.* to reserve, and 300*l.* to insurance, while 27*l.* was carried forward. Since its foundation, the society has done a total trade of 440,226*l.*, at a total profit, including interest on share capital, of 37,930*l.* Its employés are 290 in number. Neither purchasers nor workers are allowed to withdraw the share in the profits allotted to them until they have accumulated enough to buy 20*l.* worth of the share capital. No employé of the society can be elected on the committee. The rule on this point, however, might, according to Mr. Greenwood, be with advantage reconsidered with a view to its repeal. At present the committee is composed chiefly of such shareholders of the society as are employed as fustian cutters by other firms. Two years ago, the society obtained in open competition with private dealers a contract for 1,000*l.* worth of fustian garments from the Manchester Corporation, and made a good profit. The regularity of the demand for goods among the various co-operative societies, that are its chief customers, enables it to afford corresponding regularity of work to its employés, many of whom are members of trades unions. Its relations with its workers and their various organisations are good, and there have been no strikes or disputes.

(1) Digest, p. 18, and Appendix XXII. and XXXVI.–XL.

[§ 614.] The Co-operative Farming Association.

614. Before leaving this class of productive society, it is worth while to notice an attempt made to apply co-operation in this form to agriculture, in the case of the Co-operative Farming Association,(1) which was founded in 1890. It now owns 870 acres of land, situated between Paisley and Barhead, in Renfrewshire. The shares have been taken up by both societies and individuals to the extent of about 8,000*l.* worth. The technical management is in the hands of one man, but the financial and general control is exercised by a committee appointed by the shareholders. The profit remaining after all charges have been met is divided between wages and capital, in the same proportion per £ but there is a strong feeling in favour of limiting the profits of capital to 5 per cent. The farms are rented on a five years' lease. There is no hostility on the part of the landlords towards the scheme, but, in promoting it, there was some difficulty in combating the prejudices of co-operators against embarking their capital in what was to them a new form of industry. There are, at present, only two years' results, but, so far, the scheme promises to be successful.

The co-operative movement as a whole.

615. This concludes the review which it has proved possible to obtain from the evidence, of the origin, history, and present position of the two opposing movements that are comprehended under the term co-operative. It has been found possible to trace the steps whereby the movement of producers, though repeatedly worsted in an unequal struggle with its rival, yet, being at once too strong to perish and too weak to prevail, is now tending towards a union with the movement of consumers, based on a mutual recognition by each of the essential principles of the other. It now only remains to summarise those portions of the evidence which deal with the co-operative movement as a whole, showing its general financial position, the nature of the common organisation by which it is governed, the demands it makes on the Legislature, and its relations with trade unionism.

Its general financial position.

616. It appears from the figures furnished by Mr. Mitchell,(2) that the total number of societies comprehended in the movement, including distributive societies, retail and wholesale, productive societies, and supply associations, at the end of 1891, was 1,624. Their combined membership was 1,191,369. Their share capital was 13,258,482*l.*, their loan capital 3,053,573*l.*, their reserve 730,049*l.*, their saleable stock 5,569,027*l.*, their land, buildings, and fixed stock, 6,427,203*l.* The amount allowed for depreciation during 1891 was 287,106*l.* Their investments were 6,541,587*l.* The amount received for goods sold during 1891 was 48,571,786*l.* The trade charges during 1891 were 2,626,940*l.* The total net profit during 1891 was 4,774,030*l.* The amount applied for educational purposes was 32,942*l.* The amount applied for charitable purposes during 1891 was 11,435*l.*; and the subscriptions of the central board were 4,700*l.* 18*s.* The societies do not pay income tax on their profits, because the large majority of their members, not being liable to the tax, would claim to have returned to them individually what had been taken from them in this way collectively. Mr. Walker,(3) representing the Traders' Defence Association of Scotland, desired the Legislature to make every society a unit for the purpose of income tax, without allowing rebate to the members, but Mr. Mitchell(4), characterised the proposal as unjust. It appears from the returns issued by the chief Registrar of Friendly Societies that, during the 30 years ending 1890, the number of members of co-operative societies had increased over tenfold, and the share capital over twenty-seven fold. The sales had grown from 2,349,055*l.* to 35,367,102*l.*, and the profits from 165,562*l.* to 3,393,991*l.* per annum. The trade stocks are turned over more than eight times a year. Mr. Walker,(5) considered that co-operative societies ought to be compelled to have their accounts audited by a public official.

Its general organisation: the Co-operative Union.

617. The administration of the movement is in the hands of the Co-operative Union(6), an organisation that has grown up out of the practice, commenced in 1867, of holding annual conferences among independent co-operative societies. Similar conferences, indeed, had been held intermittently before that date. As far as can be ascertained, the first co-operative congress was held at Manchester, in May 1830, when 56 of the 260 societies then in existence sent delegates, representing about 3,000 members, who had amongst them accumulated a capital sum of 6,000*l.* after less than 15 months' trading. The Co-operative Union has recently been registered under the Limited Liability Act, in order to get its property out of the hands of trustees, and so to acquire the security and permanency of a corporate body. Its objects are the consolidation of existing co-operative effort, and the general promulgation of co-operative principles and practice.

(1) Digest, p. 10, and Appendix XXI. (2) Digest, p. 9. (3) Digest, p. 16, and Appendix LXXXIV. (4) Digest, p. 9. (5) Digest, p. 16. (6) Digest, p. 9, Appendix I and II.

[§ 617.] With these ends in view, it has organised the existing societies, first in the union itself; secondly, in sections of the same; and, thirdly, in sub-sections, called district associations. The latter generally consist of about 30 societies, situated within easy distance of one another, and they hold quarterly conferences, at which papers are read, and subjects affecting the welfare of the movement are discussed, while the union as a whole, convenes annually a congress of representatives from all the societies in its membership. These congresses are held in the district belonging to each of the various sections in town. Members of the Union are pledged, in the conduct of their business transactions, to keep in view the following principles:—First, the abolition of all false dealing, whether directly by representing any article produced or sold to be other than it is known by the producer or vendor to be, or, indirectly, by concealing from the intending purchaser any fact material to his ability to judge the value of the article he proposes to purchase. Secondly, the conciliation of the conflicting interests of capitalist, worker, and purchaser, by an equitable division among them of the fund commonly known as profit. Thirdly, the prevention of the waste of labour that results from unregulated competition.

Its legislative programme and Parliamentary Committee.

618. For the purpose of pressing upon the Legislature the demands it appears from time to time expedient to make, the Co-operative Union has started a Parliamentary Committee on the same lines as the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Unions.(1) This committee is at the present time engaged in promoting the following measures:—(*a.*) The amendment of the Factory Acts in such a way as to destroy "sweating." This result, the witnesses thought, might be obtained by abolishing domestic workshops, by the transfer of the patronage of public bodies from "sweating" to co-operative firms and by causing Government departments to divide their contracts into two parts, one for material and the other for labour, so as to enable workmen's co-operative associations, with small capital to take them up. The last mentioned policy, Mr. Maxwell (2) stated, had been adopted by the Italian Government, with the direct object of encouraging co-operation, and also by the Glasgow Town Council in respect of policemen's clothing. (*b.*) A Bill(3) relating to the purchase of leasehold enfranchisements. (*c.*) A Bill to abolish property qualifications in the election of public bodies. (*d.*) The amendment of the provisions of the Food and Drugs Act relating to the sale of patent medicines. (*e.*) The amendment of the Industrial and Provident Societies Act in certain points, especially by the repeal of section 9, which limits the amount of share capital each member may hold to 200*l.* In addition to its work in connexion with the legislature, the Parliamentary Committee(4) has appointed four of its members to act conjointly with a similar number appointed by the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Unions, for the purpose of acting as mediators in disputes between co-operative societies and their trade unionist workmen, but the investigation of the mutual relations of the co-operative and the trade unionist movements must be preceded by an examination of the evidence relating exclusively to the latter.

Trade unions: their number, finances and characteristics.

619. Trades Unions, said Mr. Brabrook, are registered(5) under the special Acts applying to them. Employers' associations fall within the definition of a trade union contained in the Act of 1876, and can claim registration accordingly. Wherever branches are registered separately, they are treated as separate unions. The total number of registered unions is 493. The number making returns is 320. Of the rest, 66 are not yet liable to make returns, and steps are being taken to recover penalties from the remaining 107. During the past two years, 201 trade unions have been registered, whereas the total registration for the 19 preceding years was only 533 or an average of 28 per annum. Mr. Giffen(6) informed the Commission that, according to the latest returns, the aggregate membership of trades unions was 871,000, out of a total working population of 13,200,000, that their aggregate annual income was nearly 1,200,000*l.* or 27*s.* 6*d.* per member, and that the average individual income of each member was about 70*l.* per annum, the average income of each adult male in the United Kingdom being 60*l.* Mr. Brabrook(7) deplored the non-inclusion of trade unions under the Friendly Societies Act, on the ground that it was objectionable to allow them the benefit conferred by section 4 of the Trade Union Act of 1876, which forbids their members from suing them for breach of contract if they expend funds originally destined for benefits in strikes. On the other hand, it was pointed out by Mr. Ludlow(8) that trade unions, unlike friendly societies, did not make, and could not fairly be expected to make, the provision of sick, old age, and other friendly society benefits, their primary function. Their principal object, he contended, is, and ought to be, to maintain and advance the condition of the labourer, as such, in a particular employment, and though the use of that portion of their funds, originally set aside for benefits, for ordinary trade union purposes might sometimes cause great hardships, it should not be prohibited by law. The funds for management, benefits, and trade purposes cannot, he added, be kept entirely distinct, because, in case of a trade dispute, failure to amalgamate them may cause a defeat sufficiently overwhelming to ruin the union. Of course, if a union explicitly states in its rules that it will appropriate a certain portion of its funds to benefits, the undertaking must be carried out, but the enactment of such a rule is a very dangerous step for a Union to take. Members should recognise the fact that there must always be a certain element of uncertainty about the friendly society benefits granted by trades unions, although their secondary function of paying these benefits does serve the useful end of moderating their action in pursuit of their main object. The fact of registration is not equivalent to a Government guarantee that a Union is solvent and will appropriate its funds in a particular manner. Many labourers, no doubt, think it is, but it would be unadvisable to deny the unions the benefits resulting from registration, simply in order to prevent such misunderstanding. The time may come when members of trade unions will express a desire for power being given to the public authority to interfere with the appropriation of their funds, but it would be dangerous to give such power at the present moment when trades unions are dearer to the heart of the working class than any other form of association. In any case, it must be borne in mind that trade union officials can utilise the funds entrusted to them only in accordance with their rules, and the rules represent very fairly the views of the members.* [§ 619.]

Their policy its nature and results.

620. From the evidence given by Mr. Ludlow, in fact, it would appear that, whereas friendly societies are organisations for thrift, trade unions are essentially organisations for wages. From the evidence given by Sir Thomas Farrer(1), it appears further, what is the nature and what is the result of the policy which a desire to raise wages has led trades unions to adopt. According to this witness, the essence of that policy is protection, both national and local. National, because the more our foreign trade extends, the more difficult do the unions find it to make their control of wages effective, and local, because the more they restrict the area of competition, the more easy do they find it to acquire that control. The attitude of trade unions towards foreign trade has already been dealt with in connexion with State and Municipal Employment (paragraph 548) and their protective policy in respect of local industries is illustrated by the actions of their representatives on the London County Council. On one occasion, Sir Thomas Farrer said, the Bridges Committee recommended the Council to accept a London tender for a ferryboat, in preference to a tender made by a Glasgow firm, on the ground that it was "the first duty of the "Council, having regard to the depressed condition of "labour in London at the present time, to give to London "firms what work can reasonably be so given, in preference "to sending it to be done outside." In this instance, however, the Council disregarded the recommendation of its committee, and the order went to the Clyde. Again, on the 13th of December 1892, Mr. Burns moved the following resolution, amending a former resolution passed in 1889:—"That all contractors be compelled to sign a declaration "that they pay the *London* Trades Union rates of wages, "and observe the hours and conditions of labour recog-"nised by the *London* Trades Unions." As was pointed out at the time, the effect of this resolution would be to exclude all country contractors from competition, and an amendment was carried omitting the word "London" and substituting for the words after the word "recognised," the words "and in practice obtained by the trades unions "in the place or places where the contract is executed." Even in its amended form, the resolution has the effect of obliging the ratepayers of London to pay a larger price for their work than they need. Such, then, being the protective nature of the policy which the desire to raise wages has led trades unions to adopt, it remains to consider its results. On this point, also, it is necessary to turn for information to the evidence given by Sir Thomas Farrer in reference to the London County Council. By a series of resolutions, he said(2), passed between October, 1890, and

(1) Digest, p. 14. (2) Digest, p. 12. (3) Digest, p. 14. (4) Digest, pp. 14 and 27. (5) Digest, p. 37, and Appendix LVI., LVII., and LVIII. (6) Digest, p. 43. (7) Digest, p. 37. (8) Digest, p. 37.

* Since the evidence here summarised was given, an Act has been passed, intituled the Trade Union (Provident Funds) Act, 1893, which exempts the funds applied solely for benefits from income tax.

(1) Digest, p. 24. (2) Digest, p. 25, and Appendix CXXXIX.–CXLI.

[§ 620.] November, 1892, the London County Council has abolished overtime and limited the working week of its employés in the parks, gardens, and open spaces to six days, except in cases of absolute necessity, and since the natural effect of this would be to reduce the sums earned, it has increased the rates of wages to an extent sufficient to cause an addition to the wage-bill of between 5,000*l.* and 6,000*l.* a year. In so doing, the Council has adopted the principle of a minimum rate of 6*d.* per hour, without reference to the value of the work performed. It is the ambition of the Council to take over the management of a great many large undertakings in which a vast amount of labour is employed. But if, in taking them over, it is to increase its wage-bill in respect of them to the same extent as it has done in the case of the parks, &c., the additional expense will more than counterbalance whatever economies will be effected by the amalgamation of staffs and the suppression of official salaries and directors' fees. In short, desiring by its example to raise wages throughout the industrial world, the London County Council has adopted a policy that would involve a private firm in bankruptcy, and in defiance of the fact that both wages and profits must ultimately be paid out of the produce, and that it is only by increasing production that wages can be permanently and universally raised. In other words, it is impossible to divide a shilling amongst 12 men in such a way as to give 2*d.* to each.

The old and the new trade unionism.

621. Much has as been made of the distinction between what is called the old and the new trades unionism, the unionism of the artisan and the unionism of the unskilled labourer, it has not been found possible to extract from the evidence any such clear and full account of the origin and nature of that distinction as was found to be possible in the case of the similar, and, in some respects, corresponding, distinction between consumers' and producers' co-operation. Indeed, it appears from the evidence of Mr. Fenwick,[1] representing the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress, that the two kinds of unionism, unlike the two kinds of co-operation, are not divided by a difference of principle at all. It is, perhaps, possible to trace a certain difference of policy, such as a greater tendency to strikes and a greater belief in the efficacy of legislative interference among the unions of the labourers as contrasted with the unions of the artisans, but this difference of policy would seem to be due to a difference in circumstance rather than to a difference in aim.

The Trade Union Congress.

622. It certainly does not imply a difference in general organisation. The Trades Union Congress is attended by trades unions of both classes alike, and every year formulates a programme, which may be taken as embodying their collective policy. This congress, said Mr. Fenwick,[2] was first convened at Manchester, in 1868, and has met every year since, except 1870. Its first assembling was occasioned by two circumstances. The first was the appointment, in 1867, of a Royal Commission "to inquire "into the organisations and rules of trades unions and "other associations, whether or workmen or of employers, "and into the effects produced by such unions and "associations on workmen and employers respectively, and "on their mutual relations, and on the trade and industry "of the country." The second was the awkward position in which trades unions found themselves placed by certain judicial decisions, pronounced during the same year, to the effect that all combinations that were in restraint of trade were criminal, and that societies having rules enabling them to act in restraint of trade could hold no property, even for benevolent and charitable purposes. The first congress was attended by 34 delegates, representing 118,367 members, and its success encouraged its promoters to convene a second at Birmingham in the following year, which was attended by 48 delegates, representing an aggregate membership of 250,000. Among the chief subjects considered by this congress was the unprotected state of trades union funds. Such questions as piece-work, overtime, protection of miners, conciliation and arbitration, and the necessity for a system of national education were also discussed, and the question of labour representation in Parliament was first declared at this congress as a distinctive policy of the unions. In 1874, the miners of Northumberland gave practical shape to this policy by electing Mr. Thomas Burt member for Morpeth. No congress was held in 1870, but, in 1871, the third meeting took place in London, when 50 delegates were present, representing a membership of 289,430. It was at this meeting that a Parliamentary Committee of five persons (afterwards increased to 11, including the secretary) was first appointed to prepare legislation, and take such action as the congress might from time to time determine. The fourth congress was held in the town of Nottingham in January 1872. The three previous meetings had been held in the months of March, June, and August; but it was deemed advisable, on the occasion referred to, for the congress to meet in January, so as to be ready with a programme of work for the ensuing sesson of Parliament. The committee elected at Nottingham were instructed to prepare standing orders for the government of future congresses, and thereby permanency was given to an institution which, so Mr. Fenwick intimated, has been not inappropriately termed the "Parliament of Labour." The next meeting took place at Leeds, in 1873, and the questions considered were compensation for injuries to workmen and the Mines Regulation and Arbitration Acts of the previous year. The Sheffield Congress, in 1874, dealt chiefly with the Criminal Law Amendment Act of 1871, the Masters and Servants Act of 1867, the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, the Trade Union Act of 1871, and the necessity for an amendment of the Factory Acts. The questions considered by each succeeding congress, since the meeting in Glasgow in 1875, have been very similar with the exception of that held in 1888, at Bradford, where an important debate took place on the subject of a legal eight hours' day for all workers, and, since then, this question has continued to excite more interest in the congress' debates than any other subject it has to consider. At the Glasgow Congress, in 1892, the following order was made, which will have the effect of altering the basis of representation for the future:—"Trade societies, by what- "ever name they shall be known, shall be entitled to one "delegate for every 2,000 members, or fraction thereof, "provided always that they have paid 1*l.* for every 1,000, or "fraction thereof, and 1*l.* for every additional 1,000 or frac- "tion thereof, towards the expenses of the Parliamentary "Committee for the past year, and 10*s.* for their delegates' "fees. Trade councils, or like organisations, made up of a "number of branches or trades, shall only send represen- "tatives and be called upon to subscribe as aforesaid, for "those members that are not directly represented through "their own respective trades or associations." It is further enacted that delegates must be members of the trades they represent. The duties of the Parliamentary Committee are to watch all legislative measures directly affecting the interests of labour, to initiate, whenever necessary, such legislative action as the congress may direct, or as the exigencies of the time and circumstances may demand, and to discharge special functions, such as the conduct of the *plebiscites*, &c., which the congress may from time to time determine. The principal measures that the Committee is, at the present moment (January, 1893,) principally engaged in promoting are the amendment of the Employers Liability and the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Acts, and the limitation of the hours of labour. In regard to the Employers Liability Act, the Parliamentary Committee has received instructions to endeavour to secure the abolition of the doctrine of common employment, and of contracting out of the Act, and the extension of the Act to seamen. In regard to the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, the Committee has been instructed to secure verbal definition of the term "intimidation" which shall include only such intimidation as would justify a justice of the peace, on complaint being made to him, in binding over the person so intimidating to keep the peace. In regard to the limitation of the hours of labour, the instructions are as follows:—"That the Parliamentary Committee "promote a Bill regulating the hours of labour to eight "per day, or 48 per week, in all trades and occupations "except mining, which Bill shall contain a clause enabling "the organised members of any trade or occupation, pro- "testing by ballot against the same, to be exempted from "its provisions." The exception as to miners was introduced, because they did not want the provisions of the Bill they were promoting on their account to be tacked on to a Bill relating to other industries. Steps have been taken to insure the resolutions about to be submitted to the congress coming before the Parliamentary Committee six weeks before the meeting, thus making it possible to place such resolutions before the branches previously to the election of delegates.

[§ 622.]

Mutual relations of working men's organisations.

623. The foregoing examination of the evidence relating to trades unions completes the review which it has been found possible to obtain of each of the four classes of workmen's organisations considered separately. But before concluding the section of which they collectively form the subject, it remains to discover what information the evidence affords as to their mutual relations. From what has already been stated, it appears that all these organisations have for their object in some form or other the pecuniary benefit of the workman, but that each pursues this object in a different manner. Thus, friendly societies may be defined as organisations for insurance, building

[1] Minutes of Evidence, 7313-9. [2] Digest, p. 26.

[§ 623.] societies as organisations for investment, co-operative societies organisations for profits, and trades unions as organisations for wages. Of these, the two first may be classed together as organisations for savings, and contrasted with the two last, which may be described jointly as organisations for earnings. From the evidence given by Messrs. Mann and Hyndman as to the relative advantages of expenditure and thrift (and already summarised in paragraph 508, relating to the effect of thrift upon wages) it would seem as if there existed a certain antagonism between these two classes. On taking each class separately, for the purpose of comparing the two groups of which each is composed, it will be found that concerning the relations between the friendly and the building societies, no evidence was given. It only remains, therefore, to examine the evidence dealing with the relations between the co-operative societies and the trades unions.

Relations between co-operative societies and trade unions.

624. Considerable light will be thrown upon the meaning of that evidence by presenting it in connexion with what has gone before. In the case of the co-operative societies it has been seen that, although originally intended for the benefit of the producers, their most successful practical development has been on the lines of societies for the benefit of the consumers only, and that a sharp conflict of interests has sometimes arisen between them and the trades unions which represent their workpeople. Indeed, the establishment of a Joint Board of Conciliation by the two Parliamentary Committees, though referred to by Mr. Fenwick(1) as indicating the friendly footing on which the conflict is being conducted, is in itself a clear proof that the conflict exists. And, though it has also been seen that this conflict is solved in the case of co-partnership societies, by securing for the workpeople a share in the profits, the co-operative organisation still remains essentially an organisation for profits, and, as such, in theoretical opposition to trades unionism, the organisation for wages. To raise wages, said Mr. Mitchell, is the function of trades unionism; co-operation seeks only to increase the purchasing power of the wages received.(2) At the same time, it must be noticed that the representatives of all phases of the co-operative movement gave a most emphatic denial to the assertion sometimes made that it is the policy of co-operators to increase the fund of profits at the expense of wages. Thus Mr. Mitchell stated that the Committee of a Co-operative Society, in their capacity of working men, set their faces against any cheapness which might be obtained by paying low wages(3), and it appears to be a general rule that co-operative societies should pay the trades union rates of wages, or in some cases even above those rates(4). And on the other hand it is admitted by the co-operators that the trades unions have usually adopted a friendly and conciliatory attitude towards their societies(5). Seeing, however, how fundamental a difference exists between the aims of the two movements, it is not surprising to find their representatives enunciating economic policies, each the direct contrary of the other. Thus, Mr. Maxwell(6) said: It would be a great advantage to entirely supersede the wages system by the system of profit-sharing, under which the worker is responsible, not only for his labour, but also for the extraction of a profit out of that labour. *It* earned under the latter system would be more valued by an intelligent man than the same sum earned without risk in the form of wages. On the other hand, Mr. Mann(7) said: Provided that the workmen desired it, the complete elimination of all profit and interest would be no bad thing; there is no reason to suppose that it would have a bad effect upon the prosperity of national industry. But what does seem at first sight surprising is to find co-operators and trade unionists combining to prophesy the ultimate cohesion of the two movements, and to make a common proposal with that end in view. The proposal is that the funds of trade unions, which at present can be lent only on such security as their trustees are authorised by law to accept, should be made available for investment in the productive enterprises promoted in connexion with the co-operative movement. And, what is still more surprising, is that the making of this joint proposal is not accompanied by a surrender on the part of either organisation of a single one of its original pretensions. The representatives of each still entertained the desire, even though they abandoned the hope, of a future absorption by their own movement of the entire industry of the country to the logical extinction of the other, and, in making the above proposal, were careful to explain the nature of the mental reservations with which they made it. Thus, Mr. Maxwell(8) said: The proposal as to the investment of trade union funds in co-operative productive enterprises is made in the interests of both unionism and co-operation alike. Unionists would gain the co-operators' knowledge of the employers' side of the case, and strikes would in consequence be prevented and mitigated, while co-operators would find in the number and ubiquity of the unionists a means of effecting a rapid and immediate advance towards their main object—the control of the industry of the country. And Mr. Mitchell(1): There would be no objection to the amendment of the Trades Union Acts in such a manner as to admit the investment of union funds in productive co-operative enterprises. Such permission, however, should, if granted, be utilised with the greatest caution, in view of the importance, too apt to be underrated, of avoiding the risk of such funds in undertakings where success is as yet uncertain. Mr. Mann,(2) moreover, speaking from the trade union point of view, while extending a warm welcome to the productive co-operative societies, which he hoped would rise up to compete with syndicates that traded unfairly, and while approving most heartily(3) of the principle of profit-sharing, and still more heartily of the principle of industrial partnership, the two principles on which co-operative production is worked, qualifies his approval in words to the following effect: The process of the introduction of both these principles, however, incidentally involves a tendency to lift the section of men to whom they are applied out of the ranks of the general army of labour, and so to hinder the progress of the movement which it is desirable to accelerate. In these circumstances, therefore, it seems necessary to examine the evidence with a view to discovering why a proposal so unanimously qualified was so unanimously made. The explanation which appears most probable is confirmed by the following passages. The first is that in which Mr. Maxwell,(4) after expressing the wish before referred to for the complete substitution of profit-sharing for wages as a method of industrial remuneration, says: At the same time, the workers are not yet willing to run the risk of allowing the wages system to be entirely superseded. The second is that in which Mr. Mann,(5) while pleading for the complete elimination of profits, states: The arbitrary fixing of rates of wages by Parliament, even at a high figure, and with the direct intention of transferring a portion of the profits to the pockets of the workers, is not desired by the large though diminishing majority of the workers that think it undesirable to destroy profits altogether. And the third is that in which Sir Thomas Farrer(6) says: Members of trades unions have hitherto been taught to look upon themselves too much in the light of producers, but there are signs, such as their repudiation of the action of their leaders in approving of the Sugar Convention, that they are learning from their co-operative societies to look upon themselves as consumers as well. Reading these passages together, therefore, and connecting them with what has gone before, it appears impossible to doubt that the policy of alliance between the co-operative and trade union organisations is the policy of the workman himself, who perceives that both movements are serving his interests, and is determined to utilise both of them.

(1) Digest, p. 27. (2) Digest, p. 8. (3) Minutes of Evidence, 260, 363. (4) Minutes of Evidence, 245, 437, 527, 976-979, 1139. (5) Minutes of Evidence, 79, 238-242, 449. (6) Digest, p. 12. (7) Digest, p. 19. (8) Digest, p. 12.

(1) Digest, p. 8. (2) Digest, p. 17. (3) Digest, p. 19. (4) Digest, p. 12. (5) Digest, p. 19. (6) Digest, p. 24. (7) Digest p. 33.

[§ 624.]

3. CONCILIATION, ARBITRATION, AND MEDIATION.

Conciliati arbitratio and medi tion: hov they are related.

625. From a general view of the entire evidence given before the Commission, it would appear that conciliation, arbitration and mediation constitute collectively the only possible alternative to strikes as a method of settling disputes. Relatively to each other, however, it would appear that they are not so much alternative as complementary. The mediator brings the parties together, and so makes conciliation possible, and the conciliation board refers to the arbitrator the issue which it has proved itself incompetent to decide. But mediation that does not result in conciliation is a failure, and arbitration that does not issue from conciliation is powerless.

How far they are effectual popular.

626. Such, then, being the nature of the device which organisation has created for avoiding the industrial warfare that gave it birth, it is necessary to examine the evidence with a view to discovering how far it is effectual and popular, and how it can best be utilised. It was the opinion of Mr. Allan,(7) of the firm of Messrs. Allan and Co., marine engine builders, Sunderland, that it was neither effectual nor popular. There is great confidence in some quarters, he said, that arbitration and conciliation will effectually deal with all labour differences. So far, however, neither method has completely won the favour of the workmen. Arbitration, indeed, they invariably mistrust, for they imagine, and often rightly, that the arbitrator is not sufficiently practical to enter into all the bearings of the questions submitted to him, and that,

[§ 626.] being chosen from the educated and professional class, he is more likely to be biased, consciously or unconsciously, against them than in their favour, and the result is that they seldom accept an adverse decision contentedly. With conciliation boards, he went on to say, the same objection holds good, though to a less degree. While it would doubtless be very difficult to suggest a better method of settling disputes than by a means of a board whose members possessed power to bind their constituents, yet it is very problematical whether any momentous difference would be entrusted to a body of delegates, or whether, if it were so entrusted to it, an adverse decision would be acquiesced in. The men are very reluctant to leave the settlement of a far reaching dispute on the hands of a few delegates, who may be over-ruled owing to a certain want of skill in argument and in the deep ways of bargaining. Not only are conciliation and arbitration in but scant favour with workmen generally, he added, but they are also impossible to work properly, as things are at present constituted, owing to the absence of any means of furnishing arbitrators or boards with adequate *data* on which to found their decisions. To be of any service, such *data* must include a knowledge of the average profits of the employers in the trade, and this is precisely the information which employers object to furnish, even to their own associations,—associations lacking the essential element of identity of interest which the organisations of the men possess.

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627. On the other hand, Mr. S. B. Boulton,(1) senior partner in the firm of Burt, Boulton, and Haywood, chemical manufacturers, and member of the Council and Executive Committee of the London Chamber of Commerce, gave the following account of the origin and working of the London Labour Conciliation Board established by that body, which tended to show that arbitration and conciliation might be made both popular and effective as well. During the great dock strike of 1889, he said, the Council of the Chamber of Commerce received a vast number of applications to arbitrate, and was induced in consequence to appoint a committee to consider the practicability of establishing a permanent court to deal with such cases. As the result of 18 months' inquiry, the London Labour Conciliation Board(2) was formed on the following lines:—There is absolute equality of representation between employers and employed, and at any meeting of the board the number of representatives of each party voting must be the same. For the election of the men's representatives all the metropolitan trades unions in membership, some 60 in number, are classified in 12 groups. Each union in each group appoints a delegate, and the delegates elect a representative for the group. The 12 persons thus chosen serve on the board in conjunction with 12 employers' representatives nominated by the Chamber of Commerce. Four extra members, viz., the Lord Mayor or his nominee, the chairman of the London County Council or his nominee, and two others appointed by the labour representatives already elected, make up the full board of 28. The large number of trades unions that support a board established by the employers is a most striking and encouraging fact. The functions of the board are defined as follows:—"To promote amicable methods of settling "labour disputes and the prevention of strikes and lock-"outs generally, and also especially in the following "methods:—They shall, in the first instance, invite both "parties to the dispute to a friendly conference with each "other." "In the event of the disputants not being able "to arrive at a settlement between themselves, they shall "be invited to lay their respective cases before the board." "Or, should the disputants prefer it, the board would "assist them in selecting arbitrators." "The utmost "efforts of the board shall in the meantime, and in all "cases, be exerted to prevent, if possible, the occurrence "or continuance of a strike or lock-out." "The London "Conciliation Board shall not constitute itself a body of "arbitrators except at the express desire of both parties to "a dispute, to be signified in writing, but shall in prefer-"ence, should other methods of conciliation fail, offer to "assist the disputants in the selection of arbitrators chosen "either from its own body or otherwise. Any dispute "coming before the board shall, in the first instance, be "referred to a conciliation committee of the particular "trade to which the disputants belong." "To collect "information as to the wages paid and other conditions "of labour prevailing in other places where trades or "industries similar to those of London are carried on, and "especially as regards localities, either in the United "Kingdom or abroad, where there is competition with the "trade of London. Such information shall be especially "placed at the disposal of any disputants who may seek "the assistance of the London Conciliation Board." At first, the board(1) decided never to interfere in a dispute unless application were made to it, but, after some experience, it was found expedient to issue invitations couched in identical terms to both parties. The board adopts both the method of conciliation, which includes all cases where its functions stop short of the actual issue of an award, and the method of arbitration, whereby an award is issued. In the latter case, it expects the contending parties to sign an agreement promising to abide by its decision. Of cases where the former method has sufficed, a good example is furnished by the dispute that took place at Oliver's Wharf(2) in consequence of the refusal of the men to handle goods destined for Hay's Wharf, where a strike was proceeding. A large number of men were locked out in consequence, and their leaders, Messrs. Mann and Tillett, applied to the board to secure their restoration to work. After some difficulty, the proprietors of Oliver's Wharf were persuaded to meet the men's representatives at the Chamber of Commerce, where the whole matter was discussed. From the first, it was evident that the men were in the wrong, because a large number of them, being weekly servants, had broken an existing contract, a fact which Messrs. Mann and Tillett were willing to admit. Under the influence of the board, however, an agreement was signed by both parties, whereby the men undertook that their refusal to deal with goods on the ground of their connexion with boycotted wharves should not be repeated, and the employers that they would reinstate as many men as they still had vacancies for. Another example of a dispute settled by conciliation through the agency of the board was one in which the parties concerned were the United Bargemen's and Watermen's Protection Society of the Medway(3) and the Cement Manufacturers' Association of the Medway. Trade had improved, and the men applied for an advance in wages. Some advance the masters were willing to concede, but no agreement could be made as to its amount, and a strike of considerable magnitude seemed imminent, which would have thrown out of work, not only all the cement bargemen on the Medway, but also a large number of the men employed at the cement works. In this case, it was the employers who made application to the board. Formal invitation was accordingly issued both to the union officials and to the committee of the Masters' Association, and a meeting took place at the Chamber of Commerce. First of all, it seemed impossible to make any progress, but after a while, and by dint of a little mutual good humour and passing over some of the more contentious points, about half the list of articles in dispute was got through before 11 p.m., when an adjournment took place. At the next meeting the whole list was disposed of, and an agreement was signed by both parties, containing a clause to the effect that no alteration should take place in the rates then fixed without three months' notice. After a year had elapsed, however, trade got a good deal worse again, and the employers wished to have a reduction. So they called the men together, and the list was revised and a fresh agreement drawn up. Unfortunately, the employers refused, on this occasion, to sanction the insertion of a clause requiring three months' notice, and the result was that, upon the next decline of trade, the agreement was broken. Of the action of the board in the direction of arbitration two examples may be given. The first is furnished by the dispute that took place about 18 months ago between the Amalgamated Society of French Polishers, (4) and Messrs. Brinsmead, the pianoforte manufacturers, concerning wages, and as to whether payment should be made by the day or by the piece. The board suggested the method of conciliation, but, as both parties wished for arbitration, it appointed three persons to arbitrate. Of course, it would have been open to the disputants to have made the appointment themselves, but they preferred to leave the task to the organising committee. The arbitrators decided "that the system of piece-work be continued "at Messrs. Brinsmead's manufactory, provided that the "payment for the same be fixed upon the new and "increased scale of prices agreed upon on the 14th of "October 1890." This award was accepted by both parties, and has been in operation ever since. Another case of arbitration arose out of a dispute between the Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Thames,(5) and the firm of Messrs. Francis & Co., Limited, cement manufacturers. A number of questions were involved as to freights, "lay-by" money, &c., and the board, on having its invitation to intervene accepted, recognised the necessity of referring the matter

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(1) Digest, p. 31. (2) Rules and Bye-laws of the London Conciliation Board, and Appendix LXXV. and LXXVI.

(1) Digest, p. 31. (2) Appendix LXXVIII. (3) Appendix LXXIX. (4) Appendix LXXX. (5) Appendix LXXXI.

[§ 627.] to persons possessed of technical knowledge. It, accordingly, appointed as arbitrators three working men and employers connected with the industry, but not concerned in the dispute. The award they issued was accepted by both parties, and has ever since continued in operation. Hitherto, the arbitrators, appointed by the board from time to time, have always come to unanimous agreements as to the terms of their award, but, if they ever fail to do so, some provision will have to be made for the appointment of an umpire. No such provision, however, at present exists, and the chairman has no casting vote. The persons appointed to arbitrate should, as far as possible, be connected with the trade which the dispute concerns. It is sometimes difficult to find persons exactly answering to this description who are at the same time disinterested, but it is generally possible to obtain men possessing a sufficient technical knowledge, even though not immediately connected with the trade in question. Cardinal Manning and Lord Brassey, both of whom have had considerable experience as arbitrators in trade disputes, have expressed a preference for the appointment of persons acquainted with the trade in question rather than of absolute outsiders. It would not be possible to give third parties, even when directly interested in the issue of the struggle, any actual *locus standi* on boards of conciliation or arbitration, but the mere existence of such a board serves to protect their interests by making the party to the dispute refusing to submit to its decision as their enemy. Scarcely a week passes without some application being made to the board. In some cases it does not succeed in bringing the parties together, in others it succeeds in bringing them together but cannot make them agree, but only in a few cases does it fail to secure a settlement either by conciliation or by arbitration. In addition to the central board, it is part of the scheme to eventually set up separate committees in connexion with each of the metropolitan trades, but, at present, very little progress has been made in this direction, because disputants show a marked preference for the central board. Last summer, there was a congress of the Chambers of Commerce of the whole empire, which passed following resolution in favour of the establishment of boards of conciliation:—
" Resolved that this frequent recurrence of labour disputes
" has caused and is causing great damage to the commercial
" and manufacturing interests of the empire. That it is
" extremely desirable, in the best interests both of employers
" and of employed, that the re-adjustment of the rates of
" wages and of the conditions of labour, which from time to
" time is inevitable, should be brought about without the
" wasteful and calamitous results proceeding from strikes
" and lock-outs. And that this congress strongly recom-
" mends the formation of properly constituted boards of
" labour conciliation and arbitration in all important
" centres of industry and commerce throughout the
" empire." Similar resolutions have been passed at the half yearly meetings of the Associated Chambers of Commence of Great Britain, and boards on the lines of the one established by the London Chamber have been formed, or are in process of formation, in the following towns:—Aberdeen, Bradford, Bristol, Cardiff, Croydon, Derby, Dublin, Dudley, Dundee, Edinburgh, Exeter, Glasgow, Gloucester, Greenock, Grimsby, Halifax, Hull, Keighley, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Morley, Newport (Monmouthshire), Nottingham, Plymouth, Rochdale, Wakefield, Walsall, Wolverhampton, Worcester and Wrexham. In the case of trades spreading over large areas, *e.g.*, railways, mines, &c., there should be special boards for each.

Why the Arbitration Acts have failed.

628. Mr. Boulton(1) also pointed out the complete failure that had attended previous legislation on the subject, and attributed it to the fact that such legislation had proceeded on the principle of setting up arbitration boards as an alternative instead of a complement to the voluntary conciliation boards already in existence. The London Labour Conciliation Board, he said, desires the attention of the Commission to be called to two among the many Acts of Parliament that have been passed for the purpose of facilitating the settlement of labour disputes. These are the Acts of 1867 and 1872. The first is called " An Act to establish Equitable Councils of Conciliation." It does not deal in any way with questions relating to future rates of wages and conditions of employment, but merely with disputes arising out of agreements already existing. It has never been appealed to, and the failure may probably be attributed to the inelasticity of its provisions. For example, it specifies too minutely the composition of the boards, and details certain residential qualifications which would, in certain cases, exclude the men's most trusted leaders. In the Act of 1872, no reference is made to the Act of 1867. The two Acts, indeed, refer to different objects. That of 1867 refers to arbitrations concerning agreements already made, that of 1872 to those concerning the terms of future agreements. The latter has failed, like the former, doubtless because it ignores instead of utilising and strengthening, the boards already established by voluntary effort.

(1) Digest, p. 32.

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Principl on whic future le lation should proceed.

629. The same witness (1) then proceeded to lay down the principles on which, in his opinion, further legislation on the subject should proceed. Future legislation in regard to labour arbitration, he said, should aim at strengthening the hands of voluntary boards by giving each of them, in express terms, the power of summoning witnesses and examining them on oath, and of inflicting money penalties for breach of contracts, such as now belongs to the Conseils de Prud'hommes, in France. A great advantage would result from the transfer of cases of this kind to the boards from the law courts, where the process of justice is comparatively slow and expensive, and where workmen are not represented on the Bench. The power to enforce awards by penalties should be restricted to questions concerning past agreements, for the experience of the past 500 years proves the invariable failure of attempts of outside authorities to settle the terms of such contracts in advance, except, of course, in cases where the acceptance of an award as to a future contract has itself been the subject of a contract made precedent to the arbitration. The proposed method of securing the observance of awards as to future agreements by a law forbidding picketing, even if unaccompanied by intimidation, against men proceeding to work under the terms drawn up by an arbitrator, would be strongly opposed by working men. A Central Arbitration Board established by Government, such as exists in Nova Scotia,(2) would do no good. In fact, it would do positive harm, for it would discourage the formation of the voluntary boards, which, in view of the failure that has invariably attended its past efforts, Government would act much more wisely by supporting than it would by constituting other boards itself. Mr. Tom Mann(3) did not share Mr. Boulton's objection to Government interference, but made suggestions for the constitution of a State Board of Mediation and Arbitration. These suggestions, however, were based upon a recognition of the principle already referred to, that mediation and arbitration, to be successful, must be complementary and not alternative to voluntary conciliation. As Mr. Fenwick(4) stated, the success of arbitration depends upon freedom. Mr. Mann(5) explained his views in words to the following effect: Joint committees of employers and employed should be established. If they failed to agree, appeal should be made to voluntary boards of conciliation established in connexion with the various trades and districts. Inasmuch, moreover, as these boards either fail to effect a settlement or are not formed at all, there should be in the background a Central Board of Mediation established for the whole country in connexion with the Labour Department. This board should be composed of six persons elected by the trades unions and six by the associations of employers, with a Government official to act as umpire. In order to encourage settlement between the parties as much as possible, this board should not be authorised to interfere, even if appealed to by the parties, until an outbreak of hostilities actually took place. Then, on receipt of an invitation from either side, it should arbitrate, but there are practical difficulties in the way of giving it power to enforce awards. If no appeal were made, it should wait for a fortnight, and then should investigate the matter on its own responsibility, and issue, as mediator, a recommendation as to the lines on which the quarrel should be composed, trusting to public opinion to secure the recommendation being carried into effect. The board should act as arbitrator only when appealed to, and only on condition of work being resumed on the original terms pending settlement. The evidence of Dr. Elgin R. L. Gould,(6) representing the Labour Department of the United States of America, as to the functions of Government in regard to labour disputes, affords a direct commentary on Mr. Mann's proposals. In most cases, said Dr. Gould, it would be found better to confine the functions of a labour department to the compilation of statistics. In exceptional cases, indeed, it is advisable for the head of such a department to intervene in a dispute, but he should always be allowed to use his own discretion in so doing, and should not be fettered with any legal obligation in the matter. In no circumstances, moreover, should he be empowered to issue an award. His interference should be limited, as is the case in Colorado and North Dakota, to the task of mediation, that is to say, to the work of a peacemaker without power of adjudication. A parlia-

(1) Digest, p. 32. (2) Appendix LXXXII. (3) Digest, p. 19. (4) Digest, p. 27. (5) Digest, p. 19. (6) Digest, p. 42.

§ 629.] mentary head of a labour department might be tempted to ulilise his authority as arbitrator, if such authority were conferred on him, for the benefit of the class that possessed the greatest influence with the political party for the time being in power. [§ 629.]

C. TRADE DISPUTES.

1. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

partner- p co- rative ieties l their kpeople.

630. Very few of the witnesses made any addition to the evidence given before the committees under this section, and those few were all representatives of the co-operative societies. Generally speaking, the relations between the societies and their workmen were described as good, although, as will be seen hereafter, strikes have sometimes occurred. Such strikes, as might have been expected, seem to have been more frequent in consumers' than in co-partnership societies, where the workers share in both management and profits. Societies of the former class, indeed, claim, according to Mr. Vivian,(1) their representative, to have practically arrived at a complete solution of the conflict between capital and labour. That the workers appreciate the co-partnership system, he said, is proved by the fact that about 200 men have left the service of the English Wholesale Society's Boot and Shoe Works in order to work in the Leicester Co-operative Boot and Shoe Works. No friction exists between co-partnership societies and the trades unions; on the contrary, most of them have trades unionists on their committees of management.

umers' operative ieties l their kpeople.

631. As to the relations of consumers' societies with their employés, the only evidence bearing directly on the subject is that of Mr. Maxwell(2), and he confined his remarks to the case of the Scottish Wholesale Society, of which he is chairman. He said: About 1,800 persons are employed by the Wholesale Society in production and about 300 in distribution. No favouritism is practised in selecting workers from among the total number of persons seeking work. The society aims not so much at increasing its profits as at placing its workpeople in good conditions of employment. In all cases, the full trade union rates are paid, and where no such rates exist, higher wages are given than in private firms. The condition of the workshops is good, and the factory inspector has no improvements to suggest. In the shirt finishing department, no work is given out to be done at home. In order to induce the workpeople to come into the workshops provided by the society, an extra 3*d.* per 1*s.* is paid. There is no absolute rule against the employment of married women, but the managers have been given general instructions to discourage it. The hours follow the trade union rule where such a rule exists. Thus, in the boot and shoe and currying factories, the men work 52 hours per week; in printing, 50; in preserves, 53; in hosiery, 48. In the women's trades where the employés are not members of the Women's Provident and Protective League, which has fixed a number of hours, the hours are limited by the Wholesale Society to 44 per week, although it is permitted under the Factory Acts to work 56½. No half-timers are employed. In cases of sickness, employés of the society in receipt of "upstanding wages," *i.e.*, those that are paid for holidays, but are liable to be called upon to work overtime upon occasion for nothing, receive full wages for the first four and half wages for the four succeeding weeks of illness. These sick allowances are charged as expenses to the department in which the recipients are employed. Facilities are also afforded for enabling workers to buy food on the premises at cost price. The society has also erected for their use recreation rooms, supplied with newspapers and magazines. The necessity for providing old age pensions has not yet arisen, because co-operation has not penetrated down to the class likely to require them. Generally speaking, the relations of the Wholesale Society with its employés are good. Nowhere in Scotland can such regular work be obtained, and the knowledge that the directors are drawn from their own class, and that they themselves, if members of co-operative societies, can, through their delegates, review their policy at the meetings that take place every quarter, gives the workers a feeling of security that is absent in private employments. It is true that, as workers, they have no share in the management, and, in the opinion of the witness, the co operative ideal will not be perfectly realised till they get it. But, unlike the employés of the corresponding English society, they have a share in the profits, and their claim to a share in the management is being pressed upon the attention of the society, in confidence that such a reform would not result in a relaxation of discipline. The presence of workers on the board of management would prevent disputes. In the Paisley Manufacturing Society, at any rate, even the chairman of the board is an employé, and this society has been a great success and has not found discipline at all impaired by its policy in this respect.

(1) Digest, p. 15. (2) Digest, p. 11.

2. SPECIAL STRIKES.

Cost of strikes.

632. It appears expedient to preface this section with certain remarks made by two witnesses, Messrs. Giffen and Ludlow, which may with advantage be borne in mind in connexion with the history of any particular strike to which attention may be directed. Mr. Giffen's remarks referred to the possibility of exaggerating the significance of figures relative to the cost of strikes, and Mr. Ludlow's to the contrary effects which membership of friendly and other benefit societies has upon the desire to resort to them. Mr. Giffen(1) said: Taking all British trades collectively, the aggregate direct loss in wages due to strikes does not amount to one fifth of 1 per cent. of the wages paid annually, although the indirect loss arising from the effect of strikes upon foreign competition, &c. is much more serious. The average duration of a strike, moreover, is about three weeks, and the wages lost for so short a time can, in most cases, be made up for by the end of the year.

Effec of organisation on trade disputes.

633. And Mr. Ludlow said: (2) Membership of friendly societies affects the attitude of workmen towards their employers in two contrary directions. Involving, as it does, an obligation to pay a regular subscription, it both increases their interest in securing high wages, and, at the same time, makes them careful not to engage in conflicts likely to compel them to fall into arrears.

Strike among employés of the English Co-operative Wholesale Society.

634. No really important strikes were discussed by the witnesses. The only disputes that can be treated under this section are those referred to by the co-operative witnesses, and these acquire whatever interest they possess from the fact that they are illustrations of the imperfection of the co-operative solution of the labour question rather than from their possession of any very noteworthy features in themselves. Thus, Mr. Mitchell(3) cited, as an exception to prove a general rule of peacefulness, the case of a strike that occurred at the English Wholesale Society's boot and shoe works at Leicester. According to Mr. Mitchell, this strike was an affair of very little importance. It was, he said, directed solely against an obnoxious foreman, and was soon ended under an amicable arrangement involving a modification of the said foreman's position. According to the views of the Labour Association for Promoting Co-operative Production, however, the men's grievance was much more deeply seated than would appear from Mr. Mitchell's evidence, and a document(4) was forwarded on behalf of that body by Mr. Greening, who had compiled it from statements made by the workers concerned. *Cf.* Appendix on p. 378 refuting Mr. Greening's statement. The information contained in that document may be shortly summarised as follows:—The strike was not against a particular foreman, but against the management as a whole, and was the outcome of grievances of at least 10 years' standing. Some years' ago, the management had initiated the practice of giving out work to contractors that paid less wages than the statement list then in force, and, in order to get that work back, the men had consented to a reduction of the prices in that list on the understanding that no work was for the future to be given out to be done at rates below those in the list then revised. This agreement was nominally adhered to, but the management practically evaded it by sending work to be done at Enderby under a false classification. That is to say, the work which at Leicester would be regarded as first class work, and paid for as such, was given to the Enderby men as second class, and so on right down the list, and the Enderby men, being glad to get the work, made no objection to this arrangement. Whereupon, the management told the Leicester men that they must accept the same classification also, and, on their objecting to do so, threatened to send all the work, the class of which they disputed, to Enderby instead of getting it done in Leicester. The Leicester men then persuaded the Enderby men to ask the same terms as they were demanding for themselves, upon which the management sent one of its representatives to Enderby, promising to grant the request, but with a proviso to the effect that 1*s.* per dozen deduction should be made for carriage, and that the men should engage no boys to help them. Rather than lose the work, the Enderby men consented, whereupon

(1) Digest, p. 43. (2) Digest, p. 37. (3) Digest, p. 8. (4) Appendix CXXXVI.

[§ 634.] the Leicester men struck. Ultimately, however, the management agreed to demand only 6*d.* per dozen to be deducted for carriage, and so the affair ended.

Strikes among employés of the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society.

635. Mr. Maxwell,(1) moreover, recounted the only disputes that the Scottish Wholesale Society had ever had with its workpeople during the past seven years, in words to the following effect: In 1885, he said, a dispute arose in connexion with the boot factory. The society intended making certain classes of boots and shoes that were not enumerated in the Glasgow statement of prices, and the manager, having no precedent to guide him, fixed a price which the men refused to accept. The matter was soon arranged, however, by conference between the manager and a trades union official. Again, in 1888, a small dispute, lasting less than a week, took place in the cabinet making factory. The men were dissatisfied with the adjustment of the prices of certain articles, formerly made by hand, but now by a new machine. The men denied that the said machine did so much work as was claimed for it by the management. In 1890, finally, nine workers struck without notice for a uniform rate of wages instead of the payment according to merit offered by the society. The management were ultimately convinced of the justice of the men's claim, and conceded it. No other dispute has occurred. Mr. Hardern,(2) also, stated that the Oldham societies, being connected with the employers' association in the district, was obliged to assist in combating a general strike that took place in 1885 against a 10 per cent. reduction, lasted 13 weeks, and ended in a compromise involving a fall of 5 per cent. only.

Strikes among employés of co-partnership co-operative societies.

636. The absence of strikes, which the evidence showed to be the distinguishing mark of co-operative institutions generally, is still more conspicuous in the case of the co-partnership societies. Yet, even here, they are not absolutely unknown, although, according to Mr. Vivian,(1) only two have occurred in 23 years. The first, he said, was due to the objection of employés of the Paisley Manufacturing Society to the employment of women, a circumstance also mentioned by Mr. Maxwell(2); and the second took place in connexion with the Eccles Manufacturing Society(3), in April, 1890, but this society is one that does not practise the profit-sharing principle which it professes. [§ 636.]

(1) Digest, p. 11. (2) Digest, p. 14.

3. PICKETING AND INTIMIDATION, AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act: amendment of.

637. Only two witnesses, Messrs. Boulton and Fenwick, gave evidence in regard to the subject of this section. The former(4) observed that the proposed method of securing the observance of arbitrators' awards as to future agreements by a law forbidding picketing, even if unaccompanied by intimidation, against men proceeding to work under the terms of the said award, would be highly unpopular with working men. And the latter(5) informed the Commission that the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress had been instructed to secure a verbal definition of the term "intimidation" in the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, which should include such intimidation only as would warrant a justice of the peace, on complaint being made to him, in binding over the persons so intimidating to keep the peace.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

(1) Digest, p. 15. (2) Digest, p. 10. (3) Digest, p. 15. (4) Digest, p. 32. (5) Digest p. 26, and Appendix CXXVII.

APPENDIX.

ADDITIONAL EVIDENCE REBUTTING STATEMENTS MADE IN APPENDIX CXXXII., CONTAINED IN THE VOLUME, ENTITLED "APPENDIX TO MINUTES OF EVIDENCE TAKEN BEFORE THE COMMISSION AS A WHOLE."*

Co-operative Wholesale Society, Limited,
1, Balloon Street, Manchester,
February 14, 1894.

DEAR SIR,

On page 292 of the Appendix to the Minutes of Evidence taken before the Royal Commission on Labour, there is what purports to be a "statement of case of the "Leicester workers lately on strike at the Wholesale "Society's West-end Boot and Shoe Works," compiled by Mr. Edward Owen Greening.

We may say, in the first place, that the circumstances on which this statement is alleged to be based occurred some seven or eight years ago, the heading "lately on strike" is therefore, to say the least, very misleading.

The statement is simply a reprint of what was published at the time in question, and our present object is to protest against its now being put forward as in any way representative of the actual facts of the case. When the charges contained in the statement were first put forward they were disproved to our complete satisfaction by Mr. Butcher, the manager of our Leicester Shoe Works.

We invited Mr. Greening to come forward and substantiate his statements, and we gave him every facility for doing so, but without effect, and no proofs whatever were produced to, in any way, substantiate the charges he had made.†

We repeat our absolute denial of these charges, and we lodge our emphatic protest against a misleading and one-sided account of an old occurrence being now brought forward as representing a recent state of affairs at our Leicester works.

These statements by Messrs. Greening and Potter have been put in as evidence, without being read before the Commission, and although a general statement was made by Mr. Vivian, in giving evidence, as to the fact that there had been strikes, we had not the slightest idea that a statement of this kind was referred to, otherwise we should have asked for our witnesses to be re-called in order to refute this misleading evidence.

We trust you will be able to give due prominence to this denial and protest in the present or in any future publication that may be issued by the Commission.

Yours truly,
On behalf of the General Committee of the Co-operative Wholesale Society, Limited,
J. BRODRICK,
Accountant.

G. Drage, Esq.,
Secretary, Royal Commission on Labour,
44, Parliament Street,
London, S.W.

* [C. 7063.—III. A.], pages 292-3.

† A pamphlet, issued by the Co-operative Wholesale Society, Limited, in March 1887, entitled "The Leicester Shoe Works. A Statement, &c. . . . . ", has been handed in. This document gives Mr. Greening's statements in question, with replies thereto, in parallel columns.

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(Textiles): (see *Kidderminster*).

Workl Labour Colony: 567.

Workshops: 327, 383, 542, 553. (See also under *Factory and Workshop Acts, Inspection and Sanitation.*)
Domestic Workshops: 132, 338, 339, 342, 355, 505, 527, 549, 556, 618.

Wrexham: 627.
(Iron, &c.): 114.

Wycombe, High (Cabinet-making): 404.

Yarmouth (Public Relief Works): 567.

York:
(Clothing): 325,
(Printing, &c.): 408.

Yorkshire:
(Building, &c.): 435, 484. (See also *Bradford, Hull Leeds.*)
(Clothing): (see *Halifax, Leeds, Pudsey, Sheffield, York*).
(Co-operation): 17.
(Docks): (see *Hull, Kingston-upon-Hull*).
(Engineering): (see *Halifax, Huddersfield, Hull, Keighley, Leeds, Middlesborough, Rotherham, Sheffield*).
(Gas, &c.): (see *Leeds*).
(Iron, &c.): 97, 98, 114, 148. (See also *Bingley, Cleveland, Eastburn, Eston, Hull, Keighley, Middlesborough, Mossley, Rotherham, Sheffield, Skipton.*)
(Mining): 1–8, 14, 17, 19, 25, 27, 33, 35, 40, 41, 43, 45, 47–51, 53, 79, 80 (note), 81, 88, 90. (See also *Barnsley, Cleveland, Lofthouse, Normanton, Thorncliffe.*)
(Miscellaneous): 421, 422, 426, 458, 460, 489, 490, 491, 496. (See also *Halifax, Hull, Leeds*).
(Printing, &c.): 483. (See also *Bradford, Halifax, Holmfirth, Hull, Leeds, Scarborough, Sheffield, York.*)
(Road transport): 230, 234, 288. (See also *Bradford, Huddersfield, Hull, Keighley, Leeds, Sheffield.*)
(Shipbuilding): 107. (See also *Bradford, Goole, Halifax, Hull, Keighley, Leeds, Sheffield.*)
(Shipping): (see *Middlesborough*).
(Textiles): 305, 308, 317, 321, 336, 354, 357, 368, 369, 372–375, 394, 524. (See also *Batley, Bentham, Bradford, Brighouse, Dewsbury, Guiseley, Halifax, Heckmondwike, Horbury, Huddersfield, Keighley, Leeds, Wakefield*).
(Watermen, &c.): (see *Goole, Hull, Humber*).

Young Men's Christian Association Labour Bureau: 565.

Young Persons, Employment of: 132, 135, 337, 340, 352, 470.

PART II. WITNESSES.

[*N.B.* For convenience of reference the term Group D. has been used for the Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole. The Analysis and Précis of Evidence before the Committees are both contained in the Volume of Digest mentioned in Column 2; but the Analysis (*see* Column 5) and Précis (*see* Column 6) of Evidence before the Commission as a Whole are contained in the Index (Indexes, Vol. IV.) and in the Digest respectively.]

Names of Witnesses (Employer and Employed).	Group and Volume of Evidence and Digest.	Interests Represented.	Nos. of Questions in Evidence.	Page in Digest.	
				Analysis.	Précis.
A.					
Abbott, Arthur R. - -	B., I.	International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen.	9,022–9,110	93	38
	B., II.	International Federation of Stewards, Seamen, and Firemen, in refutation of personal statements by Mr. J. Havelock Wilson.	14,698–14,720	164	49
Abbott, John - - -	B., III.	Midland Railway Signalmen as affected by the strike of Goods Guards in 1879.	28,022–28,044	197	57
Adams, George - - -	C., III.	Men in the employ of the London Oil Mills.	31,617–31,707	252	86
Adams, James - - -	C., III.	Mat and Matting Trade Society.	31,787–31,907	252	79
Adamson, Robert Laurence -	B., III.	North Metropolitan Tramways Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Sutherst and Mr. Atkinson.	18,233–18,361	170	21
Allan, William - - - -	D.	Firm of Messrs. Allan and Co., Scotia Engine Works.	6,828–6,872	23	33
Allen, John - - -	C., II.	Master Tailors' Association of Great Britain and Ireland.	14,151–14,269	138	29
Allison, Robert Roberts -	A., III.	Ship Constructive Association, and Shipwrights in Government Dockyards (Chatham Branch).	24,544–24,556	165	60
Allison, William Alfred -	B., I.	London Seamen's Union.	10,781–10,799	97	42
Allman, Isaac - - -	B., II.	Riverside Labour, and Tyne Co-operative Stevedore Company.	11,393–11,523	147	11
Anderson, Alexander - -	A., III.	Ship Constructive Association, and Shipwrights in Government Dockyards (Portsmouth especially).	24,228–24,402	163	57
Anderson, John - - -	D.	Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress.	7,166–7,522	26	27
Anderson, William - - -	B., III.	Dublin United Tramways Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Tyrrell.	28,160–28,213	197	35
Anderton, Thomas - -	C., II.	Operative Plumbers' Association of Great Britain and Ireland.	19,176–19,263	157	43
Anson, Robert - - -	A., II.	British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association.	16,680–16,784	182	53
Armit, Robert Henry - -	B., I.	Free Labour in connection with the National Labour Union.	7,430–7,468	89	28
Atkins, John - - -	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour, and Dock, Wharf, Riverside and General Labourers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	867–1,131	79	10
Atkinson, John - - -	B., II.	Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union.	16,454–16,594	170	68
Atkinson, John Boland - -	A., II.	Government Inspection in East Scotland, Mining District.	18,640–18,814	191	32
Atkinson, Thomas - -	B., I.	Employment under Shaw, Savill and Co.	8,312–8,317	91	40
Aucott, William - -	A., II.	Associated Iron and Steel Workers of Great Britain.	14,753–14,844	177	43
	A., II.	Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board.	15,612–15,654	180	48
B.					
Bagley, William - -	C., III.	Firm of Bagley and Co., Knottingley; and Yorkshire Glass Bottle Manufacturers' Association.	30,069–30,381	245	76
Baird, Robert - - -	A., II.	Lanarkshire Coal Masters' Association.	13,416–13,612	173	30

Names of Witnesses (Employer and Employed).	Group and Volume of Evidence and Digest.	Interests Represented.	Nos. of Questions in Evidence.	Page in Digest.	
				Analysis.	Précis.
Ballantyne, Andrew	B., III.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants (Scotland), and relations with the Scotch Railway Companies.	25,031–25,933	184	58
Ballantyne, Thomas	B., III.	Caledonian Railway Company.	27,489–27,812	194	73
Ballard, Edward	B., III.	London Carmen Trades Union.	17,590–17,811	166	44
Ballard, Frank	C., II.	Kettering Co-operative Boot and Shoe Manufacturing Society.	14,270–14,587	139	22
Bannister, James	C., II.	Leeds Willeyers and Fettlers' Union.	11,851–11,949	132	9
Barham, George	B., I.	Association of Foremen and Clerks at the Docks.	7,334–7,429	89	28
Barker, George	C., I.	Blackburn Weavers' Association.	1,818–1,936	87	10
Bartlett, Thomas	C., III.	Journeymen Butchers' Society (Birmingham).	31,708–31,786	252	72
Bean, Alexander	C., II.	Brechin Factory Workers' Union.	12,204–12,453	133	10
Beasley, John	B., III.	London Cabdrivers' Society, and Hyde Park Co-operative Cab Company.	17,346–17,589	164	36
Beaumont, William Arthur	C., I.	Government Inspection of Woollen and Worsted Trades at Bradford.	9,190–9,337	99	35
Beckford, Edward	B., I.	Employment under Shaw, Savill and Co.	8,411–8,441	92	40
Beckworth, William	C., II.	Leeds Chamber of Commerce, and Board of Conciliation.	15,495–15,643	142	28
Beever, James H.	C., I.	Halifax Trade and Labour Council.	9,758–10,056	100	29
Bell, George Henry	C., III.	Seed Crushers' Branch of the Dockers' Union (Hull).	31,441–31,616	251	85
Bell, Hugh	A., I.	Cleveland Mine Owners' Association.	1,389–1,565	88	14
	A., II.	Cleveland Ironmasters' Association.	14,509–14,648	176	39
Bennett, John	A., I.	Coal Mining at Swanwick Collieries, and Derbyshire Miners' Union.	8,700–8,853	105	35
Beveridge, James	C., II.	Associated Carpenters and Joiners.	17,610–17,811	151	34
Bignold, John Henry	C., I.	Government Factory Inspection (Devon and Cornwall).	10,057–10,306	100	35
Billam, Joseph	B., II.	Piccadilly (Manchester) Branch of the Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association, and Canal Boatmen.	15,329–15,462	167	62
Billington, James	C., I.	Preston Cotton Operatives' Society.	4,726–4,744 4,761–4,781	91	13
Bingley, Vere	B., III.	London General Omnibus Company.	28,214–28,304	198	35
Bird, Albert Anlaby	B., II.	Lightermen and Watermen's Union of the River Humber.	13,631–13,741	157	56
Bird, Stanley G.	C., III.	Central Association of Master Builders (London).	31,966–32,303 32,339–32,334	254	15
Birt, Colonel George Raymond	B., I.	Millwall Docks.	6,893–7,163	88	26
Birtwistle, Thomas	C., I.	North-East Lancashire Weavers' Association, and Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers.	1,182–1,608	86	10
Black, Miss Clementina	C., I.	Employment of Women in London, and appointment of Women Sub-Commissioners.	8,845–8,908	99	45
Blackburn, Thomas	C., III.	Gas Workers and General Labourers' Union (Greenwich Marshes Branch), and South Metropolitan Gas Strike of 1889.	23,702–23,929 24,047–24,217	227	28
Bonser, Arthur Howard	C., II.	Hand-Framework Knitters' Association.	13,314–13,619	136	15
Booth, Charles	B., II.	Dock and Waterside Labour.	11,364–11,392	147	8
	B., III.	Dock and Waterside Labour in London.	24,727–25,030	183	8
	C., I.	Labour and Life of the People in East London, and appointment of Women Sub-commissioners.	8,909–8,961	99	45
	D.	Labour in East London.	5,404–5,801	19	25

Names of Witnesses (Employer and Employed).	Group and Volume of Evidence and Digest.	Interests Represented.	Nos. of Questions in Evidence.	Page in Digest.	
				Analysis.	Précis.
Booth, William	C., I.	Burnley (Cotton) Weavers' Association.	807–1,181	85	8
Boulton, Samuel Bagster	D.	The London Labour Conciliation Board.	4,878–5,038	18	31
Bowall, Jacob	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour (Hay's Wharf).	8,442–8,500	92	41
Bowbrick, Henry	B., II.	Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union.	16,198–16,453	169	67
Bower, Samuel	C., II.	Midland Counties' Hosiery Federation.	12,930–13,185	135	14
Bowerman, Charles William	C., III.	London Society of Compositors.	22,915–23,155	224	56
Boyd, James	C., III.	International Union of Cork Cutters (Glasgow).	31,425–31,440	251	73
Brabrook, Edward William	D.	Friendly Societies Registry.	1,222–1,646	11	35
Brain, Frank William Thomas	A., I.	National Association of Colliery Managers.	6,601–6,709	101	33
Brett, William James	B., II.	South Side Labour Protection League.	14,199–14,334	161	24
Bridgman, J. Henry	C., III.	Central Association of Master Builders (London).	31,966–32,303	255	15
Brien, Frank	B., I.	Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland, and Fish Porters of the Port of London.	1–336 753–866	79	8
Brock, John	C., III.	United Alkali Company.	32,377–32,442 32,482–32,484	255	25
Brooks, Robert William	C., III.	National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers (London Lath-Renders' Branch).	23,333–23,437	226	14
Brooks, William	B., III.	The Drivers' Union, in refutation of statements by Mr. Kingham.	18,527–18,547	172	25
Brough, James	C., II.	Operative Masons' Society of Scotland.	17,812–18,106	152	37
Brydone, John	B., III.	Inspection under the Canal Boats Act.	17,168–17,210	163	14
Bune, John	C., I.	Leeds Board of Conciliation and Brush-makers' Union.	9,515–9,539	99	23
Burgoyne, J. W.	C., I.	Bradford and District Amalgamated Society of Dyers.	9,540–9,679	100	26
Burt, John Mowlem	C., III.	Central Association of Master Builders (London).	31,966–32,303	253	15
Burton, F. B.	C., III.	London Building Trades Committee, in refutation of evidence of Mr. Knox.	32,304–32,376	255	14
Bushill, Thomas William	D.	Profit sharing, with especial reference to experience of firm of T. Bushill and Sons, Printers and Bookbinders, &c., Coventry.	5,893–6,172	20	33
Butcher, James Benjamin	B., II.	Hull Seamen and Firemen's Association.	13,806–13,891	159	42
C.					
Caird, Charles Simpson	A., III.	Ship Constructive Association, and Shipwrights in Government Dockyards (Pembroke Branch).	24,403–24,543	164	58
Calcraft, Sir Henry George, K.C.B.	B., II.	Shipping Department of the Board of Trade, and refutations of statements by Mr. J. Havelock Wilson and by Mr. G. A. Laws.	14,757–14,900	164	51
Caldwell, George	A., I.	South Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Owners' Association, and Colliery Owners of West Lancashire.	5,800–6,109	99	30
Caldwell, Thomas	A., III.	United Journeymen's Brass Founders' Association.	24,557–24,638	165	42
Cameron, Frederick Brough	C., III.	His firm (Coal Merchant); also in refutation of Mr. James O'Connor's Evidence.	27,594–28,033 32,865	237	49
Cameron, William	B., I.	Employment under Shaw, Savill and Co.	8,276–8,311 8,318–8,410	91	40
Campbell, Angus	B., III.	Firm of Solicitors to the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants.	26,072–26,186	187	63
Campbell, George Lamb	A., I.	Central Association for Dealing with Distress caused by Mining Accidents.	8,264–8,359	104	29
Candlish, Joseph John	C., III.	Firm of Robert Candlish and Sons, Seaham Harbour and Londonderry Bottle Company (Glass Bottle Manufacturers and Merchants).	30,069–30,381	246	76

Names of Witnesses (Employer and Employed).	Group and Volume of Evidence and Digest.	Interests Represented.	Nos. of Questions in Evidence.	Page in Digest.	
				Analysis.	Précis.
Carey, John	C., III.	Chemical Workers (Powder Packers).	22,313–22,589	222	24
Carlton, Thomas	A., II.	National Association of Blast-Furnacemen (Cleveland and Durham District).	14,138–14,262	175	37
Carpenter, C. C.	C., III.	South Metropolitan Gas Company.	26,965–26,974	234	44
Carroll, Matthew	B., II.	Corn-porters, and the Contract System at the Surrey Commercial Docks.	13,987–14,014	160	24
Catto, Alexander	C., III.	Federated Union of Operative Bakers in Scotland.	27,544–27,593	237	64
Chadwick, William	B., II.	Mersey Flatmen's Association, and river boatmen.	15,671–15,742	168	63
Chambers, Arthur Marshall	A., I.	South Yorkshire Coal Owners' Association.	8,062–8,138	104	36
Chandler, Francis	C., II.	Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners.	18,107–18,432	153	35
	A., III.	Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners (generally, and Tyne District, in particular), and Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades.	21,968–22,070	146	29
Chapman, William	B., III.	Metropolitan Cab Proprietors' Strike Fund Association, and Hackney Carriage Proprietors' Provident Institution.	19,105–19,234	175	41
Cherry, George Baker	A., III.	United Operative Plumbers' Association of Great Britain and Ireland.	23,339–23,445	154	39
Chibnall, George William	C., III.	Chibnall and Jasper (Wholesale Bakery Establishment).	29,567–29,755	244	70
Clark, Andrew	B., III.	General Railway Workers' Union.	23,397–24,069	180	48
Clarke, George	A., III.	Amalgamated Society of Engineers (general remarks).	23,301–23,305, 23,334–23,338	154	37
Clements, George	A., III.	Labourers in the Ordnance Store Department, Woolwich Arsenal.	23,923–23,995	159	56
Clifton, Joseph	B., III.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants (Birmingham Branch).	24,167–24,365	181	51
Cochrane, Colonel Joseph Bramah	A., II.	South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire Coalmasters' Association and Wages Board.	10,825–11,077	166	7
Cole, John	B., III.	National, Municipal, and Incorporated Vestry Employees' Labour Union.	18,191–18,232	169	46
Colhoun, Robert George	B., III.	Great Southern and Western Railway Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Foreman.	27,261–27,306	193	86
Conacher, John	B., III.	North British Railway Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Andrew Ballantyne and Mr. Paisley.	27,103–27,184	191	69
Conley, James	A., III.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society (Scotland District).	21,210-21,221, 21,225–21,226, 21,239–21,241	142	25
Connel, John	A., II.	Fife and Clackmannan Coal Owners' Association.	13,734–13,912	174	35
Copsey, George	C., III.	General Union of Mill Sawyers in London.	33,533–33,605	260	84
Corbett, Thomas	C., II.	Operative Brickmakers' Society.	19,568–19,734	158	40
Corfield, Frederick Channer	A., I.	Coal Owners of Derbyshire (other than South Derbyshire) and Nottinghamshire.	7,625–7,328	103	34
Cormack, James	B., II.	Shipping Federation (Leith) and Leith Shipowners.	11,663–11,857	148	32
Cornes, Dudley	C., III.	Early Closing Association, in refutation of evidence of Mr. Langford.	33,511–33,532	260	95
Costello, Mortimer	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour, and Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	1,925–2,191	81	11
Coventry, Arthur	A., III.	Firm of Messrs. Smith and Coventry (Engineers and Tool Makers, Manchester).	25,646–25,698	171	48

Names of Witnesses (Employer and Employed).	Group and Volume of Evidence and Digest.	Interests Represented.	Nos. of Questions in Evidence.	Page in Digest.	
				Analysis.	Précis.
Cowell, John	C., I.	Preston Cotton Operatives' Society.	4,725, 4,745 4,760	91	13
Crabbe, Thomas	B., III.	Non-union Cabdrivers.	22,957–23,025	178	43
Creech, George	B., II.	Coalporters (Plymouth).	12,621–12,661	153	20
Cridge, Robert	B., I.	Amalgamated Stevedores' Association.	4,082–4,389	84	17
Cripps, John William	B., I.	Free Labour (Fisher's Wharf).	7,531–7,590	90	30
Cronin, John	A., II.	Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Manufactured Steel Trade of the West of Scotland, and Associated Society of Millmen in Scotland.	15,906–16,366	181	40
Cushen, Henry	C., III.	Metropolitan Grocers and Provision Dealers' Association.	33,305–33,510	259	96
Cuthbertson, Adam	C., II.	Luton Straw-plaiting Industry.	15,214–15,251	141	56
Cuthbertson, William	B., III.	National Scottish Horsemen's Union, and Branches at Greenock and Port Glasgow.	23,026–23,122	178	47
D.					
Darlington, John	C., III.	United Alkali Company (Salt Cake Working).	32,485–32,503	256	25
Darbishire, William Arthur	A., II.	Pen-yr-Orsedd Slate Quarry Company, Limited.	9,038–9,360	161	9
Darby, Maurice Evans	B., I.	Former connection with the Seamen's Union and the Shipping Federation.	10,655–10,747	97	41
Davies, David Evan	A., II.	Cwmaman and other Collieries in the Aberdare and Merthyr Valleys.	11,394–11,639	167	17
Davies, G. J.	C., II.	Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners.	18,107–18,432	153	35
Davies, John Dennis	A., II.	South Wales Iron and Steel Workers' Association (Ebbw Branch).	15,831–15,858	180	49
Davis, Murray	C., III.	Bakers' Society (Cork).	28,768–29,073	241	65
Davis, Richard	C., III.	National Union of Shop Assistants.	30,669–30,905 31,066–31,126	247	89
Dawson, Frederick	B., III.	Londonderry and Lough Swilly Railway Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Foreman.	27,185–27,260	192	85
Day, Edward	A., II.	National Amalgamated Locksmiths' Society.	18,097–18,322 18,358–18,377	189	58
Day, George	B., II.	Lightermen's Society.	14,901–14,985	165	60
Dennington, John	A., I.	Cleveland Mine Owners' Association.	1,326–1,388	88	14
	A., II.	Cleveland Ironmasters' Association.	14,460–14,508	176	39
Dew, George	C., II.	London Building Trades Committee.	17,374–17,609	150	47
	C., III.	London Building Trades Committee, in refutation of evidence of Mr. Knox.	32,304–32,376	255	14
Donaldson, George	B., III.	Amalgamated Tug Boat and Ferrymen's Union.	16,996–17,089	163	11
Donovan, Cornelius	B., I.	Ballast Heavers' Protection Society.	4,534–4,580	84	17
Donovan, James	B., I.	Amalgamated Society of Stevedores.	3,199–3,554	82	14
Downing, John William	C., I.	West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Association (Huddersfield District).	4,782–5,238	91	18
Doxford, William Theodore	A., III.	Firm of Messrs. William Doxford and Sons, Limited (Shipbuilders and Engineers, Sunderland).	26,559–26,615	179	54
Drew, William Henry	C., I.	West Riding of Yorkshire Weavers' Association (Bradford District).	5,377–5,666	92	19
Duff, Daniel	B., III.	London Road Car Company, in refutation of statements.	18,362–18,416	170	23

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				Analysis.	Précis.
Dunlop, David John	A., III.	Firm of David J. Dunlop & Co. (Shipbuilders and Engineers, Port Glasgow).	26,528–26,558	179	52
Dunlop, Robert	A., II.	Blantyre Miners' Association.	10,824 *a–b*	166	23
Duxbury, Thomas	C., III.	Darwen Corporation (Gas Department).	25,925–26,192	231	40
Dyke, Edwin	B., II.	Hyde Park Co-operative Cab Company, and Amalgamated Cab Drivers' Society.	16,595–16,732	171	70
E.					
Earnsby, Albert Edward	B., I.	Free Labour in connection with the Shipping Federation.	5,840–5,972	86	22
Eddy, John	C., III.	Typographical Society (Glasgow).	27,224 27,326	235	60
Edgson, Frederick	B., III.	London General Omnibus Company.	28,214 28,304	198	35
Edwards, Clement	B., I.	Federation of Trade and Labour Unions and Shipping.	8,614–8,932	92	36
Edwards, Thomas	C., III.	United Firemen's, Dippers', and Placers' Association.	30,527–30,668	247	82
Emery, Herbert	C., III.	Staffordshire Operative Bakers.	29,074 29,566	243	66
Emmett, Albert	C., II.	United Operative Bricklayers' Trade, Accident, and Burial Society of Great Britain.	19,264–19,414	157	39
Evans, Isaac	A., I.	Swansea and Llanelly (Coal) Miners' Association.	4,388–4,957	96	23
Evans, William	A., I.	Rhondda (Coal) Miners' Association.	5,521–5,731	98	25
F.					
Fairbairn, Richard Robert	B., I.	Amalgamated Society of Watermen and Lightermen of the Thames.	7,469–7,533 7,869–8,275	89	29
	B., II.		—	–	54
Fairley, William	A., I.	National Association of Colliery Managers.	6,710–6,884	102	33
Falvy, Joseph	B., I.	South Side Labour Protection League and Corn Porters.	2,596–2,794	82	12
Farrer, Sir Thomas Henry, Bart.	D.	London County Council.	7,689–8,085	26	23
Fawcett, Thomas	B., II.	Amalgamated Society of Lightermen and Watermen of the River Humber, and River and Canal Boatmen.	14,986–15,080	166	60
Fenelon, James C.	C., II.	The House-painting and Decorative Industry (Carlow).	16,611–16,681	147	41
Fenwick, Charles, M.P.	D.	Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress.	7,166–7,522	25	26
Findlay, Sir George	B., III.	London and North-Western Railway Company, and Committee of Managers of the Railway Association, in refutation of statements by Mr. Clark and Mr. Clifton.	25,934–26,071	186	53
Fisher, Samuel	B., II.	Cardiff, Penarth, and Barry Coal Trimmers' Association.	12,941–13,010	154	21
Fitzpatrick, Daniel	C., III.	Covent Garden Porters' Union.	31,908–31,965	253	73
Foreman, William	B., III.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants (Ireland), and relations with the Irish Railway Companies.	26,187–26,488	187	79
Forster, Edward Penrose Arnold	C., I.	Bradford Chamber of Commerce, and firm in the woollen trade.	6,400–6,598 9,680–9,757	94	27
	C., II.	Bradford Board of Conciliation.	11,368–11,413 11,696–11,747	131	7
Foster Ernest	A., I.	Durham Cokemen's Association.	2,707–2,834	91	11
Foster, Herbert A.	C., I.	Bradford Chamber of Commerce, and firm of Spinners and Manufacturers of Alpaca, Mohair, Silk, Seals, and Plushes.	6,599–6,760	94	28

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				Analysis.	Précis.
Forwood, The Right Hon. Arthur Bower, M.P.	A., III.	The Admiralty, and Government Dockyards, in refutation of statements by Messrs. Quelch, Clements, Gordon, Twigg, and Rowe.	25,805–26,021	173	62
Fox, Charles - - -	B., III.	Caledonian Railway Company.	27,489–27,812	194	73
Fox, F. A. - - -	A., III.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society, Cardiff District).	21,259–21,372 21,377–21,388	142	25
Freak, Charles - - -	C., III.	London Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Wholesale Boot and Shoe Trade, and Workmen's Association, in refutation of evidence of Mr. Judge and Mr. Inskip.	33,103–33,227	257	12
Fretwell, Alfred - -	A., II.	Spring-knife Cutlers' Society.	19,630–19,768 19,772–19,821	195	64
Frey, Arthur Abraham - -	B., III.	Association of Master Lightermen and Bargeowners, in refutation of statements by Mr. Fairbairn.	16,733–16,872	162	12
Friend, Henry - - -	B., I.	North of England Sailors and Sea-going Firemen's Union.	10,376–10,520	96	39
G.					
Gatley, Ellis - - -	B., II.	Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association, and Canal Boatmen.	15,137–15,328	166	61
Gall, Thomas - - -	C., III.	Amalgamated Society of Tailors of Great Britain and Ireland (Sheffield Branch and Executive Council).	33,228–33,283	258	9
Gardener, William Henry -	D.	Egham Free Labour Registry.	1,937–1,999	14	27
Gardner, John William -	C., III.	National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers (Plymouth).	28,034–28,145	238	35
Gardner, Thomas - -	C., III.	His Firm (coal merchants); also in refutation of Mr. James O'Connor's evidence.	27,594–28,033 32,820–32,834	237	48
Gee, Allen - - -	C., I.	West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Association (Huddersfield District).	4,782–5,238	91	18
George, Isaac - - -	C., III.	Acid Workers at Taibach (Glamorganshire).	21,935–22,061	220	22
Giffen, Robert, C.B. - -	D.	Commercial Department of Board of Trade.	6,873–7,165 8,086–8,381	23	42
Girling, Edward - -	C., II.	National Association of Coopers (Newcastle).	20,513–20,699	161	55
Glennie, William - -	A., III.	Amalgamated Society of Engineers (Tyneside District).	23,066–23,262	152	35
Goodlet, Alexander - -	B., III.	Caledonian Railway Company.	27,489–27,812	194	73
Gordon, John - - -	C., II.	Master Tailors' Association of Great Britain and Ireland.	15,293–15,434	141	32
Gordon, Richard Shepheard -	A., III.	Labourers in Government Dockyards (Chatham and Devonport especially).	23,996–24,132	160	60
Gould, Dr. Elgin R. L. - -	D.	The United States Labour Department.	6,428–6,827	22	41
Gould, Richard - -	A., III.	Associated Shipwrights' Society (Portsmouth District).	21,690–21,967	145	57
Grady, Martin - - -	C., III.	United Alkali Company (Work in Bleaching Powder Department).	32,504–32,518	256	25
Graffunder, William - -	B., I.	Cardiff Boarding Masters' Guarantee Association and Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union.	10,956–11,111	98	43
Gray, Thomas - - -	A., II.	Collieries in the Swansea District.	12,390–12,421	171	22
Green, George - - -	A., III.	Nail and Chain Manufacture, and Dudley Chamber of Commerce and Wages Board.	19,988–20,270	135	17
Green, George Edwin - -	C., II.	National Union of Boot Clickers.	14,992–15,213	140	23
Greenman, G. W. - -	C., III.	London Domestic Servants' Union.	31,161–31,424	250	88
Greenwood, Alfred - -	C., III.	Glass Bottle Makers of Yorkshire United Trade Protection Society.	29,756–30,068	244	74
Greenwood, Joseph - -	D.	Hebden Bridge Fustian Manufacturing Co-operative Society.	941–1,107	10	12
Greig, G. - -	C., III.	Tyneside and National Labour Union (Red-Lead Workers).	21,718–21,786	219	21

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Greig, James	B., I.	Wharfingers, Warehouse Keepers, and Granary Keepers' Association, and Free Trade Wharfingers.	5,628–5,839	86	22
Griffin, Josiah	B., I.	Surrey Commercial Dock Company.	6,070–6,298	86	23
Gritton, Rev. John, D.D.	D.	Lord's Day Observance Society of London.	5,039–5,141	18	32
Grover, John	C., III.	Central Association of Master Builders (London).	31,966–32,303	255	15
Groves, William	B., I.	Firm of Granary Keepers.	6,793–6,827	87	26
H.					
Hadwen, Fred Walter	C., I.	Firm of Silk Spinners (near Halifax).	6,923–7,071	95	30
Ham, Harry	C., II.	Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association.	19,735–20,002	159	44
Hammill, Frederick	B., III.	Amalgamated Omnibus and Tram Workers' Union, and the Workers' Co-operative Omnibus Society, Limited, in refutation of statements by Mr. Peirce, Mr. Kingham, and Mr. Sutherst.	22,688-22,956	177	29, 47
Hansom, Robert	A., I.	Durham Cokemen's Association.	2,835–2,855	92	12
Hardern, Frank	D.	Co-operative production and distribution in Oldham.	1,108–1,221	10	13
Hardie, James Keir	A., II.	Ayrshire Miners' Union.	12,422–13,415	171	26
Hare, Andrew	A., III.	Tyneside and National Labour Union, and Platers' Helpers in Shipyards (West Hartlepool District).	20,626–20,675	137	20
Hare, Rev. Marmaduke	B., II.	Dock Labour.	13,189–13,252	155	22
Harford, Edward	D.	Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress.	7,166–7,522	26	27
Harrison, Walter James	B., III.	Midland Railway Servants, with regard to the operation of the Superannuation Fund.	27,360–27,488	194	56
Hart, Michael	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour and Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	1,653–1,924 2,192–2,198	80	11
Haswell, John	A., III.	Iron Trades Employers' Association (Sunderland Branch); and Wear Shipbuilders' Association.	25,699-25,734	172	53
Hatfield, Captain Edward Brailey	B., II.	British Seamen, and proposed establishment of a National Insurance and Provident Fund.	13,253–13,411	155	37
Hatton Edward	C., I.	Bradford Wool Sorters' Association.	6,201-6,399		
Hawley, A. E.	C., II.	Dyeing and Finishing Department (Leicester), Chamber of Commerce.	13,903–13,929	137	18
Healey, Patrick	C., III.	Chemical Workers (Burner-men).	22,313–22,589	222	24
Henderson, James	C., I.	Government Factory Inspection (Scotland and North of England).	7,193–7,477 8,962–9,189	95	35
Heptonstall, George	C., I.	Bradford and District Machine Wool Combers' Association.	5,843–6,200	93	23
Heslop, Joseph	A., III.	Associated Shipwrights' Society (Tyne, Tees, Blyth, Hartlepool, and Whitby Districts).	21,593–21,654	145	28
Hewson, William	B., II.	Canal Boatmen.	15,081–15,136	166	61
Hicks, Mrs. Amie	C., I.	East London Ropeworkers' Union, and appointment of Women Sub-Commissioners.	8,176–8,397	97	42
	C., II.	East London Ropeworkers' Union, with reference to evidence of Mr. J. T. Ritchie.	12,495–12,521	133	12
Hickson, William	C., II.	Firm of Boot and Shoe Manufacturers (Northampton), and Arbitration and Conciliation Boards (London and Northampton).	15,813–15,901	144	25
Higgins, John William	C., III.	Salford Gas Workers (non-unionists) in connection with the South Metropolitan Gas Strike of 1889.	24,218–24,528 24,852–24,862	228	30

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				Analysis.	Précis.
Hill, James	B., II.	Plymouth Firm of Steamship Owners and Coal Merchants in favour of unionism.	13,949–13,986	160	43
Hill, Louis Albert	C., III.	Amalgamated Union of Bakers (Hammersmith Branch).	29,074–29,566	243	66
Hill, William Becket	B., I.	Wilson. Hill, and Allan Lines.	6,397–6,792	87	24
Hills, Arnold Frank	A., III.	Thames Ironworks Shipbuilding Company, Limited.	24,893–25,185	167	43
Hingley, Benjamin, M.P.	A., II.	Midland Iron and Steel Wages Board, and South Staffordshire and East Worcestershire Ironmasters' Association.	15,483–15,611	179	47
Hobson, Charles	A., II.	Sheffield Federated Trades Council, Silver Plate Protection Society, and the Britannia Metal Smiths' Union.	18,976–19,286	192	60
Hodge, John	A., II.	British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association.	16,367–16,578	182	51
Hogan, John	C., II.	Combined Trades of Limerick.	16,520–16,610	147	52
Hollings, John	C., III.	Amalgamated Society of Tailors of Great Britain and Ireland, in refutation of evidence of Mr. Allen.	33,228–33,283	258	9
Holmes, David	C., I.	Ashton-under-Lyne (Cotton) Weavers' Association.	807–1,181	85	8
Holmes, James	C., II.	Midland Counties Hosiery Federation.	12,666–12,929	134	13
Holmes, Matthew	B., III.	North British Railway Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Andrew Ballantyne and Mr. Paisley.	27,103–27,184	191	69
Holmshaw, Robert	A., II.	Scissor Grinders' Association and its Co-operative Society.	19,381–19,617 19,769–19,771 19,822–19,870	194	63
Homer, Thomas	A., II.	National Amalgamation of Chain-makers' and Chain-strikers' Association (Cradley Heath and District Branch).	16,890–17,242	184	54
Hood, Walker	A., II.	South Wales Steam-coal Collieries (condition of roofs).	11,382–11,393	167	17
Hopkinson, Andrew	C., I.	Bradford Warp Dressers' Association.	5,239–5,373	92	25
Hornsby, George Jerome	B., II.	National Independent Seamen and Firemen's Association, in refutation of personal statements by Mr. J. Havelock Wilson.	14,689–14,697	163	48
Horton, William Henry	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Foremen and Clerks' Union.	1,453–1,652	80	11
Hough, William	B., II.	Weaver Watermen's Association, and Bargemen.	15,584–15,670	168	63
Hubbard, William Egerton	B., I.	The London and India Docks Company.	4,581–4,918	84	18
Hyndman, Henry Mayers	D.	State and Municipal Socialism.	8,382–8,719	28	23
I.					
Ingle, W. L.	C., II.	Boot and Shoe Industry (Leeds).	13,940–14,150	137	21
Ingles, John	A., III.	Associated Blacksmiths' Society.	23,531–23,574 23,687–23,690	156	42
Inglis, John	A., III.	Firm of Messrs. A. & J. Inglis (Shipbuilders and Engineers, Glasgow); and National Federation of Shipbuilders and Engineers.	26,280–26,468	177	49
Inskip, William	C., II.	Boot and Shoe Operatives' Union, Leicester; Co-operative Boot and Shoe Society, Limited; and Manchester Co-operative Wholesale Boot Society.	15,949–16,234	144	26
J.					
Jack, James Millar	A., III.	Associated Iron Moulders of Scotland.	23,446–23,530	155	41
Jackson, George Thomas	B., III.	Northern Counties Amalgamated Tramway and Hackney Carriage Employees' Association.	17,887–17,986	168	8

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Jackson, William V.	C., III.	Manchester, Hull, and Newcastle Lath-makers.	23,293–23,332	226	14
James, Miss Clara	C., I.	Confectioners' Trade Union, and appointment of Women Sub-Commissioners.	8,398–8,694	98	43
James, Rees	C., III.	Grocers and Provision Dealers' Employees' Association of Liverpool and District.	31,002–31,065	250	94
James, William	C., III.	Gas Light Company, Beckton Station (Non-unionists).	28,272–28,362	239	36
Jaques, George	A., I.	Northumberland and Durham Coal Mining.	3,258–3,706	93	20
Jay, John	B., I.	Employment under Shaw, Savill & Co.	8,411–8,441	92	40
Jenkins, John	C., III.	Amalgamated Union of Bakers (generally).	29,074–29,566	242	66
Jenkins, Robert	B., III.	Metropolitan Cabdrivers' Union.	17,812–17,845	167	38
Jenkins, William	A., II.	Monmouthshire and South Wales Colliery Owners' Association.	12,074–12,315	170	21
John, Howell	A., II.	House-coal Collieries in the Rhondda Valley.	11,326–11,381	167	17
Johnson, William	C., III.	National Union of Shop Assistants.	30,669–30,905 31,066–31,126	247	89
Johnstone, Robert	C., III.	Scotch Typographical Association.	27,113–27,223	234	59
Jolley, John Henry	C., II.	Cork United Trades' Society (bakers, printers, and riversidemen, &c.).	17,018–17,257	149	53
Jones, Edward	A., II.	Monmouthshire and South Wales Colliery Owners' Association, the Miners' Permanent Fund, and the Sliding Scale Joint Committee.	11,640–11,898	168	18
Jones, Evan	A., II.	South Wales Iron and Steel Workers and Mechanics' Association, and its Wage Board.	15,655–15,830 15,903–15,905	180	48
Jones, G. D.	C., I.	Half-time Council of Teachers.	3,822–3,913	90	41
Jones, Henry A.	B., III.	London Omnibus Carriage Company, in refutation of statements.	18,417–18,526	171	24
Jones, H. E.	C., III.	Commercial Gas Company of London.	26,193–26,422	232	41
Judge, John	C., II.	Leeds Branch of the National Union of Boot and Shoe Operatives.	11,950–12,203 15,902–15,948	132 144	19 26
Juett, Henry	B., III.	Amalgamated Society of Foremen Lightermen of the River Thames, in refutation of statements by Mr. Fairbairn.	16,873–16,995	162	13
Juggins, Richard	A., II.	Midland Counties Trades' Federation (Nut and Bolt Trade).	17,770–18,096	188	56
K.					
Keir, George	C., II.	Amalgamated Society of (Working) Tailors (Manchester).	14,588–14,881	139	30
Kelley, George D.	C., III.	Amalgamated Society of Lithographic Printers.	22,590–22,756	223	54
Kelly, John	B., III.	Manchester and Salford and District Lorrymen and Carters' Union.	18,548–18,626	172	46
Kerry, William	A., I.	Coal Mining at Swanwick Collieries.	8,576–8,699	105	35
Key, William	B., I.	North of England Sailors and Firemen's Union.	10,800–10,955	97	42
Kilpack, George	C., II.	Affiliated Society of London and Suburban House Painters.	21,105–21,188	163	42
King, Peter John	C., II.	Chemical and Copper Workers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	20,670–21,041	162	49
King, William	B., II.	Sunderland and North-East Coast River, Dock, and Wharf Labour Union.	11,938–11,998	150	13

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				Analysis.	Précis.
Kingham, Richard Thomas -	B., III.	London General Omnibus Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Sutherst and Mr. Bowbrick.	17,987–18,190	168	19
Knight, Robert - - -	A., III.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society and Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades.	20,676–21,154	138	21
Knox, William - - -	C., II.	National Association of Builders, and Liverpool Master Builders' Association.	18,433–18,599	154	48
L.					
Laing, James - - -	A., III.	Board of Conciliation for the Wear Shipbuilding Trade.	26,022–26,090	175	54
Lamb, Robert Ormston -	A., I.	Northumberland Coal Owners' Association.	3,124–3,249	93	19
Lambton, William Henry -	A., I.	Durham County Colliery Enginemen's Mutual Aid Association, and National Federation of Colliery Engineers.	2,579–2,706	91	10
Langford, Richard A. - -	C., III.	South London Voluntary Early Closing Association.	32,671–32,806	257	95
Langridge, William - -	B., I.	Shipping Department of Messrs. Gray, Dawes & Co.	7,164–7,333	88	28
Law, Alexander - -	A., III.	Associated Shipwrights' Society (Clyde District).	21,655–21,689	145	28
Lawlor, James - - -	C., III.	Bakers' Society (Dublin).	28,768–29,073	240	65
Laws, Cuthbert - - -	B., II.	Shipping Federation, in refutation of statements by Mr. Clem Edwards and by Mr. J. Havelock Wilson.	14,751–14,756	164	49
Laws, George Alexander -	B., I.	The Shipping Federation, Limited.	4,918–5,471	85	19
Leahy, Daniel David - -	C., III.	Printing Machine Managers' Trade Society.	27,504–27,543	236	57
Lee, Christopher - -	C., III.	Amalgamated Union of Bakers (London District).	29,074–29,566	243	66
Lee, John B. - - -	B., I.	Sailors and Firemen's Union (Sunderland).	10,521–10,648	97	40
Lemmon, Robert - -	B., III.	National Scottish Horsemen's Union, and Branches at Greenock and Port Glasgow.	23,026–23,122	178	47
Levett, Arthur - - -	B., III.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants (London and South-Western Branch).	24,070–24,166	181	50
Levick, William Robert -	B., III.	Metropolitan Cabdrivers' Union.	17,846–17,886	167	39
Lewington, William James -	A., III.	Labourers in Government Dockyards (Chatham and Devonport especially).	23,996–24,132	160	60
Lewis, John - - -	A., I.	Monmouthshire and South Wales Miners' Permanent Provident Society.	8,503–8,575	105	28
Lewis, Rev. John William -	B., II.	Dock Labour.	13,011–13,188	154	21
Lilley, Thomas - - -	C., III.	London Board of Conciliation and Arbitration for the Wholesale Boot and Shoe Trade, and Boot Manufacturers' Association, in refutation of evidence of Mr. Judge and Mr. Inskip.	33,103–33,227	257	12
Lind, William Paterson - -	B., I.	The Shipping Federation, Limited.	7,591–7,771	91	38
Lindsay, John - - -	A., III.	Amalgamated Society of Engineers (Dundee Branch).	23,263–23,300 23,325–23,333	153	37
Linton, A. - - -	C., III.	Gas Workers and General Labourers' Union.	25,419–25,482	229	34
Livesey, George - -	C., III.	South Metropolitan Gas Company.	26,693–27,112	233	44
Lloyd, George - - -	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour (Hay's Wharf).	7,772–7,828	91	30
Loch, Charles Stewart - -	D.	Charity Organisation Society.	5,802–5,892	20	29
Locket, G. C. - - -	C., III.	Society of Coal Merchants; also in refutation of Mr. James O'Connor's evidence.	27,594–28,033 33,005	237	49
Long, J. - - -	A., II.	Joint Committee of the Barrow Steel Workers.	14,845–14,921 14,962–14,970	177	43

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Lougher, E. - - -	A., II.	British Steel Smelters' Amalgamated Association.	16,579–16,679	182	52
Ludlow, John Malcolm, C.B. -	D.	Friendly Societies Registry.	1,740–1,936	13	37
Lynskey, Patrick - -	C., II.	Amalgamated Carpenters and Joiners' Society (Dublin).	16,710–16,879	147	33
M.					
Macalpine, George Watson -	A., I.	South Lancashire and Cheshire Coal Owners' Association and North Lancashire District.	6,110–6,417	100	30
MacGregor, David B. - -	C., II.	Glasgow Master Masons' Association.	18,600–18,743	155	38
McLaren, James - -	B., III.	North British Railway Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Andrew Ballantyne and Mr. Paisley.	27,103–27,184	191	69
MacNamara, Robert Sheedy -	C., II.	United Building Trades' Society (Cork).	16,880–17,017	148	46
McCann, Hugh Francis -	C., III.	Firm of Bakers in Dundalk, in refutation of evidence of Mr. Murray Davis.	33,079–33,102	257	72
McCarthy, Thomas -	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour, and Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	337–752	79	9
	B., II.	Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union (Southampton).	12,273–12,458	151	16
McCormick, Samuel Smith -	B., III.	Firm of J. McCormick and Co., Coal Merchants and Steamship Owners, Dublin, in refutation of statements by Mr. Tyrrell.	28,045–28,115	197	10
McCosh, Andrew Kirkwood -	A., II.	Mining in Lanarkshire and Ayrshire.	13,613–13,733 13,913–13,915	173	31
McDowell, Robert - -	A., III.	Amalgamated Society of Engineers (Ireland Branch).	23,306–23,324	154	37
MacIlwaine, John Henry -	A., III.	Firm of MacIlwaine and MacColl (Shipbuilders and Engineers, Belfast), and National Federation of Shipbuilders and Engineers (Belfast Branch).	26,469–26,527	179	51
Maloney, Michael - -	B., III.	Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union (Goole District), and Aire and Calder Canal Fly-boatmen.	17,211–17,345	164	15
Mann, Tom - -	D.	State and Municipal Socialism.	2,072–3,577	14	16
Mannion, Michael -	C., III.	Chemical Workers.	22,589*a*	223	25
Manton, Reuben - -	B., I.	National Federation of Fishermen (Grimsby), and Fishing Industry in the North Sea.	11,150–11,243	98	43
Marran, John - - -	C., I.	Bradford and District Machine Wool Combers'. Association.	5,343–6,200	93	23
Marsh, John - - -	C., III.	South Metropolitan Gas Workers (Non-unionists).	28,146–28,271	238	36
Marston, William - -	C., I.	Leeds Board of Conciliation.	9,338–9,514	99	22
Martin, Joseph - -	A., II.	National Amalgamated Lock and Key Smiths' Society (Willenhall Branch).	18,323–18,357	190	58
Maunsell, Edward William -	B., III.	Dublin, Wicklow, and Wexford Railway Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Foreman.	27,307–27,359	193	86
Mawdsley, James - -	C., I.	Amalgamated Society of Operative Cotton Spinners.	702–806*a*	85	8
Maxwell, William - -	D.	Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society.	406–940	8	9
Mears, Miss Elizabeth Amy -	C., I.	Union of Upholstresses, and appointment of Women Inspectors.	8,027–8,121	97	42
Meggitt, Elijah - - -	C., III.	Master Tailors' Association of Great Britain and Ireland.	33,284–33,304	258	10
Melrose, William - -	B., III.	Caledonian Railway Company.	27,489–27,812	194	73
Meredith, Jacob - -	C., III.	Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union (Swansea), and Copper Workers (Smelting Department).	22,062–22,194	221	22

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Merry, William	C., III.	Typographical Provident Society of Dublin.	27,451–27,503	236	63
Midgley, Ellis Crowther	C., II.	Leeds Boot Manufacturers' Association.	15,644–15,682	143	25
Milligan, Kenneth M.	C., III.	Scottish Shopkeepers and Assistants' Union.	30,920–31,001	249	92
Mills, Alfred	B., III.	United Cab Proprietors' Protection Association.	18,627–18,658	172	39
Milne, George	B., II.	Firm of George Milne and Co., in refutation of statements by Mr. J. Havelock Wilson with regard to the cases of the "Donegal" and the "Rowena."	14,571–14,597	163	46
Mitchell, George	C., III.	Chemical Workers of Glasgow, Imrie, and Rutherglen.	21,189–21,502	218	19
Mitchell, John T. W.	D.	Co-operative Union of Great Britain and Ireland, and the English Co-operative Wholesale Society.	1–405	7	6
Monro, George	B., II.	Free Labour in Glasgow (Stevedores).	12,662–12,762	153	20
Monro, Samuel	C., III.	Typographical Society (Belfast).	27,327–27,404	235	61
Moore, Francis Allan	C., II.	Building Trades, especially Carpenters and Joiners.	18,744–18,941	155	36
Morgan, David	A., I.	Aberdare and Merthyr (Coal) Miners' Association.	3,942–4,387	96	22
Morgan, Thomas	B., II.	Southampton Free Labour Association, and firm of Timber Merchants.	12,159–12,272 12,459–12,468	151	14 18
Morris, Benjamin	A., I.	Derbyshire Mining and the Miners' Union.	8,854–9,037	105	35
Morrison, John	B., II.	Tyne and Blyth District Committee of the Shipping Federation.	11,524–11,541	147	27
Morrison, Walter	C., III.	United Alkali Company (Salt Cake Working).	32,485–32,503	256	25
Mosses, William	A., III.	United Pattern Makers' Association, and Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades.	22,345–22,643	148	31
Mudie, James	B., III.	Caledonian Railway Company.	27,489–27,812	194	73
Mullarney, John	B., III.	Dublin United Tramways Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Tyrrell.	28,116–28,159	197	34
Mullin, William	C., I.	Amalgamated Card and Blowing-room Operatives' Association.	1–475	85	8
N.					
Newman, Edward	B., II.	Free Labour as opposed to the Shipping Federation.	14,475–14,570	162	46
Nixon, John	A., I.	Northumberland (Coal) Miners' Mutual Confident Association.	2,086–2,467	90	17
Noble, Captain Andrew	A., III.	Firm of Sir William Armstrong and Co. (Newcastle-on-Tyne), and Iron Trades Employers' Association for the Tyne and Wear.	25,186–25,498	168	45
Noble, John William	B., III.	Watermen and Riverside Labourers' Union.	17,090–17,167	163	14
Noble, William	C., I.	United Cotton Manufacturers' Association.	3,914–4,222	90	16
Norman, John	A., I.	Cleveland (Ironstone) Miners' Association.	1,192–1,219	88	12
O.					
O'Connor, James	C., III.	Coal Porters' Union, in refutation of previous Evidence of Mr. Gardner and Mr. Locket.	32,807–32,819 32,835–32,974 32,985–33,005	238	52
O'Connor, James	C., III.	Purveyors' Assistants (Dublin).	33,006–33,078	257	94
O'Connor, John	C., III.	Irish National Bakers' Federation.	28,768–29,073	241	65
Ogle, Dr. William	D.	Statistics Department of the General Register Office.	1,647–1,739 5,338–5,403	12	38
O'Grady, Thomas	C., III.	Printers' Labourers' Union.	28,363–28,523	239	57

Names of Witnesses (Employer and Employed).	Group and Volume of Evidence and Digest.	Interests Represented.	Nos. of Questions in Evidence.	Page in Digest.	
				Analysis.	Précis.
O'Neill, James	A., III.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society (Sunderland).	21,182–21,209 21,221–21,239	141	24
Onions, Alfred	A., I.	South Wales and Monmouthshire (Coal) Miners' Federation and Coal Mining.	4,958–5,423	97	24
Orbell, Harry	B., I.	Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' of Great Britain and Ireland Union.	9,149–9,170	94	41
O'Reilly, Charles	C., II.	Dublin United Trades Council.	16,235–16,519	146	51
Osborn, Edward Haydon	C., I.	Government Inspection of Cotton Cloth Factories.	4,571–4,724	91	35
Oscroft, Samuel	C., II.	Hand-Framework Knitters' Association.	13,314–13,619	136	15
Otley, Arthur	C., II.	National Association of Operative Plasterers.	17,258–17,373	150	43
Owen, Evan	A., I.	Monmouthshire and South Wales Miners' Permanent Provident Society.	8,360–8,457	104	27
Owen, William	C., III.	Amalgamated Potters' Society (Burslem); Board of Arbitration for the Potteries.	30,382–30,526	246	80
P.					
Paisley, James	B., III.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants (Scotland).	26,489–27,102	189	65
Palace, Alfred	C., III.	Lithographic Stone and Zinc Preparers' Society.	28,637–28,767	240	54
Park, James Smith	B., II.	Glasgow Shipowners' Association, and Allan Line.	12,763–12,940	153	35
Parr, Thomas Frank	B., II.	Liverpool Cotton and General Warehouse Porters' Society.	11,999–12,102	150	14
Parry, William John	A., II.	North Wales Quarrymen's Union.	9,529–9,782	162	12
Paton, William	B., III.	Glasgow Corporation Tramways.	19,023–19,104	174	27
Paterson, William	A., III.	Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, Tyne District.	22,071–22,344	248	30
Patterson, George William	C., III.	Assistants employed in the London Wholesale Trade; and recent National Union of Warehouse Assistants.	30,906–30,919 31,066–31,126	249	89
Patterson, William Hammond	A., I.	Durham (Coal) Miners' Association.	1–383	87	7
Peate, Jonathan	C., I.	Leeds Chamber of Commerce and Woollen Manufacture.	7,916–8,022	97	22
Peirce, Harry	B., III.	London General Omnibus Company (drivers, conductors, and horsekeepers, Eastern District), in refutation of statements by Mr. Sutherst and Mr. Bowbrick.	22,644–22,687	176	28
Phillips, W. L.	C., II.	London and Counties House Painters' Society.	19,033–19,175	156	41
Pickin, Thomas	C., III.	Hollow Ware Pressers' Society (Staffordshire).	30,382–30,526	246	80
Pinder, Alwin	C., II.	Bradford and District Power Loom Overlookers' Society, and the Board of Conciliation.	11,414–11,695	131	8
Pleasance, Robert	B., I.	Former connection with the Seamen's Union and the Shipping Federation.	10,748–10,780	97	42
Plimsoll, Samuel	B., II.	British Seamen.	11,244–11,363	147	25
Pogson, Joseph	B., III.	Huddersfield Corporation Tramways.	18,740–19,022	173	25
Polhill, John	B., I.	Free Labour in connection with the Shipping Federation.	5,973–6,069	86	23
Pomeroy, Captain Ralph	B., II.	Bute Docks, and proposed Joint Association of Employers and Employed.	13,742–13,805	158	41
Powell, James	A., II.	Bromsgrove Co-operative Society.	18,378–18,639	190	59
Prain, David Alexander	C., III.	London Master Bakers' Protection Society.	29,567–29,755	244	70

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				Analysis.	Précis.
Price, John	A., III.	Firm of Palmer & Co., Limited (Shipbuilders and Engineers, Jarrow).	26,280–26,468	177	49
Price, William	A., II.	Spike Nail-makers' Association.	17,579–17,769	187	56
Prior, John Damrel	C., I.	Government Factory Inspection (Huddersfield and Hulifax District).	6,761–6,922	94	35
Q.					
Quelch, Henry	B., I.	South Side Labour Protection League and Steamship Workers' Society.	2,199–2,595	81	12
	A., III.	South Side Labour Protection League, and the workers in the manufacturing departments, Woolwich Arsenal.	23,697–23,922	158	55
R.					
Raeburn, William Hannay	B., II.	Clyde District Committee of the Shipping Federation, and British Seamen.	13,412–13,543	156	38
Ray, Jacob	A., II.	Colliery Officials' Association for the Rhondda Valley and District.	11,078–11,213	166	16
Rawlinson, Joshua	C., I.	North-East Lancashire and Burnley Cotton Spinners and Manufacturers' Association.	2,406–2,958	88	13
Rees, Enoch	A., I.	Anthracite Miners' Association (Carmarthenshire).	5,782–5,799	99	26
Reid, James	C., I.	Dundee Trades Council, and Tenters' Association.	11,185–11,246	102	33
Rhodes, Frederick Parker	A., I.	South Yorkshire Coal Owners' Association.	7,829–8,061	103	36
Richards, J. W.	C., III.	Waterford Typographical Association.	27,405–27,450	236	62
Richards, Thomas	A., I.	South Wales and Monmouthshire (Coal) Miners' Federation.	5,424–5,520	98	25
Ridsdale, Langford	A., I.	Tamworth Coal Owners' Association.	5,732–5,781	99	31
Rigby, William	B., I.	Employment under Shaw, Savill & Co.	8,411–8,441	92	40
Ritchie, James Thomson	C., II.	Firm engaged in the Jute Industry, and refutations of statements by Mrs. Amie Hicks.	12,454–12,494	133	11
Robarts, Nathaniel Francis	A., II.	New Welsh Slate Company, Limited.	9,361–9,528	161	11
Robb, Thomas	B., I.	The Shipping Federation, Limited.	5,472–5,627	86	22
Roberts, R.	A., III.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society (Belfast District).	21,373–21,376	143	26
Robinson, Henry	C., I.	Bradford and District Amalgamated Society of Dyers.	9,540–9,679	100	26
Robinson, Robert	B., II.	Tyneside National Labour Union (Quayside Workers).	11,858–11,937	149	12
Robson, Joseph Thomas	A., I.	Government Inspection of Mines in South Wales District.	8,139–8,263	104	26
Roche, Wilson Mills	B., II.	Firm of Botterill and Roche, in refutation of statements by Mr. J. Havelock Wilson with regard to the Shipping Federation.	14,598–14,688	163	47
Ronaldson, John Martine	A., II.	Government Inspection in West Scotland Mining District.	18,815–18,975	192	33
Ross, Alexander	C., III.	Scottish Typographical Association.	23,156–23,292	225	60
Ross, Joseph	B., I.	Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	9,111–9,148	94	41
Ross, William	C., III.	National Union of Paper Mill Workers.	32,579–32,670	256	80
Rothwell, R.	A., III.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society (Stockton-on-Tees).	21,155–21,181	140	23

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				Analysis.	Précis.
Rowe, Samuel James	A., III.	Riggers in Government Dockyards (Chatham especially).	24,193–24,227	162	61
Roy, Thomas	C., I.	Forfar Factory Workers' Union.	11,247–11,367	103	34
Rudman, John	A., II.	Iron and Steel Workers' Wage Board in South Wales and Monmouthshire.	15,859–15,902	181	49
Russell, Joseph	A., III.	Nail and Edge Tool Manufacture, and Dudley Chamber of Commerce and Wages Board.	19,988–20,270	135	17
Russell, William Allen	C., I.	Cotton Manufacturers and Spinners (Preston).	3,429–3,645	89	16
Rylands, Dan	C., III.	Firm of Dan Rylands, Limited (Glass Bottle Manufacturers).	30,206–30,381	246	76
S.					
Saggers, Denham	C., III.	South Metropolitan Gas Workers (Non-unionists).	28,146–28,271	238	36
Salter, Joseph	C., II.	Boot and Shoe Manufacturer (Leeds and Pudsey).	14,882–14,991	140	23
Salter, William	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour, and Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	2,795–3,198	82	14
Samuel, Soll	B., I.	Cardiff Seamen and Firemen's Union.	11,112–11,149	98	43
Scammell, Edward Thomas	D.	Exeter Chamber of Commerce.	6,387–6,427	21	29
Scott, James	B., III.	London Improved Cab Company.	19,261–19,303	175	42
Scrutton, Thomas	B., II.	Chamber of Shipping of the United Kingdom.	14,081–14,198	161	43
Seaton, Albert Edward	., III.	Shipbuilding and Engineering Company, Limited (Hull), and Iron Trades Employers' Association.	25,499–25,645	170	46
Sennett, John	B., I.	Free Labour (Hermitage Wharf).	8,501–8,613	92	41
Sexton, James	B., II.	Dock Labourers' Union (Liverpool).	13,573–13,630	157	23
Shaftoe, Samuel	C., I.	Bradford and District Machine Wool Combers' Association.	5,843–6,200	93	23
Sharp, Henry	C., II.	Philanthropic Society of Journeymen Coopers.	20,351–20,444	161	54
Sheil, Richard	C., III.	Chemical Workers (Salt-cake men).	22,313–22,589	222	24
Shepherd, Edward Montague	B., II.	Dock Labourers' Union (Barrow-in-Furness).	13,544–13,572	156	22
Shortt, Edward	C., I.	Barmaids and Barmen, and appointment of Women Sub-Commissioners.	8,695–8,769	98	44
Shotton, John	C., III.	Tyneside and National Labourers' Union (White-Lead Workers).	21,787–21,934	220	21
Silk, George	C., I.	Amalgamated Card and Blowing-room Operatives' Association.	476–701	85	8
Simmons, E.	C., II.	Silk Trimming Manufacture.	15,252–15,292	141	56
Simmons, John	C., II.	Dublin United Trades Council.	16,235–16,519 16,682–16,709	146	51
Simpson, Albert	C., I.	Lancashire Cotton Spinners.	1,937–2,405	87	13
Sims, Stephen	B., I.	Amalgamated Stevedores' Labour Protection League.	6,828–6,892	87	26
Sixsmith, Alfred	C., II.	Leeds and District Willeyers and Fettlers' Union.	11,708–11,850	131	9
Slatter, Henry	C., III.	Typographical Association.	22,757–22,914	223	55
Small, William	A., II.	Blantyre Miners' Association.	10,157–10,824	164	23
Smellie, Robert	A., II.	Larkhall Coal Miners.	9,783–10,156 10,824c.	163	23
Smith of Coalville, George	B., III.	Canal Boatmen.	28,305–28,39[illegible]	16	198

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				Analysis.	Précis.
Smith, Henry Batty	C., III.	Firm of Ashley and Smith, Limited, proprietors of the "Sportsman" newspaper.	28,524-28,636	239	58
Smith, Henry Frederick	C., III.	Hull Chamber of Commerce (Seed Crushers' Committee).	31,547-31,616	251	87
Smith, Hugh Colin	B., I.	Hay's Wharf and Dock.	6,299-6,396	87	24
Smith, James	A., II.	National Amalgamation of Chain-makers and Chain-strikers.	17,243-17,297	185	54
Smith, M.	A., III.	Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders' Society (Liverpool, Birkenhead, and Mersey District).	21,242-21,258	142	25
Smith, William	B., III.	Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants, (Rochdale and Todmorden Branch).	24,366-24,480	182	52
Smyth, T.	D.	Chelsea Labour Bureau.	2,000-2,071	14	28
Snow, William	A., II.	National Association of Blast-Furnacemen (as a whole).	13,916-14,137	175	37
Sopwith, Arthur	A., I.	Cannock Chase Coal Owners' Association.	6,418-6,600	101	32
Southwell, Edmund Martin	C., II.	Firm of Carpet Manufacturers (Bridgnorth).	15,435-15,494	142	57
Speed, William	B., II.	Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association, and Canal Boatmen.	12,103-12,158	150	56
Stanbury, James	B., II.	Ship Riggers and their Associations in London, Glasgow, Greenock, Liverpool, Belfast, and Londonderry.	14,345-14,474	162	45
Steadman, William Charles	A., III.	Barge Builders' Society.	20,271-20,413	136	18
Steel, Thomas	C., III.	Tyneside and National Labourers' Union, and Chemical Workers.	21,503-21,717	219	20
Steele, William	A., I.	Northumberland and Durham Miners' Permanent Relief Fund Friendly Society.	2,468-2,578	90	18
Stewart, James	C., I.	Operative Cotton Spinners (Preston).	2,959-3,181	88	12
Stirk, James	C., II.	Stonemasons' Society of England, Wales, and Ireland (Leeds District).	19,415-19,567	158	39
Stobart, Frank	A., I.	Durham Coal Owners' Association.	1,962-2,085	89	10
Strong, Jabez	A., I.	Cleveland (Ironstone) Miners' Association.	1,220-1,325	88	12
Stuart, Thomas W.	C., III.	United Alkali Company.	32,443-32,481	255	26
Sturgis, George	C., III.	London Master Bakers' Protection Society.	29,567-29,755	243	70
Styles, Henry	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour, and Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	1,132-1,452	80	10
Sunley, George	C., II.	National Amalgamated Society of House and Ships Painters and Decorators.	18,942-19,032	156	41
Sutcliffe, Greenwood	C., I.	Bradford Managers and Overlookers' Society.	10,307-10,722	101	26
Sutcliffe, Paul Brown	B., II.	Shipping Federation, and British Seamen in connection with the Seamen's Union.	14,721-14,750	164	49
Sutherst, Thomas	B., II.	Tram and 'Bus Men.	15,743-16,197	168	64
Swift, James	A., III.	Steam Engineers' Society.	23,575-23,686; 23,691-23,696	156	37
T.					
Tabberer, Osmond	C., II.	Firm of Fancy Hosiery Manufacturers (Leicester).	13,727-13,902	137	17
Tatham, Dr. John	C., I.	Medical effect of the employment upon factory hands (Manchester).	8,122-8,175	97	42
Taylor, Alexander	C., II.	Irish Linen Lappers' Union.	13,186-13,313	135	12
Taylor, Jonathan	C., III.	Gas Workers and General Labourers' Union (Sheffield District).	23,438-23,618; 23,648-23,701	226	27

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Tees, Charles	C., I.	Barmaids and Barmen, and appointment of Women Sub-Commissioners.	8,768–8,844	98	44
Thomas, Edward	A., II.	Sliding Scale Joint Committee of Eston.	14,922–14,961 14,971–3	177	43
Thomas, Griffith	A., II.	Colliery Officials' Association for the Rhondda Valley and District.	11,214–11,325	167	16
Thomas, Henry	A., I.	Monmouthshire and South Wales Miners' Permanent Provident Society.	8,458–8,502	105	28
Thomas, William	A., II.	Monmouthshire and South Wales Colliery Owners' Association.	11,899–12,073	169	20
Thompson, James	B., III.	Caledonian Railway Company, in refutation of statements by Mr. Andrew Ballantyne and Mr. Paisley.	27,813–28,021	195	75
Thomson, George	C., I.	Co-operative firm in woollen trade (near Huddersfield).	7,072–7,192	95	30
Thorne, William	C., III.	Gas Workers and General Labourers' Union, and Manchester, Salford, and Metropolitan Gas Strikes.	24,529–24,851 24,863–25,418	228	31
Thurston, Francis	B., I.	Amalgamated Society of Engine Drivers and Firemen (on Ships).	8,933–9,021	93	30
Tillett, Ben	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour, and Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourer's Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	3,555–4,081	83	15
Tookey, James	B., II.	United Bargemen and Watermen's Protection Society.	13,892–13,948	159	58
Toyn, Joseph	A., I.	Cleveland (Ironstone) Miners' Association.	693–1,191	87	12
Tozer, Rev. William	D.	Ipswich Labour Bureau.	6,173–6,386	21	28
Trantom, Joseph	C., III.	Liverpool and District Grocers and Provision Dealers' Association.	31,127–31,160	250	96
Treleaven, George Frederick	B., II.	Plymouth and District Free Labour Association.	12,549–12,620	152	19
Trewby, George Careless	C., III.	Gas Light and Coke Company, Limited.	26,423–26,692	232	42
Trow, Edward	A., II.	Board of Arbitration and Conciliation for the Manufactured Iron and Steel Trade of the North of England, and Associated Iron and Steel Workers of Great Britain.	15,154–15,482	179	45
Turner, Ben	C., I.	West Riding of Yorkshire Weavers' Association (Batley District).	5,374–5,376 5,667–5,842	92	19
Turner, William	B., II.	Burscough Branch of the Upper Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association, and Canal Boatmen.	15,463–15,583	157	62
Tyler, William	C., II.	Firm of hosiery manufacturers (Leicester).	13,620–13,726	136	16
Tyrrell, Patrick A.	B., III.	Dublin and District Tramway Union.	24,481–24,726	182	33
Twigg, Thomas	A., III.	Ship Joiners in Government Dockyards (Sheerness especially).	24,133–24,192	161	61
U.					
Uttley, Stuart	A., II.	File-cutters' Association.	19,871–19,987	195	65
V.					
Valon, William Andrew	C., III.	Incorporated Gas Institute.	25,674–25,924	230	38
Varnier, Alexander Henry	B., II.	Plymouth and District Free Labour Association.	12,469–12,548	152	18
Vickers, Charles	A., II.	National Association of Blast-Furnacemen (Scotland).	14,263–14,412 14,451–14,459	175	37
Vivian, Henry	D.	Labour Association for Promoting Co-operative Production.	7,523–7,688	26	14
Vivian, The Hon. W. W.	A., III.	Dinorwic Slate Quarries, in refutation of evidence by Messrs. W. J. Williams, D. G. Williams, E. A. Young, W. J. Parry, and N. F. Roberts.	24,639–24,892	166	10

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W.					
Waddington, Richard - -	C., I.	Half-Time Council of Teachers.	3,646–3,821	89	40
Wade, Owen - - -	A., III.	Tyneside and National Labour Union and Platers' Helpers in Shipyards (South Shields to Blyth District).	20,414–20,625	137	20
Wain, William James Carruthers	B., III.	Tramways Institute of Great Britain and Ireland and Tramways Companies, viz:—Birmingham Central; Croydon; London, Deptford, and Greenwich; North Staffordshire and South Staffordshire Steam Tramways Companies.	23,123–23,396	179	31
Waldron, John G. - -	C., II.	United Kingdom Coachmakers' Society.	20,170–20,350	160	53
Walker, Charles - -	C., II.	Licensed Victuallers' Protection Trade Board (London).	15,683–15,812	143	57
Walker, John Harry - -	C., I.	Dundee Chamber of Commerce and Firm of Jute Spinners.	10,723–10,994	101	31
Walker, Robert - - -	D.	Traders' Defence Association of Scotland.	5,142–5,337	19	15
Walker, Tom - - -	B., III.	Huddersfield Corporation Tramways (drivers and conductors).	18,659–18,739	173	25
Walker, William - -	A., I.	Cleveland Mining Engineers.	1,566–1,668	89	15
Walls, Patrick - - -	A., II.	National Association of Blast-Furnacemen (Cumberland District).	14,413–14,450	176	37
Ward, Thomas - - -	C., II.	The Salt Union, Limited, and industries connected therewith.	21,042–21,104	163	50
Ward, William Henry - -	C., III.	Gas Workers and General Labourers' Union.	23,930–24,217	227	28
Wardley, William Farewell -	A., II.	Sheffield Federated Trades Council, and Table Blade Forgers and Strikers' Trade Society.	19,287–19,380 19,618–19,629	195	62
Wates, Benjamin Cunningham -	C., II.	Trades and Industries of Leicester, and the Board of Arbitration.	12,522–12,665	134	18
Watson, John G. - -	C., I.	Bradford Managers and Overlookers' Society.	10,307–10,722	101	26
Webb, Henry - - -	B., II.	Thames Steamship Workers' Union.	14,015–14,080	161	54
Webb, Sidney - - -	D.	State and Municipal Socialism.	3,578–4,877	16	19
Weeks, John George - -	A., I.	Northumberland Coal Owners' Association.	2,856–3,123 3,250–3,257	92	18
Weir, John - - -	A., I.	Fife and Kinross (Coal) Miners' Association.	3,707–3,941	95	21
Welch, James - - -	B., I.	Wharf and Dock Labour; and Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers Union of Great Britain and Ireland.	4,390–4,533	84	17
Weston, Vernon - -	B., I.	The Sailors' Home, London Docks.	7,829–7,868	91	39
Wheeler, Charles - -	C., III.	Gas Workers and General Labourers' Union (Beckton Station, Gas Light and Coke Company).	25,483–25,673	230	37
Whitburn, John - -	A., II.	Enginemen, Firemen, and Boilermen's Amalgamated Society.	17,298–17,578	186	41
White, John Puxley - -	A., I.	Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire Coal Owners' Association, and Coal Owners of South Derbyshire, Leicestershire, and Warwickshire.	7,175–7,624	102	34
White, Louis Stephen - -	B., II.	Watermen and Lightermen's Hall.	14,335–14,344	162	55
Whitley, Charles - -	C., II.	Alliance Cabinet Makers' Association (Leeds Branch).	20,003–20,169	160	45
Whittaker, John - -	A., III.	Amalgamated Society of Engineers (Lancashire and Yorkshire Districts especially).	22,644–23,065	149	32
Whitwell, William - -	A., II.	Board of Arbitration and Conciliation for the Manufactured Iron and Steel Trade of the North of England.	14,974–15,153	178	44
Whymper, Frederick H. -	C., I.	Government Inspection of Factories.	4,223–4,570	90	35

Names of Witnesses (Employers and Employed).	Group and Volume of Evidence and Digest.	Interests Represented.	Nos. of Questions in Evidence.	Page in Digest.	
				Analysis.	Précis.
Wignall, James - - -	C., III.	Dock, Wharf, Riverside, and General Labourers' Union (Swansea), and Copper Workers (Smelting Department).	22,195–22,312	221	22
Wigram, Reginald - -	A., III.	Firm of John Fowler and Co., Limited (Engineers, Leeds).	25,735–25,804	172	48
Wilcock, John - - -	C., I.	Operative Cotton Spinners (Preston).	3,182–3,428	89	12
Wilkie, Alexander - -	A., III.	Associated Shipwrights' Society and Federation of Shipbuilding and Engineering Trades.	21,389–21,592	143	26
Wilkins, Augustus - -	C., III.	The Union, in refutation of Mr. James O'Connor's evidence.	32,975–32,985	238	52
Wilkinson, George William -	A. II.	Coal mines in Monmouthshire and Glamorganshire.	12,316–12,389	170	22
Wilkinson, W. H. - - -	C., I.	Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers.	1,609–1,817	87	10
Williams, David Griffith -	A., I.	North Wales (Slate) Quarrymen's Union.	7,174*a*	102	28
Williams, Illtyd - - -	A., II.	Firm of Ironmasters at Middlesbrough.	14,649–14,752	177	39
Williams, William John -	A., I.	North Wales (Slate) Quarrymen's Union.	6,885–7,174	102	28
Williamson, Rev. Henry -	C., I.	Dundee Mill and Factory Operatives' Union.	10,995–11,184	102	32
Williamson, James - - -	A., III.	The Admiralty, and Government Dockyards, in refutation of statements by Messrs. Quelch, Clements, Gordon, Twigg, and Rowe.	25,805–26,021	173	62
Wilson, Charles John - -	C., I.	South of Scotland Chamber of Commerce (Hawick).	7,478–7,688	96	34
Wilson, Henry Joseph, M.P. -	C., III.	Gas Workers and General Labourers' Union (Lock-out of Confectionery Girls, Sheffield, September 1890).	23,619–23,701	227	27
Wilson, John, M.P. - -	A., I.	Durham (Coal) Miners' Association.	384–692	87	7
Wilson, John Heron - -	B., II.	Shipping Federation (Cardiff).	11,542–11,662	148	29
Wilson, Joseph Havelock - -	B., I.	National Amalgamated Sailors and Firemen's Union.	9,170–10,375 10,649–10,654	94	30
Wilson, Richard - -	C., II.	Bradford and District Power Loom Overlookers' Society, and the Board of Conciliation.	11,414–11,695	131	8
Wolsey, Walter - - -	B., III.	Firm of Thomas Tilling, Jobmaster.	19,235–19,260	175	42
Wood, Lindsay - - -	A., I.	Durham Coal Owners' Association.	1,669–1,961	89	9
Wright, Henry J. - -	C., III.	Central Association of Master Builders (London).	31,996–32,303	255	15
Wright, W. - - -	C., II.	Leith and Edinburgh and District Mutual Association of Coopers.	20,445–20,512	161	55
Y.					
Yates, William Edward - -	C., I.	Leeds Chamber of Commerce, and woollen manufacture.	7,689–7,915 8,023–6	96 802	21
Young, Emelius Alexander -	A., II.	Lord Penrhyn's Slate Quarries at Bangor.	16,785–16,889	183	14
Young, Ralph - - -	A., I.	Northumberland (Coal) Miners' Mutual Confident Association.	2,086–2,467	90	16
Young, R. W. - - -	C., III.	Staffordshire Pottery Manufacturers' Association, and firm of earthenware manufacturers.	32,552–32,578	256	83

APPENDIX I.

ACTS OF PARLIAMENT.

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INTRODUCTORY.

6 8.] 638. Much of the evidence bore reference, more or less directly, to the various Acts of Parliament regulating the conditions of employment in various occupations, and, in some cases, the witnesses formulated definite amendments of the law. It has appeared expedient to present these portions of the evidence in a tabulated statement, giving, in parallel columns, the text of the Act and the specific amendments suggested. Owing to the large number of witnesses who have given evidence on the more important Acts, it has been impossible to enumerate in the Appendix the authorities for the amendments given. A full Index of reference to Acts of Parliament is appended to the Digests, from which information as to the authorities can be obtained. [§ 638.]

THE BUILDING SOCIETIES ACTS, 1874-1884.

Text of the Act.	Proposed Amendments.
639. *Section* 15 *of the Act of* 1874.—With respect to the borrowing of money by societies under this Act, the following provisions shall have effect:—	
(1.) Any society under this Act may receive deposits or loans, at interest within the limits of this section provided, from the members or other persons, or from corporate bodies, joint-stock companies, or from any terminating building society, to be applied to the purposes of the society:	
(2.) In a permanent society, the total amount so received on deposit or loan and not repaid by the society shall not at any time exceed two thirds of the amount for the time being secured to the society by mortgages from its members:	
(3.) In a terminating society, the total amount so received and not repaid may either be a sum not exceeding such two-thirds as aforesaid, or a sum not exceeding twelve months' subscriptions on the shares for the time being in force:	
(4.) Any deposits with or loans to a society under this Act, made before the commencement of this Act in accordance with its certified rules, are hereby declared to be valid and binding on the society, but no further deposits or loans shall be received by such society, except within the limits provided by this section:	I.—To make building societies in holding out promises to pay on demand, state that those promises are qualified by the provisions of the Act, limiting their power of borrowing to the amount of two thirds of their mortgages.
(5.) Every deposit book or acknowledgment or security of any kind given for a deposit or loan by a society shall have printed or written therein or thereon the whole of the fourteenth and fifteenth sections of the present Act.	II.—To apply to building societies the provision contained in the Industrial and Provident Societies Act, 1876, to the effect that no deposits repayable at less than two days' notice may be received.
	III.—To more strictly limit the amount of deposits a building society may have withdrawable at short notice.
Section 16 *of the Act of* 1874.—The rules of every society hereafter established under this Act shall set forth:—	
1. The name of the society, and chief office or place of meeting for the business of the society:	
2. The manner in which the stock or funds of the society are to be raised, the terms upon which paid-up shares (if any) are to be issued and repaid, and whether preferential shares are to be issued, and, if so, within what limits, if any, and whether the society intends to avail itself of the borrowing powers contained in this Act, and, if so, within what limits not exceeding the limits prescribed by this Act.	IV.—To omit the words "if any" after the words 'within what limits."

[§ 639.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 639.

Section 32 *of the Act of* 1874.—A society under this Act may terminate or be dissolved—

3. By dissolution with the consent of three fourths of the members holding not less than two-thirds of the number of shares in the society, testified by their signatures to the instrument of dissolution. The instrument of dissolution shall set forth:—

(*e.*) The names of one or more persons to be appointed trustees for the special purpose, and their remuneration.

V.—To make provision for control by the members of a building society over the trustees appointing under the instrument of dissolution.

Section 43 *of the Act of* 1874.—If any society hereafter formed under this Act, or any persons representing themselves to be a society under this Act, commence business without first obtaining a certificate of incorporation under this Act, or if any society under this Act makes default in forwarding to the registrar any returns or information by this Act required, or in inserting in any deposit book or acknowledgment or security for loan the matters required by section fifteen of this Act to be inserted therein, or makes a return wilfully false in any respect, the person or persons by whom business shall have been so commenced, or by whom such default shall have been made, or who shall have made such wilfully false return, shall be liable for every day business is so carried on, or for every such default or false return, upon summary conviction before justices at the complaint of the registrar, to a penalty not exceeding five pounds. If any society under this Act receives loans or deposits in excess of the limits prescribed by this Act, the directors or committee of management of such society receiving such loans or deposits on its behalf shall be personally liable for the amount so received in excess.

VI.—To make the provision as to penalties for making false returns more stringent.

VII.—To make provision for receiving penalties from a building society or its responsible officers without requiring the prosecutor to prove the offence in the case of an individual.

Section 44 *of the Act of* 1874.—One of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State may from time to time make regulations respecting the fees, if any, to be paid for the transmission, registration, and inspection of documents under this Act, and generally for carrying this Act into effect. The registrar shall give his certificates in the forms contained in the schedule to this Act respectively.

VIII.—To give the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies power, upon a proper requisition, to appoint persons to inquire into the affairs of a building society, or to call a special meeting of the society.

IX.—To provide a form of annual return for building societies, with provisions as to dates, &c.

X. To insert in the Act provisions similar to those of section 14 of the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

XI. To include building societies under the Friendly Societies Act, 1875.

THE CANAL BOATS ACTS, 1877 AND 1884.

640. *Section* 1 *of the Act of* 1877.—After the expiration of 12 months after the commencement of this Act . . . a canal boat shall not be used as a dwelling, unless it has been registered in accordance with this Act.

The owner of a canal boat may register that boat with the registration authority herein-after mentioned as a dwelling for such number of persons of the specified age and sex as may be allowed under the provisions of this Act; and the boat shall be used as a dwelling only for the number of persons of the age and sex for which it is registered.

I.—That registration should be more uniform and systematic.

Section 2 *of the Act of* 1877.—The Local Government Board shall make regulations, and may from time to time revoke and vary such regulations—

(1.) For the registration of canal boats under this Act, including certificates of registration, and the fees in connexion with such registration; and

(2.) For the lettering, marking, and numbering of such boats; and

(3.) For fixing the number, age, and sex of the persons who may be allowed to dwell in a canal boat, having regard to the cubic space, ventilation, provision for the separation of the sexes, general healthiness and convenience of accommodation of the boat: . . . . . .

II.—That certificates of competency, to be granted by the Board of Trade rather than by the Local Government Board, and obtainable by a practical examination, should be required of all persons in charge of canal boats or lighters.

Section 6 *of the Act of* 1877.—A child in a canal boat registered in pursuance of this Act, and his parent, shall for the purposes of the Elementary Education Acts, 1870, 1873, and 1876, be deemed, subject as herein-after mentioned, to be resident in the place to which the boat is registered as belonging, and shall be subject, according to any byelaw in force under the said Acts in that place. Provided that if the parent satisfies the school board or school attendance committee having authority in that place, that the child is actually attending school, or is under efficient instruction in accordance with the said Acts, in some other school district, the said board

III.—That women and children should be prohibited from living or working on canal boats.

IV.—That permission to children under the age of 13 to work on canal boats should be limited to those that have passed Standard III. as defined in the Education Acts.

TEXT OF THE ACT.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS.

[§ 640.] or committee shall grant him without charge a certificate to that effect, and thereupon he and his child shall be deemed, for the purposes aforesaid, to be resident in the school district in which the child is so attending school, or under efficient instruction, and shall be subject to any byelaw in force therein. The said certificate may, on application by the parent, be rescinded or varied by the school board or school attendance committee for the place to which the boat registered as belonging, and may be rescinded without application by any such board or committee, if they are satisfied, after due notice to the parent that his child is not properly attending school or under efficient instruction in the school district mentioned in the certificate. [§ 640.]

Section 5 *of the Act of* 1884.—The power to make regulations given to the Local Government Board by the principal Act and this Act, shall include power to the Education Department to make regulations with respect to the form of certificates or pass-books as to attendance at school to be used by children in canal boats.

Section 6 *of the Act of* 1884.—The Education Department shall every year report to Parliament as to the manner in which the Elementary Education Acts, 1870 and 1873, 1876 and 1880, are enforced with respect to children in canal boats, and shall for that purpose direct Her Majesty's Inspector of Schools to communicate with the school boards and school attendance committees in their district.

Section 3 *of the Act of* 1877.—Every canal boat when registered shall be lettered, marked, and numbered in some conspicuous manner (as directed by the regulations made under this Act), and such lettering, marking, and numbering shall include the word "registered," and the name of the place to which the boat is registered as belonging, and the registered number.

V.—That Mr. Plimsoll's mark shall be compulsory for all river craft, one inch of free board for every foot of draught of water being the minimum spare buoyancy.

Section 7 *of the Act of* 1884.—A canal boat shall not be deemed to be lettered, marked, and numbered in conformity with section three of the principal Act, unless it is so lettered, marked, and numbered on both sides of the canal boat, or in some suitable position on the stern of the boat, so that the lettering, marking, and numbering may be plainly visible from both sides of the canal wherein the boat may be.

Section 3 *of the Act of* 1884.—It shall be the duty of every registration or sanitary authority within whose district any canal, or any part of a canal is situate, to enforce within such district the provisions of the principal Act and this Act, and any regulations made thereunder by the Local Government Board; and every such authority shall, within twenty-one days after the thirty-first day of December in every year make a report to the Local Government Board as to the execution of the principal Act, and this Act, and of the regulations made thereunder as aforesaid, and as to the steps taken by such authority during the year to give effect to the provisions of the said Acts and regulations.

VI.—That inspection should be periodical.

Section 4 *of the Act of* 1884.—The Local Government Board shall in every year present a report to both Houses of Parliament as to the execution of the principal Act and this Act, and the observance of the regulations made by them thereunder; and shall cause inquiries to be made from time to time by one inspector or inspectors, to be appointed by them for that purpose.

VII.—That district sub-inspectors should be specially appointed for the administration of the Acts, one for every three or four counties.

Section 14 *of the Act of* 1877.—In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires . . . . the expression "canal boat" means any vessel, however propelled, which is used for the conveyance of goods along a canal as above defined, and which is not a ship duly registered under the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, and the Acts amending the same.

VIII.—That the Acts should apply to all vessels concerned in inland navigation.

Section 10 *of the Act of* 1884.—If it shall at any time appear to the Local Government Board, on the representation of any registration or sanitary authority or of any inspector appointed under this Act, that the principal Act and this Act ought to apply to any vessel or class of vessels which would be within the definition of canal boat, contained in section fourteen of the principal Act, if such vessel or class of vessels were not registered under the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, and the Acts amending the same, the Local Government Board may declare that the principal Act and this Act shall apply to such vessel or class of vessels, although the same may be registered as aforesaid, and thereupon the same shall be

TEXT OF THE ACT.	PROPOSED AMENDMENTS.
[§ 640.] deemed to be a canal boat or canal boats within the meaning of the principal Act and this Act, and the definition contained in section fourteen of the principal Act shall be amended accordingly.	[§ 640.]

THE COAL MINES REGULATION ACT, 1887.

641. *Section 75 of the Act of* 1887.—In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires, "boy" means a male under the age of 16 years.

I.—That "boy" should mean a male under 18 or 21 years.

Section 4 of the Act of 1887.—No boy under the age of 12 years, and no girl or woman of any age, shall be employed in or allowed to be for the purpose of employment in any mine below ground.

II.—That no boy under the age of 13 years, and no girl or woman of any age, should be employed in or allowed to be for the purpose of employment in any mine below ground.

III.—That no boy under the age of 11 years, and no girl or woman of any age, should be employed in or allowed to be for the purpose of employment in any mine below ground.

Section 5 of the Act of 1887.—A boy of or above the age of 12 years shall not be employed in or allowed to be for the purpose of employment in any mine below ground for more than 54 hours in any one week, nor more than 10 hours in any one day, nor otherwise than in accordance with the regulations herein-after contained with respect to the employment of boys in a mine below ground.

IV.—That a boy of or above the age of 12 years should not be employed in or allowed to be for the purpose of employment in any mine below ground for more than 60 hours in any one week.

Section 12 of the Act of 1887.—(1.) Where the amount of wages paid to any of the persons employed in a mine depends on the amount of mineral gotten by them, those persons shall be paid according to the actual weight gotten by them of the mineral contracted to be gotten, and the mineral gotten by them shall be truly weighed at a place as near to the pit mouth as is reasonably practicable.

V.—That the section should be amended.

Provided that nothing in this section shall preclude the owner, agent, or manager of the mine from agreeing with the persons employed in the mine that deductions shall be made in respect of stones or substances other than the mineral contracted to be gotten, which shall be sent out of the mine with the mineral contracted to be gotten, or in respect of any tubs, baskets, or hutches being improperly filled in those cases where they are filled by the getter of the mineral or his drawer, or by the person immediately employed by him; such deductions being determined in such special mode as may be agreed upon between the owner, agent, or manager of the mine on one hand, and the persons employed in the mine on the other, or by some person appointed in that behalf by the owner, agent, or manager, or (if any check weigher is stationed for this purpose as herein-after mentioned) by such person and such check weigher, or in case of difference by a third person to be mutually agreed on by the owner, agent, or manager of the mine on the one hand, and the persons employed in the mine on the other, or in default of agreement appointed by a chairman of a court of quarter sessions within the jurisdiction of which any shaft of the mine is situate.

VI.—That the permission extended to employers and employed to enter into an agreement respecting deductions for stone or substances other than the mineral contracted to be gotten should be withdrawn.

VII.—That no such agreement should be deemed to exist unless expressly made in definite terms.

Section 13 of the Act of 1887.—(1.) The persons who are employed in a mine, and are paid according to the weight of the mineral gotten by them, may, at their own cost, station a person (in this Act referred to as a "checkweigher") at each place appointed for the weighing of the mineral, and at each place appointed for determining the deductions, in order that he may on behalf of the persons by whom he is so stationed take a correct account of the weight of the mineral or determine correctly the deductions as the case may be.

VIII.—That it should be made illegal for an employer to make the removal of a particular checkweigher a condition of employment.

(2.) A check weigher shall have every facility afforded to him for enabling him to fulfil the duties for which he is stationed, including facilities for examining and testing the weighing machine, and checking the tareing of tubs and trams where necessary; and if at any mine proper facilities are not afforded to a checkweigher as required by this section, the owner, agent, and manager of the mine shall each be guilty of an offence against this Act, unless he proves that he had taken all reasonable means to enforce to the best of his power the requirements of this section.

IX.—That the term "facility" should include the provision of shelter other than that supplied by the pit's head.

(3.) A checkweigher shall not be authorised in any way to impede or interrupt the working of the mine, or to interfere with the weighing, or with any of the workmen or with the management of the mine; but shall be authorised only to take such account or determine such

X.—That checkweighers should be forbidden to give information to a third party about a man's time or output, without that man's consent.

TEXT OF THE ACT.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS.

[§ 641.] deductions as aforesaid, and the absence of a checkweigher from the place at which he is stationed shall not be a reason for interrupting or delaying the weighing or the determination of deductions at such place respectively, but the same shall be done or made by the person appointed in that behalf by the owner, agent, or manager, unless the absent checkweigher had reasonable ground to suppose that the weighing or the determination of the deductions, as the case may be, would not be proceeded with: Provided always, that nothing in this section shall prevent a checkweigher giving to any workman an account of the mineral gotten by him, or information with respect to the weighing, or the weighing machine, or the tareing of the tubs or trams, or with respect to the deductions or any other matter within the scope of his duties as checkweigher, so always nevertheless, that the working of the mine be not interrupted or impeded.

[§ 641.]

Section 14 *of the Act of* 1887.—(2.) It shall be lawful for the owner or manager of any mine, where the majority of the before-mentioned persons (*i.e.*, the persons employed in a mine who are paid according to the weight of the mineral gotten by them), ascertained as aforesaid (*i.e.*, by ballot), so agree, to retain the agreed contribution of the persons so employed and paid as aforesaid for the check weigher, notwithstanding the provisions of the Acts relating to truck, and to pay and account for the same to the checkweigher.

XI.—That it should be *compulsory* for the owner or manager, &c.

Section 20 *of the Act of* 1887.—(2.) A person shall not be qualified to be a manager of a mine unless he is for the time being registered as the holder of a first class certificate under this Act.

XII.—That analogous regulations should be introduced in the case of foremen and roadsmen.

Section 21 *of the Act of* 1887.—(2.) Every person so nominated (*i.e.* every under-manager) must hold either a first class or second class certificate under this Act.

Section 23 *of the Act of* 1887.—(1.) There shall be two descriptions of certificates of competency under this Act (i) first class certificates, that is to say, certificates of fitness to be manager; and (ii), second class certificates, that is to say, certificates of fitness to be undermanager; but no person shall be entitled to a certificate under this Act unless he shall have had practical experience in a mine for at least five years.

(2.) For the purpose of granting in any part of the United Kingdom, to be from time to time defined by an order from the Secretary of State, certificates of competency for the purposes of this Act, examiners shall be appointed by a board, &c. . . . .

Section 49 *of the Act of* 1887.—The following general rules shall be observed, so far as is reasonably practicable, in every mine.

Rule 22. Where the timbering of the working places is done by the workmen employed therein, suitable timber shall be provided at the working place, gate end, pass bye, siding or other similar place in the mine convenient to the workmen, and the distance between the sprags or holing props, where they are required, shall not exceed six feet or such less distance as may be ordered by the owner, agent, or manager.

XIII.—That the words "gate end, pass bye, siding, "or other similar place in the mine convenient to the "workmen," should be omitted.

Rule 38. The persons employed in a mine may, from time to time, appoint two of their number or any two persons, not being mining engineers, who are practical working miners, to inspect the mine at their own cost, and the persons so appointed shall be allowed once at least in every month, accompanied, if the owner, agent, or manager of the mine thinks fit, by himself or one or more officers of the mine, to go to every part of the mine, and to inspect the shafts, levels, planes, working places, return air-ways, ventilating apparatus, old workings and machinery. Every facility shall be afforded by the owner, agent, and manager, and all persons in the mine for the purpose of the inspection, and the persons appointed shall forthwith make a true report of the result of the inspection, and that report shall be recorded in a book to be kept at the mine for the purpose, and shall be signed by the persons who made the inspection; and if the report state the existence, or apprehended existence of any danger, the owner, agent, or manager shall forthwith cause a true copy of the report to be sent to the inspector of the district.

XIV.—That the words "or have been" should be inserted between the words "who are" and the words "practical working miners."

Rule 39. No person not now employed as a coal or ironstone getter shall be allowed to work alone as a coal or ironstone getter in the face of the workings,

XV.—That the words "or persons" should be inserted after the words "no person."

Text of the Act.	Proposed Amendments.
[§ 641.] until he has had two years' experience of such work, under the supervision of skilled workmen, or unless he shall have been previously employed for two years in or about the face of the workings of a mine.	XVI.—That no man should be regarded as "experienced" unless he has obtained a certificate from a joint examining board of employers and employed. [§ 641.] XVII.—That managers should be required to demand from all applicants for employment certificates signed by their previous employer, showing the duration and conditions of their former occupation, and, conversely, that they should be required to give such certificates to all men leaving their service. XVIII.—That the qualifying period should be reduced from two years to eighteen months, and that the experience of six of the eighteen months should be specialised.
Section 65 of the Act of 1887.—No prosecution shall be instituted against the owner, agent, manager, or under-manager of a mine for any offence under this Act, not committed personally by such owner, agent, manager, or under-manager, which can be prosecuted before a court of summary jurisdiction, except by an inspector or with the consent in writing of a Secretary of State; and in the case of any offence of which the owner, agent, or manager, or under-manager of a mine is not guilty, if he proves that he had taken all reasonable means to prevent the commission thereof, an inspector shall not institute any prosecution against such owner, agent, manager, or under-manager, if satisfied that he had taken such reasonable means as aforesaid. No prosecution shall be instituted against a coroner for any offence under this Act, except with the consent in writing of a Secretary of State. *Section 75 of the Act of* 1887.—In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires, ... "Secretary of State" means one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.	XIX.—That a manager or overman should be liable to prosecution without the consent of the inspector or of a Secretary of State being obtained, in respect of the acts done by the inexperienced men they may employ. XX.—That the administration of the Act should be entrusted to a special Minister of Mines. XXI.—That a clause should be inserted forbidding the double shift system. XXII.—That the number of men and sections that each foreman may superintend should be defined. XXIII.—That the foreman should be officially subordinated to the Government inspector of the district. XXIV.—That employers should be forbidden to sell coal at a lower price than would enable them to pay a certain fixed minimum wage. XXV.—That a maximum rate of profits should be fixed. XXVI.—That eight hours from bank to bank should be the maximum daily labour for all underground workers in mines. XXVII.—That eight hours of coal drawing per day should be the maximum.

THE CONSPIRACY AND PROTECTION OF PROPERTY ACT, 1875.

642. *Section 7 of the Act of* 1875.—Every person who, with a view to compel any other person to abstain from doing or to do any act which such other person has a legal right to do or abstain from doing, wrongfully and without legal authority—

I.—Uses violence to or *intimidates* such other person, or his wife or children, or injures his property; or

II.—*Persistently follows* such other person about from place to place; or

III.—Hides any tools, clothes, or other property owned or used by such other person or deprives him of or hinders him in the use thereof; or

IV.—Watches or *besets* the house or other place where such other person resides, or works, or carries on business or happens to be, or the approach to such house or place; or

V.—Follows such other person with two or more other persons in a disorderly manner in or through any street or road:

shall, on conviction thereof by a court of summary jurisdiction, or on indictment as herein-after mentioned, be liable either to pay a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds, or to be imprisoned for a term not exceeding three months with or without hard labour.

Attending at or near the house or place where a person resides or works or carries on business, or

I.—To define the terms "intimidates," "persistently follows," and "besets" in the text of the Act.

II.—That the said definition of "intimidation" should include such threats only as are accompanied by actual physical violence.

III.—That the said definition should include such acts only as are calculated to put a man in reasonable bodily fear, or as would justify a magistrate in binding over the offender to keep the peace.

IV.—That the said definition should cover the moral intimidation exercised by the assemblage of more than three men at a given spot for the purpose of picketing, the explanatory clause "attending at or near the house" &c. being repealed and the liberty of "giving information" being confined to the right of holding public meetings and canvassing the workmen's own homes.

V.—To make it illegal to strike against the employment of free labourers.

VI.—To disallow cumulative penalties under the Act.

642.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 642.]

happens to be or the approach to such house or place in order merely to obtain or communicate information shall not be deemed a watching or besetting within the meaning of this section.

VII.—To increase the penalties for offences under the Act.

VIII.—To deprive judges of the power of withholding the option of a fine, except for what a jury may consider to be an aggravated offence.

IX.—That the punishment for "intimidation" should be imprisonment without the option of a fine.

X.—To make the definition of intimidation cover the following acts on the part of employers:—blacklisting, eviction at less than three months' notice, dismissal without assignment of a valid reason, and engagement of men during a strike without informing them of its existence.

XI.—To make collection of subscriptions in the streets illegal.

XII.—To repeal the entire section.

THE CORONERS ACT, 1887.

643. *Section* 2.—This Act shall not apply to Scotland or Ireland.

Section 3.—(1.) Where a coroner is informed that the dead body of a person is lying within his jurisdiction, and there is reasonable cause to suspect that such person has died either a violent or unnatural death, or has died a sudden death of which the cause is unknown, or that such person has died in prison, or in such place or under such circumstances as to require an inquest in pursuance of any Act, the coroner, whether the cause of death arose within his jurisdiction or not, shall, as soon as practicable, issue his warrant for summoning not less than twelve nor more than twenty-three good and lawful men to appear before him at a specified time and place, there to inquire as jurors touching the death of such person as aforesaid.

I.—To extend the Act to Scotland.

II.—That coroners' juries should be composed o representatives of both employers and employed acquainted with the technicalities of the trade in connexion with which the fatal accident occurred.

III.—That the workmen should be represented on the jury, but that employers should be allowed to appear only through their solicitors.

IV.—To secure the attendance of trade union officials.

THE EMPLOYERS LIABILITY ACT, 1880.

644. *Section* 1.—Where, after the commencement of the Act, personal injury is caused to a workman—

I.—By reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery, or plant connected with or used in the business of the employer; or

II.—By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has the superintendence entrusted to him whilst in the exercise of such superintendence; or

III.—By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer to whose orders or directions the workmen at the time of the injury was bound to conform, and did conform, where such injury resulted from his having so conformed; or

IV.—By reason of the Act or omission of any person in the service of the employer due or made in obedience to the rules or byelaws of the employer, or in obedience to particular instructions given by any person delegated with authority of the employer, in that behalf; or

V.—By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has the charge or control of any signal, points, locomotive engine, or train upon a railway, the workman, or in case the injury results in death, the legal personal representatives of the workman, and any persons entitled in case of death, shall have the same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if the workman had not been a workman of, nor in the service of the employer, nor engaged in his work.

Section 2.—A workman shall not be entitled under this Act to any right of compensation or remedy against the employer in any of the following cases; that is to say:—

I.—Under sub-section one of section one, unless the defect therein mentioned arose from, or had not been discovered or remedied owing to, the negligence of the employer, or of some person in the service of the employer, and entrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works, machinery, or plant were in proper condition.

II.—Under sub-section four of section one, unless the injury resulted from some impropriety or defect in the rules, byelaws or instructions therein mentioned; provided that where a rule or byelaw has been approved

I.—That employers should be responsible for such accidents only as result from orders given by themselves or their representatives or from defective gear.

II.—That the words "for the time being" should be inserted after the words "superintendence entrusted to him."

III.—To make the original employer liable, even when the work in which the accident occurred is sublet.

IV.—That employers should be responsible in all cases where contributory negligence is not proved.

V.—That contributory negligence should no longer be a bar to the men's claims under the Act.

VI.—That the doctrine of common employment should be abolished altogether.

VII.—That insurance against employers' liability should be prohibited.

VIII.—That insurance companies defending actions jointly with employers should be obliged to satisfy the verdict.

IX.—That "contracting out" of the Act should be prohibited.

X.—That employers should be criminally liable for accidents due to their own or their servants' negligence and be punishable by imprisonment instead of by a money penalty.

[§ 644.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 6

or has been accepted as a proper rule or byelaw by one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, or by the Board of Trade or any other department of the Government under or by virtue of any Act of Parliament, it shall not be deemed for the purposes of this Act to be an improper or defective rule or byelaw.

III.—In any case, where the workman knew of the defect or negligence which caused his injury, and failed within a reasonable time to give or cause to be given, information thereof to the employer or some person superior to himself in the service of the employer, unless he was aware that the employer or such superior already knew of the said defect or negligence.

Section 3.—The amount of compensation recoverable under this Act shall not be found to be equivalent to the estimated earnings, during the three years preceding the injury, of a person in the same grade employed in the like employment and in the district in which the workman is employed at the time of the injury.

XI.—That the legal limit to the amount of compensation should be removed.

XII.—To forbid the employers from offering or the employed from accepting compensation before the case is taken into court.

Section 4.—An action for the recovery under this Act of compensation for an injury shall not be maintainable unless notice that injury has been sustained is given within six weeks, and the action is commenced within six months from the occurrence of the accident causing the injury, or, in case of death, within 12 months from the time of death; provided always, that in the case of death the want of such notice shall be no bar to the maintenance of such action if the judge should be of opinion that there was reasonable excuse for such notice.

XIII.—That the period of notice should be extended to three, six, or twelve months.

XIV.—That the period within which the action must be commenced should be extended.

Section 6.—1. Every action for recovery of compensation under this Act shall be brought in a county court, but may, upon the application of either plaintiff or defendant, be removed into a superior court in like manner and upon the same conditions as an action commenced in a county court may by law be removed.

XV.—That either party should be allowed to apply to a Government department to take up the case free of charge.

XVI.—That the right of appeal from a county court to a higher tribunal should be cancelled in the case of both plaintiff and defendant.

XVII.—That the said right of appeal should be cancelled except where a sum larger than 50*l.* is at stake.

XVIII.—That the said right should be cancelled except where a sum larger than 500*l.* is at stake.

XIX.—That the Act should apply to seamen.

Section 8.—For the purposes of this Act unless the context otherwise requires—

The expression "person who has superintendence entrusted to him" means a person whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence, and who is not ordinarily engaged in manual labour.

The expression "employer" includes a body of persons corporate or incorporate.

The expression "workman" means a railway servant or a person to whom the Employers and Workmen Act, 1875, applies.

Section 13 *of the Act of* 1875.—Nothing in this Act shall take away or abridge any local or special jurisdiction touching apprentices.

This Act shall not apply to seamen or apprentices to the sea service.

XX.—That working men inspectors of dock machinery should be appointed with administrative powers under the Act.

XXI.—That regular and frequent inspection of all spars and planks used in the construction of staging in connexion with the shipbuilding and boilermaking industries should be provided for, and that provision should further be made for the examination of the ropes and chains upon which the staging is suspended.

XXII.—That local sanitary authorities should be given power to examine oil tank steamers, and that all users of boilers should be compelled to have them inspected by certificated boilermakers appointed for the purpose.

XXIII.—That all statutes relating to employers' liability should be repealed.

THE FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACTS, 1878–1891.

Sanitation.

645. *Section* 3 *of the Act of* 1878.—A factory shall be kept in a cleanly state and free from effluvia arising from any drain, watercloset, earth-closet, privy, urinal, or other nuisance. A factory shall not be over-crowded while work is carried on therein as to be dangerous or injurious to the health of the persons employed therein, and shall be ventilated in such a manner as to render harmless so far as is practicable, all the gases, vapour, dust, or other impurities generated in the course of the manufacturing process or handicraft carried on therein that may be injurious to health.

A factory in which there is a contravention of this section shall be deemed not to be kept in conformity with this Act.

Sanitation.

I.—To define in more precise terms the obligation of employers to provide for decency and comfort.

II.—To give factory inspectors the same power in regard to the sanitary condition of workshops as they possess in regard to that of factories, and to put an end to the dual control of factory and sanitary inspectors.

III.—To empower trade union officials as well as factory inspectors to prosecute employers for breach of the sanitary regulations.

[§ 645.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 645.]

Section 3 of the Act of 1891.—(1.) Section three and thirty-three of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (which relates to cleanliness, ventilation, and overcrowding in and limewashing of factories and workshops), shall cease to apply to workshops.

(2.) For the purpose of their duties with respect to workshops (not being workshops to which the Public Health (London) Act, 1891, applies), a sanitary authority and their officers shall, without prejudice to their other powers, have all such powers of entry, inspection, taking legal proceeding or otherwise, as an inspector under the principal Acts.

Safety and Accidents.

Section 5 of the Act of 1875.—With respect to the fencing of machinery in a factory the following provisions shall have effect:—

(1.) Every hoist or teagle, and every fly-wheel directly connected with the steam or water or other mechanical power, whether in the engine-house or not, and every part of a steam engine and water wheel shall be securely fenced; and

(2.) Every wheel-race not otherwise secured shall be securely fenced close to the edge of the wheel-race; and

(3.) All dangerous parts of the machinery and every part of the mill-gearing shall either be securely fenced or be in such position or of such construction as to be equally safe to every person employed in the factory, as it would be if it were securely fenced; and

(4.) All fencing shall be constantly maintained in an efficient state while the parts required to be fenced are in motion or use for the purpose of any manufacturing process.

Section 9 of the Act of 1878.—A child shall not be allowed to clean any part of the machinery in a factory while the same is in motion by the aid of steam, water, or other mechanical power.

Safety and Accidents.

I.—To enforce the use of shuttle-guards in textile factories.

II.—To empower inspectors to order all dangerous machinery to be fenced, not merely the mill-gearing.

III.—To specify the hours during which machinery should be stopped and cleaned.

IV.—To re-enact section 3 of the Act of 1878, repealed in 1891, relating to the use of faulty grindstones, but omitting the seven days' notice proviso.

V.—To give inspectors power to deal with the faulty construction of workshops.

VI.—To extend the jurisdiction of factory inspectors to all spars and planks used in the construction of staging, and to all ropes and chains upon which staging is suspended.

VII.—To give local sanitary authorities power to examine oil tank steamers, and to compel all users of boilers to have them inspected by certificated boiler-makers appointed for the purpose.

Coroners' Inquests.

Section 22 of the Act of 1891.—(3.) Where a death has occurred in any factory or workshop, the coroner shall forthwith advise the district inspector under this Act of the time and place of the holding of the inquest, and at such inquest any relative of any person whose death may have been caused by the accident with respect to which the inquest is being held, and any inspector under the principal Act, and the occupier of the factory or workshop in which the accident occurred, and any person appointed by the order in writing of the majority of the workpeople employed in the same factory or workshop shall be at liberty to attend and examine any witness either in person, or by his counsel, solicitor, or agent, subject to the order of the coroner.

Section 33 of the Act of 1891.—(5.) Where a death has occurred by accident in any factory or workshop, a public inquiry in open court shall be held by the sheriff, upon the petition of any party interested, and the sheriff shall forthwith advise the district inspector under the Act of the time and place of holding of the inquiry, and at such inquiry any relative of any person whose death has been caused by the accident with respect to which the inquiry is being held and the occupier or manager of the factory or workshop in which the accident occurred, and any person appointed by the order in writing of the majority of workpeople employed in the said factory or workshop shall be at liberty to attend and examine any witness either in person or by his counsel, solicitor, or agent, subject nevertheless to the order of the sheriff.

Coroners' Inquests.

I.—To give union officials independent legal standing at inquests.

II.—To give the relatives of the deceased, in addition to the right of attending inquests and examining witnesses, either personally or by counsel, the further right, at present conferred only upon a majority of the fellow workmen, of appointing union officials, instead of solicitors, to represent them.

III.—To confine the composition of coroners' juries to persons connected with the trade in which the fatal accident occurred.

IV.—To render unnecessary the fifth sub-section of section 33 of the Act of 1891 by a complete assimilation of Scotch to English law on the subject of inquests into the causes of fatal accidents.

Tickets containing Particulars.

Section 24 of the Act of 1891.—Every person who is engaged as a weaver in the cotton, worsted, or woollen, or linen or jute trade, or as a winder, weaver, or reeler, in the cotton trade, and is paid by the piece, in or in connexion with any factory or workshop, shall have supplied to him with his work, sufficient particulars to enable him to ascertain the rates of wages at which he is entitled to be paid for the work, and the occupier of the factory or workshop shall supply him with such particulars accordingly

Tickets containing Particulars

I.—To enforce the issue to weavers of cards containing full particulars as to their rate of payment.

II.—To make section 24 of the Act of 1891 more elastic.

[§ 645.]

Text of the Act.

Domestic Workshops.

Section 37 *of the Act of* 1891.—(2.) In this Act the expression "domestic workshop" means a workshop to which section 16 of the principal Act applies.

Section 16 *of the Act of* 1878.—Where persons are employed at home, that is to say, in a private house, room, or place, which, though used as a dwelling, is by occasion of the work carried on there, a factory or workshop within the meaning of this Act and in which neither steam, water, nor other mechanical power is used in aid of the manufacturing process carried on there, and in which the only persons employed are members of the same factory dwelling there, the foregoing regulations of this Act with respect to the employment of children, young persons, and women, shall not apply to such factory or workshop, and in lieu thereof the following regulations shall be observed therein :—

Cotton Cloth Factories.

Section 8 *of the Act of* 1887.—The occupier of any cotton cloth factory in which humidity of the atmosphere is artificially produced shall give notice thereof in writing to the Chief Inspector of Factories.

Lead Factories.

Section 2 *of the Act of* 1883.—After the thirty-first day of December one thousand eight hundred and eighty-three, it shall not be lawful to carry on a white lead factory unless such factory is certified by an inspector to be in conformity with this Act.

Bakeries.

Section 15 *of the Act of* 1883.—It shall not be lawful to let or suffer to be occupied as a bakehouse, or to occupy as a bakehouse any room or place which was not so let or occupied before the first day of June one thousand eight hundred and eighty-three, unless the following regulations are complied with :—

(I.) No watercloset, earth-closet, privy, or ashpit shall be within or communicate directly with the bakehouse ;

(II.) Any cistern for supplying water to the bakehouse shall be separate and distinct from any cistern for supplying water to a watercloset ;

(III.) No drain or pipe for carrying off fæcal or sewage matter shall have an opening within the bakehouse.

Any person who lets, or suffers to be occupied, or who occupies any room or place as a bakehouse in contravention of this section, shall be liable, on summary conviction, to a fine not exceeding five shillings for every day during which any room or place is so occupied after a conviction under this section.

Overtime.

Section 54 *of the Act of* 1878.—If in any factory or workshop, or part thereof, to which this exception applies, the process in which a child, young person, or woman is employed is in an incomplete state at the end of the period of employment of such child, young person, or woman, the provisions of this Act with respect to the period of employment shall not prevent such child, young person, or woman from being employed for a further period not exceeding thirty minutes.

Medical Certificates of Fitness.

Section 27 *of the Act of* 1878.—In a factory a child or a young person under the age of sixteen years shall not be employed for more than seven, or, if the certifying surgeon for the district resides more than three miles from the factory, thirteen work days, unless the occupier of the factory has obtained a certificate in the prescribed form of the fitness of such child or young person for employment in that factory.

A certificate of fitness for employment for the purposes of this Act shall be granted by the certifying surgeon for the district.

Section 72 *of the Act of* 1878.—Subject to such regulations as may from time to time be made by a Secretary of State, an inspector may from time to time appoint a

Proposed Amendments.

[§ 64

Domestic Workshops.

I.—To compel employers to find accommodation for all their workpeople.

II.—To make owners of houses used for industrial purposes responsible for the observance of the Factory Acts on the part of their tenants.

III.—To make every giver-out of work responsible for the observance of the Factory Acts in whatever place he allows the work to be done.

IV.—To bring every place where more than one person works, even if no wages pass between them, under the definition of a workshop proper.

Cotton Cloth Factories.

I.—To make the law relating to steaming more elastic.

II.—To allow a similar latitude for steaming days as for overtime.

Lead Factories.

I.—To bring red lead factories under the same Act as white lead factories.

Bakeries.

I.—To prohibit underground bakeries.

II.—To cause all bakeries to be registered.

III.—To cause all bakeries to be built inside of white glazed brick.

Overtime.

I.—To abolish overtime in all cases.

II.—To allow employers, with the inspector's permission, to work overtime when pressed for delivery of goods.

Medical Certificates of Fitness.

I.—To introduce periodical medical examination of the children employed in the mills.

II.—That one registration and one certificate should hold good permanently.

III.—That medical certificates should be required in workshops as well as in factories.

IV.—To make the certifying surgeons independent of the millowners, like the factory inspectors.

V.—To appoint a medical inspector to judge whether women are capable of doing the tasks allotted to them without physical injury.

345.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 345.]

sufficient number of duly registered medical practitioners to be certifying surgeons for the purposes of this Act, and may from to time revoke any such appointment. A surgeon who is the occupier of a factory or workshop, or is directly or indirectly interested therein, or in any process or business carried on therein, or in a patent connected therewith, shall not be a certifying surgeon for that factory or workshop.

Employment of Women.

Section 17 *of the Act of* 1891.—An occupier of a factory or workshop shall not knowingly allow a woman to be employed therein within four weeks after she has given birth to a child.

Employment of Women.

I.—To extend the period during which mothers after confinement are excluded from factories from four weeks to six months.

II.—To prohibit the employment of women for a stated period before as well as after confinement.

III.—To prohibit female nailmakers from pointing nails larger than half an inch.

IV.—To prohibit the employment of women as barmaids.

V.—To compel employers to provide separate rooms for male and female workers in the tailoring trade.

Employment of "Young Persons."

Section 96 *of the Act of* 1878.—The expression of "young person" means a person of the age of fourteen years and under the age of eighteen years.

Employment of "Young Persons."

I.—To raise the age at which "young persons" may begin to be employed from 18 to 21.

Employment of Children under Thirteen.

Section 18 *of the Act of* 1891.—On and after the first day of January one thousand eight hundred and ninety-three no child under the age of eleven years shall be employed in a factory or workshop.

Section 23 *of the Act of* 1878.—The parent of a child employed in a factory or in a workshop shall cause that child to attend some recognised efficient school (which school may be selected by such parent) as follows:—

(1.) The child when employed in a morning or afternoon set shall in every week, during any part of which he is so employed, be caused to attend on each work day for at least one attendance; and

(2.) The child when employed on the alternate day system shall on each work day preceding each day of employment in the factory or workshop be caused to attend for at least two attendances;

(3.) An attendence for the purpose of this section shall be an attendance as defined, for the time being, by the Secretary of State, with the consent of the Education Department, and be between the hours of eight in the morning and six in the evening.

Employment of Children under Thirteen.

I.—To raise the age of half-timers to 12.

II.—To raise the age of half-timers to 13 and so to abolish the half-time system.

III.—To fix an educational standard instead of a certain age as the qualification for half-time work.

IV.—To let such a standard be the 4th.

V.—To let age and attendance be the sole qualification for half-time work, and to let such attendances be the aggregate for a school career instead of so many per annum.

VI.—To make the methods by which half-timers attend school more uniform.

VII.—To provide separate schools for half-timers.

VIII.—To prohibit the employment of children under 13 before 8.0 a.m. between 1st October and 31st March.

IX.—To prohibit all child labour under 14.

X.—To allow children to enter the mills at 10 years of age.

Employment of Children over Thirteen.

Section 96 *of the Act of* 1878.—In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires, the expression "child" means a person under the age of fourteen years.

Section 26 *of the Act of* 1878.—When a child of the age of thirteen years has obtained from a person authorised by the Education Department a certificate of having attained such standard of proficiency in reading, writing, and arithmetic, or such standard of previous due attendance at a certified efficient school, as herein-after mentioned, that child shall be deemed to be a young person for the purposes of this Act.

Employment of Children over Thirteen.

I.—To raise the age of full timers.

II.—To fix an educational standard instead of an age for full timers.

III.—To let the said standard be the 6th.

IV.—To let age and attendances be the sole qualification for full timers, and to let the attendances be the aggregate for the school career, instead of so many per annum.

Extension of the Acts.

Section 93 *of the Act of* 1878.—The expression "workshop" in the Act means—

(1.) Any premises or places named in Part Two of the Fourth Schedule to this Act, which are not a factory within the meaning of this Act;

(2.) Also any premises, room, or place, not being a factory within the meaning of this Act, in which premises, room, or place, or within the close curtilage or precincts of which premises any manual labour is exercised by way of trade or for the purpose of gain, in or incidental to the following purposes or any of them; that is to say—

(*a.*) In or incidental to the making of any article or of part of any article; or

(*b.*) In or incidental to the altering, repairing, ornamenting, or finishing of any article; or

Extension of the Acts.

I.—To extend the legal definition of "workshop" to all places where anybody works at manufacture in company with anybody other than his wife.

II.—To extend the legal definition of "workshop" to warehouses.

III.—To extend the Factory Acts to outdoor work in shipyards.

[§ 645.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 64

(c.) In or incidental to the adapting for sale of any article;

and to which or over which premises, room, or place the employer of the persons working therein has the right of access or control.

A part of a factory or workshop may for the purposes of this Act be taken to be a separate factory or workshop; and a room solely used for the purpose of sleeping therein shall not be deemed to form part of the factory or workshop for the purposes of this Act.

Where a place situate within the close curtilage or precincts forming a factory or workshop is solely used for some purpose other than the manufacturing process or handicraft carried on in the factory or workshop, such place shall not be deemed to form part of that factory or workshop for the purposes of this Act, but shall, if otherwise it would be a factory or workshop, be deemed to be a separate factory or workshop, and be regulated accordingly. Any premises or place shall not be excluded from the definition of a factory or workshop by reason only that such premises or place are or is in the open air.

. . This Act shall not apply to such workshops, other than bakehouses, as are conducted on the system of not employing any child, young person, or woman therein, but same as aforesaid applies to all factories and workshops as before defined, inclusive of factories and workshops belonging to the Crown; provided that in case of any public emergency, a Secretary of State may exempt a factory or workshop belonging to the Crown from this Act to the extent and during the period named by him.

Penalties.

Section 87 of the Act of 1878.—Where the occupier of a factory or workshop is charged with an offence against this Act he shall be entitled, upon information duly laid by him to have any other person whom he charges as the actual offender, brought before the court at the time appointed for hearing the charges; and if, after the commission of the offence has been proved, the occupier of the factory or workshop proves to the satisfaction of the court that he has used due diligence to enforce the execution of the Act, and that the said other person had committed the offence in question without his knowledge, consent, or connivance, the said other person shall be summarily convicted of such offence, and the occupier shall be exempt from any fine.

Penalties.

I.—To impose penalties under the Factory Acts upon the actual wrongdoer and not the innocent employer.

Administration.

Section 67 of the Act of 1878.—A Secretary of State from time to time, with the approval of the Treasury as to numbers and salaries, may appoint such inspectors (under whatever title he may from time to time fix), and such clerks and servants as he may think necessary for the execution of this Act, and may assign to them their duties, and award them their salary, and may constitute a principal inspector with an office in London, and may regulate the cases and manner in which the inspectors, or any of them, are to execute and perform the powers and duties of inspectors under this Act, and may remove such inspectors, clerks, and servants.

Administration.

I.—That, in small Irish provincial towns, the administration of the Acts should be vested in the police.

II.—That Factory Inspectors should be placed under the control of local committees.

III.—That the administration of the Acts should be transferred from the Home Office to the new Labour Department.

IV.—That the administration of the Factory Acts should be transferred to a new Ministry of Mines and Manufactures.

V.—That employers under the Factory Acts should be obliged to furnish balance sheets to the Board of Trade to be used as indicating what wages they could afford to pay.

VI.—That all the provisions of the Acts should be made more elastic.

THE FRIENDLY SOCIETIES ACTS, 1875–1893.

646. *Section 8 of the Act of* 1875.—The following societies shall be registered under this Act, viz.:—

(1.) Societies (herein called friendly societies) established to provide by voluntary subscriptions of the members thereof, with or without the aid of donations—

For the relief or maintenance of the members, their husbands, wives, children, fathers, mothers, brothers or sisters, nephews or nieces, or wards being orphans, during sickness or other infirmity, whether bodily or mental, in old age (which shall mean any age after 50), or in widowhood, or for the

I.—To deal with "collecting" friendly societies under a special Act.

II.—To deprive working men's clubs "for purposes "of social intercourse, mutual helpfulness, mental "and moral improvement, and rational recreation" of their eligibility for registration without being specially authorised.

III.—To make societies formed for the purpose of granting relief to members out of employment eligible for registration without being specially authorised.

relief or maintenance of the orphan children of members during minority;

For insuring money to be paid on the birth of a member's child, or on the death of a member, or for the funeral expenses of the husband, wife, or child of a member, or of the widow of a deceased member, or, as respects persons of the Jewish persuasion, for the payment of a sum of money during the period of confined mourning;

For the relief or maintenance of the members when on travel in search of employment, or when in distressed circumstances, or in case of shipwreck, or loss or damage of or to boats or nets;

For the endowment of members or nominees of members at any age;

For the insurance against fire to any amount not exceeding fifteen pounds of the tools or implements of the trade or calling of the members:

Provided that no society (except as aforesaid) which contracts with any person for the assurance of an annuity exceeding fifty pounds per annum, or of a gross sum exceeding two hundred pounds, shall be registered under this Act:

(2.) Societies (herein called cattle insurance societies) for the insurance to any amount against loss by death of neat cattle, sheep, lambs, and horses from disease or otherwise;

(3.) Societies for any benevolent or charitable purpose (herein called benevolent societies);

(4.) Societies (herein called working men's clubs) for purposes of social intercourse, mutual helpfulness, mental and moral improvement, and rational recreation;

(5.) Societies for any purpose which the Treasury may authorise as a purpose to which the powers and facilities of this Act ought to be extended (herein called "specially authorised societies").

Section 13 *of the Act of* 1875.—With respect to the rules of societies the following provisions shall have effect:—

IV.—To simplify the statutory formalities as to printing rules.

(1.) The rules of every society sent for registry shall, according to the class in which the society is to be registered, contain provisions in respect of the several matters mentioned in the Second Schedule to this Act.

(2.) No amendment of a rule made by a registered society shall be valid until the same has been registered under this Act, for which purpose copies of the same, signed by three members and the secretary, shall be sent to the registrar.

(3.) The provision herein contained as to appeals from a refusal of registry shall apply to amendments of rules.

(4.) The registrar shall, on being satisfied that any amendment of a rule is not contrary to the provision of this Act, issue to the society an acknowledgment of registry of the same, which shall be conclusive evidence that the same is duly registered.

(5.) A copy of the rules of a registered society shall be delivered by the society to every person on demand, on payment of a sum not exceeding one shilling.

(6.) If any person, with intent to mislead or defraud, gives to any other person a copy of any rules, laws, regulations, or other documents other than the rules for the time being registered under this Act, on the pretence that the same are existing rules of a registered society, or that there are no other rules of such society, or gives to any person a copy of any rules on the pretence that such rules are the rules of a registered society when the society is not registered, the person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor.

Section 14 *of the Act of* 1875.—With respect to the duties and obligations of registered societies the following provisions shall have effect:—

V.—To simplify the statutory formalities as to making returns.

(1.) Every registered society shall—

(*a.*) Have a registered office to which all communications and notices may be addressed, and send to the registrar notice of the situation of such office, and of every change therein:

(*b.*) From time to time at some meeting of the society, and by a resolution of a majority of the members present and entitled to vote thereat, appoint one or more trustees of the society, and send to the registrar a copy of every resolution appointing a trustee, signed by the trustee so appointed, and by the secretary of the society:

(*c.*) Once at least in every year submit its accounts for audit either to one of the public auditors appointed as herein mentioned, or to two or more

[§ 646.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 64

persons appointed as the rules of the society provide, which auditors shall have access to all books and accounts of the society, and shall examine the general statement of the receipts and expenditure, funds, and effects of the society, and verify the same with the accounts and vouchers relating thereto, and shall either sign the same as found by them to be correct, duly vouched and in accordance with law, or specially report to the society in what respects they find it incorrect, unvouched, or not in accordance with law:

(*d.*) Once in every year before the first day of June send to the registrar a general statement (to be called the annual return) of the receipts and expenditure, funds, and effects of the society as audited, which shall show separately the expenditure in respect of the several objects of the society, and shall be made out to the thirty-first December then last inclusively, and a copy of the auditor's report, if any, shall also be sent to the registrar with such general statement; and such annual return shall state whether the audit has been conducted by a public auditor appointed as in this Act provided, and by whom; and, if by any person or persons other than a public auditor, shall state name, address, and calling or profession of each of such persons, and the manner in which and the authority under which they were respectively appointed:

. . . . . .

(*f.*) Once at least in every five years either cause its assets and liabilities to be valued by a valuer to be appointed by the registrar shall be sent through an officer appointed in that behalf by the society of which the branch forms part.

(2.) No society shall pay any sum of money upon the death of a member or other person whose death is or ought to be entered in any register of deaths, except upon the production of a certificate of such death, under the hand of the registrar of deaths, or other person having the care of the register of deaths, in which such death is or ought to be entered.

This sub-section shall not apply to deaths at sea.

(3.) It shall be an offence under this Act if any registered society or any officer or member thereof—

(*a.*) Fails to give any notice, send any return or document, or do or allow to be done any act or thing which the society, officer, or person is by this Act required to give, send, do, or allow to be done:

(*b.*) Wilfully neglects or refuses to do any act or to furnish any information required for the purposes of this Act by the chief or any other registrar or other person authorised under this Act, or does any act or thing forbidden by this Act:

(*c.*) Makes a return or wilfully furnishes information in any respect false or insufficient.

(4.) Every offence by a society under this Act shall be deemed to have been also committed by every officer of the same, bound by the rules thereof to fulfil any duty whereof such offence is a breach, or if there be no such officer, then by every member of the committee of management of the same, unless such member be proved to have been ignorant of such offence; and every default under this Act constituting an offence, if continued, constitutes a new offence in every week during which the same continues.

(5.) Every annual or other return, abstract of valuation, and other document required for the purposes of this Act shall be made in such form and shall contain such particulars as the chief registrar prescribes.

(6.) All documents by this section required to be sent to the registrar shall be deposited with the rules of the societies to which the same respectively relate, and shall be registered or recorded by the registrar, with such observations thereon, if any, as the chief registrar shall direct:

Provided that the chief registrar, with the approval of the Treasury, may dispense with the valuation herein required in respect of societies to whose purposes or to the nature of whose operations, he may deem the same inapplicable; and the provisions herein contained in respect of the valuation shall not apply to benevolent societies, working men's clubs, or cattle insurance societies, nor to specially authorised societies, unless it be so directed in the authority for registering the same.

VI.—To prohibit friendly societies from taking contributions in consideration of sick pay for life, without getting an actuarial certificate.

VII.—To include building societies under the Friendly Societies Act.

THE HOSIERY MANUFACTURE (WAGES) ACT, 1874.

Text of the Act.	Proposed Amendments.
647. *Section* 2.—All contracts to stop wages, and all contracts for frame rents and charges, between employers and artificers, shall be and are hereby declared to be illegal, null, and void.	I.—To make deductions for expenses in lieu of frame rent illegal.

THE INDUSTRIAL AND PROVIDENT SOCIETIES ACT, 1876.

648. *Section* 9.—With respect to the rules of societies, the following provisions shall have effect:—	I.—To remove the limit of share capital per member.
(1.) The rules of every society sent for registry shall contain provisions in respect of the several matters mentioned in the Second Schedule to this Act.	
Schedule II.—Matters to be provided for by the rules of societies registered under this Act.	
(5.) Determination of the amount of interest, *not exceeding two hundred pounds sterling*, in the shares of the society, which any member other than a registered society may hold.	
(8.) Provision for the audit of accounts.	II.—To compel the submission of accounts to a public auditor.
Section 21.—The treasurer may from time to time appoint public auditors for the purposes of this Act, and may determine from time to time the rates of remuneration to be paid by societies for the services of such auditors, but the employment of auditors is not compulsory on any society.	
Section II.—Registered societies shall be entitled to the following privileges:—	III.—To make co-operative societies pay income tax without rebate to members.
(4.) The society shall not be chargeable under Schedule D. of the Income Tax Acts, but no member of or person employed by the same to whom any profits are paid shall be exempted from any assessment to the said duties to which he would otherwise be liable.	

THE MERCHANDISE MARKS ACT, 1887.

649. *Section* 2.—(1.) Every person who (*a*) forges any trade mark; or (*b*) falsely applies to goods any trade mark or any mark so nearly resembling a trade mark as to be calculated to deceive; or (*c*) makes any die, block, machine, or other instrument for the purpose of forging, or of being used for forging, a trade mark; or (*d*) applies any false description of goods; or (*e*) disposes of or has in his possession any die, block, machine, or other instrument for the purpose of forging a trade mark; or (*f*) causes any of the things above in this section mentioned to be done, shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, and unless he proves that he acted without intent to defraud, be guilty of an offence against this Act.	I.—To compel the words "machine made, dressed" to be put on all work made by machinery and dressed by hand. II.—To prohibit the words "warranted Sheffield" being put upon bad cutlery. III.—To cause all goods to be plainly marked with the manufacturer's name. IV.—To oblige machine-made goods that compete with hand-made goods to be marked as such. V.—To apply the law against false marking to false labelling also. VI.—To cause hand-made hosiery to be stamped as such.

THE MERCHANT SHIPPING ACTS, 1854–90.

Local Marine Boards.	*Local Marine Boards.*
650. *Section* 110 *of Act of* 1854.—There shall be local marine boards for carrying into effect the provisions of this Act, . . . and each of such local marine boards shall be constituted as follows; (that is to say) the mayor or provost and the stipendiary magistrate . . . shall be members ex officio; the Board of Trade shall appoint four members from persons residing or having places of business at the port or within seven miles thereof; and the owners of foreign-going ships and of home trade passenger ships registered at the port shall elect six members, &c.	I.—That the nominees of the Board of Trade should be persons not interested in shipping either directly or indirectly. II.—That six additional members should be elected by the properly qualified A.B.'s belonging to the Seamen's Union at each port.
Section 241 *of Act of* 1854.—If . . . . any local marine board has reason to believe that any master or mate is, from incompetency or misconduct, unfit to discharge his duties, . . . such persons as . . . the local marine board may appoint for the purpose shall, with the assistance of a local stipendiary magistrate, conduct the investigation, and may summon the master or mate to appear.	III.—That seamen should be enabled to secure the transfer of such cases as concern their interests from the jurisdiction of the local marine boards to that of the nearest magistrate that is not a shipowner.
Engagement of Seamen.	*Engagement of Seamen.*
Section 147 *of Act of* 1854.—The following offences shall be punishable as herein-after mentioned; (that is to say), If any person not licensed as aforesaid, other than the owner or master or a mate of the ship, or some person who is bonâ fide the servant and in the constant employ of the owner, or a shipping master duly appointed	I.—That the word "agent" should be inserted in place of the word "servant." II.—That the words "and in the constant employ" should be omitted.

[§ 650.] TEXT OF THE ACTS. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 65

as aforesaid, engages or supplies any seaman or apprentice to be entered on board any ship in the United Kingdom, he shall for each seaman or apprentice so engaged or supplied incur a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds. . . . .

Section 149 *of Act of* 1854.—The master of every ship shall enter into an agreement with every seaman whom he carries to sea from any port in the United Kingdom as one of his crew in the manner herein-after mentioned; and every such agreement shall be in a form sanctioned by the Board of Trade, and shall be dated at the time of the first signature thereof, and shall be signed by the master before any seaman signs the same, and shall contain the following particulars as terms thereof. . . . .

III.—That seamen should be forbidden under penalty to sign on for one ship before they are clear of their engagements for another.

IV.—That shipowners should have perfect liberty of contract as to the terms of their engagements with their men.

Section 150 *of Act of* 1854.—In the case of all foreign-going ships, in whatever part of Her Majesty's dominions the same are registered, the following rules shall be observed with respect to agreements; (that is to say),

I. Every agreement made in the United Kingdom . . . shall be signed by each seaman in the presence of a shipping master.

V.—That shipowners should have perfect liberty to sign these agreements when and where they please, and without the presence of an officer of the Mercantile Marine.

Allotment of Wages.

Section 149 *of Act of* 1854.—And every such agreement shall be so framed as to admit of stipulations to be adopted at the will of the master and seaman, in each case, as to advance and allotment of wages. . . .

Allotment of Wages.

I.—That allotment notes should be abolished, and that the full wages should be paid weekly to the seaman's family direct.

II.—That the forms of allotment notes should be sold only by authority of the Board of Trade.

III.—That cashiers of advance notes should be empowered to garnishee the future earnings on proving their claim before a magistrate or the Board of Trade.

Section 169 *of Act of* 1854.—The wife, or the father or mother, or the grandfather or grandmother, or any child or grandchild, or any brother or sister of any seaman in whose favour an allotment note of part of the wages of such seaman is made may . . . . sue for and receive the sums allotted by the note, and, as the same are made payable, with costs from the owner or any agent who has authorised the drawing of the note. . . . .

Section 3 *of the Act of* 1880.—I. Every agreement with a seaman . . . . . shall, if the seaman so require, stipulate for the allotment of any part not exceeding one half of the wages of the seaman in favour of one or more of the persons mentioned in section one hundred and sixty-nine of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, as amended by this section.

IV.—That the power of allotment should be extended from one half to two thirds of a seaman's wages.

II. The allotment may also be made in favour of a savings bank (vide infra, sub-section V.), and, in that case, shall be in favour of such persons and carried into effect in such manner as may be for the time being directed by regulations of the Board of Trade, and section one hundred and sixty-nine of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, shall be construed as if the said persons were named therein.

V.—That allotment notes should be made payable also to any registered trades union or friendly society.

III. . . . . .

IV. A payment under an allotment note shall begin at the expiration of one month, or if the allotment is in favour of a savings bank, of three months from the date of the agreement . . . . and shall be paid at the expiration of every subsequent month.

VI.—That payments under an allotment note should begin at the end of a week.

VII.—That the said payments should be made weekly.

V. For the purposes of this section, "savings' bank" means a savings bank established under one of the Acts mentioned in the First Schedule to this Act.

VIII.—That allotment notes should be made payable to any savings bank.

Provisions.

Provisions.

Section 149 *of Act of* 1854.—The master of every ship . . . . shall enter into an agreement with every seaman whom he carries to sea from any port in the United Kingham as one of his crew, in the manner herein-after mentioned; and every such agreement shall be in a form sanctioned by the Board of Trade . . . . ., and shall contain the following particulars as terms thereof; (that is to say), ...

I.—That the items of the authorised scale of provisions should be expressly stated in the text of the Act.

(6.) A scale of the provisions which are to be furnished to each seaman.

(7.) Any regulations as to . . . . short allowance of provisions or other lawful punishments for misconduct, which have been sanctioned by the Board of Trade, as regulations proper to be adopted, and which the parties agree to adopt.

II.—That a captain should no longer have the power of inflicting punishment by reducing the allowance of provisions.

Section 225 *of Act of* 1854.—Every master shall keep on board proper weights and measures for the purpose of determining the quantities of the several provisions

III.—That the law should further provide for the said weights and measures being kept in proper order.

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TEXT OF THE ACT.

and articles served out, and shall allow the same to be used at the time of serving out such provisions and articles, in the presence of a witness, whenever any dispute arises about such quantities, and, in default, shall for every offence incur a penalty not exceeding ten pounds.

Section 31 *of Passengers Act,* 1855.—Before any "passenger ship" shall be cleared out, the emigration officers at the port of clearance shall survey or cause to be surveyed by some competent person the provisions and water by this Act required to be placed on board for the consumption of the passengers, and shall satisfy himself that the same are of a good and wholesome quality, and in a sweet and good condition, and are in quantities sufficient to secure throughout the voyage the issues herein-after prescribed: In addition to the allowance of pure water for the use of each passenger there shall be shipped for cooking purposes an additional supply of pure water, after the rate of at least ten gallons for every day of the prescribed length of voyage for every one hundred statute adults on board; and also for the use of the crew and all other persons on board an ample supply of wholesome provisions and pure water, which shall not be inferior in quality to the supply of the same articles provided for the consumption of the passengers. . . . .

Cases of Illness.

Section 210 *of Act of* 1854.—Every such payment as aforesaid, whether by bill or in money, shall, if made in any British possession, be made to the seaman or apprentice himself, and, if made out of Her Majesty's dominions, to the consular officer, who shall, if satisfied with the account, endorse on one of the duplicates thereof a receipt for the amount paid or bill delivered, and shall return the same to the master; and the master shall, within 48 hours after his return to his post of destination in the United Kingdom, deliver the same to the shipping master there; and the consular officer shall retain the other duplicate of the said account, and shall, if the seaman or apprentice subsequently obtains employment at or otherwise quits the port, deduct out of the sum received by him as aforesaid any expenses which have been incurred by him in respect of the subsistence of the seaman or apprentice under the provisions herein contained, except such as the master or owner of the ship is hereby required to pay, and shall pay the remainder to the seaman or apprentice, and shall also deliver to him an account of the sums so received and expended on his behalf; and shall, if the seaman or apprentice dies before his ship quits the port, deal with the same in the manner herein-after specified in that behalf, and shall, if the seaman or apprentice is sent home at the public expense under the provisions herein contained, account for the amount received to the Board of Trade; and such amount shall, after deducting any expenses which have been duly incurred in respect of such seaman or apprentice, except such as the master or owner of the ship is hereby required to pay, be dealt with as wages to which he is entitled, and shall be paid accordingly.

Accommodation on Board Ship.

Section of Act of 1867.—The following rules shall be observed with respect to accommodation on board British ships (that is to say):—

I. Every place in any ship, occupied by seamen and appropriated to their use, shall have for every such seaman or apprentice a space of not less than seventy-two cubic feet measured on the deck or floor of such place.

Unseaworthiness of Ships, Undermanning, &c.

Section 5 *of October* 1876.—In every contract of service, express or implied, between the owner of a ship and the master or any seaman thereof, and in every instrument of apprenticeship whereby any person is bound to serve as an apprentice on board any ship, there shall be implied, notwithstanding any agreement to the contrary, an obligation on the owner of the ship, that the owner of the ship and the master, and every agent charged with the loading thereof for sea, or the sending thereof to sea, shall use all reasonable means to insure the seaworthiness of the ship for the voyage at the time when the voyage commences, and to keep her in a seaworthy condition for the voyage during the same: Provided that nothing in this section shall subject the owner of a ship to any liability by reason of the ship being sent to sea in an unseaworthy state, where,

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IV.—That section 31 of the Act of 1855 should be extended to ships that do not carry passengers.

Cases of Illness.

I.—That the expenses of sending home seamen invalided abroad should be paid by the shipowners, without deduction from the wages.

II.—That the wages of seamen invalided abroad should recommence at the moment they leave the hospital and embark upon their homeward voyage, and should continue until the moment of their arrival in the United Kingdom.

III.—That the seamen's hospital and medical expenses incurred abroad should be paid by the shipowners without deduction from the wages.

Accommodation on Board Ship.

I.—That the minimum accommodation per man should be extended from 72 to 120 cubic feet.

II.—That an open space of not less than 250 cubic feet should be set apart in the forecastle for the men to dry their clothes in.

Unseaworthiness of Ships, Undermanning, &c

I.—That no shipowner should be deemed to have "used all reasonable means" to make his vessel seaworthy unless it is manned according to a definite scale in proportion to its registered tonnage.

[§ 650.] TEXT OF THE ACT.

owing to special circumstances, the so sending thereof to sea is reasonable and justifiable.

Desertion.

Section 243 *of Act of* 1854.—Whenever any seaman who has been lawfully engaged, or any apprentice to the sea service, commits any of the following offences, he shall be liable to be punished summarily, as follows (that is to say):—

(I.) For desertion, he shall be liable . . . . . if such desertion takes place abroad, at the discretion of the court, to forfeit all or any part of the wages or emoluments he may earn in any other ship in which he may be employed until his return to the United Kingdom, and to satisfy any excess of wages paid by the master or owner of the ship from which he deserts to any substitute engaged in his place at a higher rate than the rate stipulated to be paid to him.

(II.) For neglecting or refusing, without reasonable cause, to join his ship, or to proceed to sea in his ship, or for absence without leave at any time within twenty-four hours of the ship's sailing . . . . . he shall be liable, ... at the discretion of the court, to forfeit out of his wages a sum not exceeding the amount of two days' pay, and, in addition, for every twenty-four hours of absence, either a sum not exceeding six days' pay, or any expenses which have been properly incurred in hiring a substitute.

Section 257 *of Act of* 1854.—Every person who by any means whatever persuades or attempts to persuade any seaman or apprentice to neglect or refuse to join or to proceed to sea in, or to desert from his ship, or otherwise to absent himself from his duty, shall for each such offence in respect of each such seaman or apprentice incur a penalty not exceeding ten pounds; and every person who wilfully harbours or secretes any seaman or apprentice who has deserted from his ship, or who has wilfully neglected or refused to join his ship, knowing or having reason to believe such seaman or apprentice to have so done, shall for every such seaman or apprentice so harboured or secreted incur a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds.

Section 10 *of Act of* 1880.—The following provisions shall, from the commencement of this Act, have operation within the United Kingdom:—

(I.) A seaman or apprentice to the sea service shall not be liable to imprisonment for deserting or for neglecting or refusing without reasonable cause to join his ship, or to proceed to sea in his ship, or for absence without leave at any time within twenty-four hours of his ship's sailing from any port, or for absence at any time without leave, and without sufficient reason, from his ship or from his duty.

(II.) . . . . . .

(III.) If a seaman or apprentice to the sea service intends to absent himself from his ship or his duty, he may give notice of his intention, either to the owner or to the master of the ship, not less than forty-eight hours before the time at which he ought to be on board his ship; and, in the event of such notice being given, the court shall not exercise any of the powers conferred on it by section two hundred and forty-seven of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854.

(IV.) Subject to the foregoing provision of this section, the powers conferred by section two hundred and forty-seven of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, may be exercised, notwithstanding the abolition of imprisonment for desertion and similar offences, and of apprehension without warrant.

Section 247 *of Act* of 1854.—Whenever any seaman or apprentice is brought before any court on the ground of his having neglected or refused to join or to proceed to sea in any ship in which he is engaged to serve, or of having deserted or otherwise absented himself therefrom without leave, such court may, if the master or the owner or his agent so requires . . . . . cause him to be conveyed on board for the purpose of proceeding on the voyage, or deliver him to the master or any mate of the ship, or the owner or his agent, to be by them so conveyed, and may in such case order any costs and expenses properly incurred by or on behalf of the master or owner by reason of the offence to be paid by the offender, and, if necessary, to be deducted from any wages which he has then earned, or which by virtue of his then existing engagement he may afterwards earn.

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Desertion.

I.—That shipowners should have the same power of arresting the wages of seamen deserting or failing to join in home ports as they possess in foreign ports.

II.—That accessories after the fact should cease to be criminally liable.

III.—That desertion or failure to join should be once more made a crime, and summarily punishable as such by fine or imprisonment.

IV.—That desertion or failure to join should be criminally punishable, provided that the man in question had no intention of fulfilling the terms of the articles at the time when he signed them.

V.—That sub-sections three and four should read as follows:—"If a seaman or apprentice to the sea service intends to absent himself from his ship or his duty, he may give notice of his intention either to the owner, master, mate, or engineer in charge, or other agent connected with the ship, not less than twelve hours previous to the sailing of the ship, provided that he has been on the articles twenty-four hours prior to the sailing of the vessel. Should he have been signed a lesser period than twenty-four hours prior to the ship's sailing, three hours shall be deemed sufficient before the time at which he ought to be on board ship. And in the event of such notice being given, the court shall not exercise any of the powers conferred on it in section two hundred and forty-seven of the Merchant Act of 1854."

VI.—That masters should be required to give the same notice as the men for cancelling the contract of hiring after articles have been signed.

VII.—That seamen should be permitted to cancel their contracts, by giving forty-eight hours' notice, only when they have a reasonable excuse for so doing.

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Deck Cargoes, Overloading, &c.

Section 24 *of Act of* 1876.—After the first day of November one thousand eight hundred and seventy-six, if a ship, British or foreign, arrives between the last day of October and the sixteenth day of April in any year at any port in the United Kingdom from any port out of the United Kingdom, carrying as deck cargo, that is to say, in any uncovered space upon deck, or in any covered space not included in the cubical contents forming the ship's registered tonnage, any wood goods coming within the following descriptions (that is to say):—

(*a.*) Any square, round, waney or other timber, or any pitch, pine, mahogany, oak, teak, or other heavy wood goods whatever; or

(*b.*) Any more than five spare spars or storespars, whether or not made, dressed, and finally prepared for use; or

(*c.*) Any deals, battens, or other light wood goods of any description to a height exceeding three feet above the deck;

the master of the ship, and also the owner, if he is privy to the offence, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding five pounds for every hundred cubic feet of wood goods carried in contravention of this section, and such penalty may be recovered by action or an indictment or to an amount not exceeding one hundred pounds (whatever may be the maximum penalty recoverable) on summary conviction.

Rating of Seamen, Discharges, &c.

Section 172 *of Act of* 1854.—Upon the discharge of any seaman, or upon payment of his wages, the master shall sign and give him a certificate of his discharge, in a form sanctioned by the Board of Trade, specifying the period of his service and the time and place of his discharge; and if any master fails to sign and give to any such seaman such certificate of discharge he shall for each such offence incur a penalty not exceeding ten pounds; and the master shall also, upon the discharge of every certificated mate whose certificate of competency or service has been delivered to and retained by him, retain such certificate, and shall in default incur a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds.

Section 7 *of Act of* 1880.—A seaman not entitled to the rating of A.B., that is to say, of an able bodied seaman, unless he has served at sea for four years before the mast; but the employment of fishermen in registered decked fishing vessels shall only count as sea service up to the period of three years of such employment; and the rating of A.B. shall only be granted after at least one year's service in a trading vessel in addition to three or more years' sea service on board of registered decked fishing vessels.

Such service may be proved by certificates of discharge . . . or by other satisfactory proof.

Water-tight Compartments.

Section 300 *of Act of* 1854.—The following rules shall be observed with respect to the build of iron steam ships (that is to say):—

(I.) Every steam ship built of iron of one hundred tons or upwards, the building of which commenced after the twenty-eighth day of August one thousand eight hundred and forty-six, and every steamship built of iron of less burden than one hundred tons, the building of which commenced after the seventh day of August one thousand eight hundred and fifty-one (except ships used solely as steam tugs) shall be divided by substantial transverse water-tight partitions, so that the after part of such ship shall be separated from the engine rooms by another of such partitions:

(II.) Every steam ship built of iron, the building of which commences after the passing of this Act, shall be divided by such partitions as aforesaid into not less than three equal parts, or as nearly so as circumstances permit:

(III.) In such last-mentioned ships, each such partition as aforesaid shall be of equal strength with the side plates of the ship with which it is in contact:

(IV.) Every screw steam ship built of iron, the building of which commenced after the passing of this Act, shall, in addition to the above partitions, be fitted with a small water-tight compartment enclosing the after extremity of the shaft:

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 650.]

Deck Cargoes, Overloading, &c.

I.—That deck loading on both British and foreign ships within the jurisdiction should be altogether prohibited during the winter and allowed during the summer only to the extent of three feet.

II.—That deck loading on both British and foreign ships within the jurisdiction should be altogether prohibited for winter voyages across the Atlantic ocean.

III.—That, in the case of outgoing vessels, the issue of clearance papers should be made contingent upon the requirements of the law as to loading being satisfactorily carried out, and, in the case of incoming vessels, the magistrates should be empowered to confiscate all the timber carried illegally.

Rating of Seamen, Discharges, &c.

I.—That discharges should be exchanged for certificates of competency, similar to those issued to officers, and obtainable by a practical examination.

II.—That it should be made a penal offence to employ as an A.B. a seaman unprovided with such a certificate.

III.—That similar certificates should be issued under similar conditions to firemen, cooks, and stewards.

IV.—That discharges should be "continuous," *i.e.*, should contain a record of the whole of a seaman's career instead of his last voyage.

Water-tight Compartments.

I.—That section 300 of the Act of 1854, repealed by the Act of 1862, should be re-enacted.

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And an officer of customs or other person shall grant a clearance or transire for any iron steam ships required to be divided or fitted as aforesaid, unless the same is so divided and fitted; and if any such ship attempts to ply or go to sea without such clearance or transire, any such officer may detain her until she is so divided and fitted; and if any steam ship herein-before required to be so divided or fitted plies or goes to sea without being so divided or fitted, the owner shall incur a penalty not exceeding one hundred pounds.

Section 2 *of Act of* 1862.—The enactments described in Table (A.) in the schedule of this Act shall be repealed as therein mentioned.

Schedule: Table A.—Sections 300, 323, 504, and 505 to be repealed immediately on the passing of this Act.

Liability of Shipowners.

Sections 502–516 *of Act of* 1854.

Sections 54–56 *of Act of* 1862.

Liability of Shipowners.

I.—That the Employers Liability Act of 1880 should be extended to seamen.

Presence of unauthorised Persons on board Ship.

Section 5 *of Act of* 1880.—When a ship is about to arrive, is arriving, or has arrived at the end of her voyage, every person not being in Her Majesty's service or not being duly authorised by law for the purpose, who—

(I.) Goes on board the ship without the permission of the master, before the seamen lawfully leave the ship at the end of their engagement, or are discharged (whichever last happens); or

(II.) Being on board the ship, remains there after being warned to leave by the master or by a police officer, or by any officer of the Board of Trade or of the Customs:

shall for every such offence be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding twenty pounds, or, at the discretion of the court to imprisonment for any term not exceeding six months; and the master of the ship, or any officer of the Board of Trade, may take him into custody and deliver him up forthwith to a constable, to be taken before a court or magistrate capable of taking cognizance of the offence, and dealt with according to law.

Presence of unauthorised Persons on board Ship.

I.—That the provisions of this section should be extended to ships on the point of departure.

Life-saving Appliances.

Section 6 *of Act of* 1888.—The rules made under this Act shall not apply to any sea-fishing boat which is for the time being registered in pursuance of the Sea Fisheries Act, 1888.

Life-saving Appliances,

I.—That the Merchant Shipping (Life-saving Appliances) Act, 1888, should apply to fishing boats.

Fishing Boats.

Section 8 *of Act of* 1887.—(1.) After the first day of July one thousand eight hundred and eighty-eight, a trawler of twenty-five tons registered tonnage or upwards shall not go to sea from any port in the United Kingdom unless the second hand (as well as the skipper) thereof is the holder of a certificate of competency or service entitling him . . . . . to act as second hand of the trawler.

(2.) If any such trawler goes to sea contrary to this section, the owner thereof shall incur for each such offence a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds.

(3.) Every person who, except in cases of necessity—

(*a.*) Having been engaged to serve as second hand of any such trawler, and not being the holder of a certificate entitling him . . . . . to act as second hand of the trawler, serves as such second hand; or

(*b.*) Employs any person as second hand of any such trawler without having ascertained that he is the holder of a certificate entitling him . . . to act in that capacity:

shall for each such offence incur a penalty not exceeding twenty pounds.

Fishing Boats.

I.—That the provisions of the Act relating to certificates should be amended.

THE METALLIFEROUS MINES REGULATION ACT, 1872.

651. *Section* 3 *of the Act of* 1872.—This Act shall apply to every mine of whatever description, other than a mine to which the Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1872, applies (*i.e.*, mines of coal, mines of stratified ironstone, mines of shale, and mines of fire-clay).

I.—That the Act should apply to open quarries.

651.]	Text of the Act.	Proposed Amendments.	[§ 651.]
	Section 41 *of the Act of* 1872.—In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires— The term "mine" includes every shaft in the course of being sunk, and every level and inclined plane in the course of being driven for commencing or opening any mine, or for searching for or proving minerals, and all the shafts, levels, planes, works, machinery, tramways, and sidings, both below ground and above ground, in and adjacent to a mine, and any such shaft, level, and inclined plane, and belonging to the mine: The term "shaft" includes pit.		
	Section 15 *of the Act of* 1872.—A Secretary of State may from time to time appoint any fit persons to be inspectors of mines to which this Act applies . . . . . Any person appointed or acting as inspector under the Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1872, if directed by a Secretary of State to Act as an inspector under this Act may so act, and shall be deemed to be an inspector under this Act.	II.—That slate quarries, both underground and open should be placed under a special staff of inspectors.	

THE METROPOLITAN PUBLIC CARRIAGE ACT, 1869.

652.	*Section* 6.—One of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State may from time to time license to ply for hire within the limits of this Act hackney and stage carriages, to be distinguished in such a manner as he may by order prescribe.	I.—That the licenses should be granted by the London County Council or the Board of Trade, which authority should limit the number of licenses according to public requirements and convenience.	
	Section 9, *Sub-section* 3.—The said Secretary of State may from time to time, by order, make regulations for all or any of the following purposes; that is to say, for fixing the rates or fares, as well for time as distance, to be paid for hackney carriages, and for securing the due publication of such fares; provided that it shall not be compulsory on the driver of any hackney carriage to take passengers at a less fare than the fare payable at the time of the passing of this Act.	II.—To enable the Secretary of State to fix the price paid for cabs by drivers to proprietors.	
	Section 11.—Any license grantable by a Secretary of State under this Act may, if the said Secretary of State so direct, be granted by the Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police, or by such other person as the said Secretary of State appoints for the purpose.	III.—To transfer the control of the cab traffic from the Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police to the London County Council.	
	Section 13.—All penalties under this Act may be recovered summarily in the manner directed by 11 & 12 Vict. c. 43., and any Act amending the same.	IV.—To empower magistrates to deal summarily with cab thieves.	
	Section 15.—All the provisions of the Acts relating to hackney carriages and metropolitan stage carriages in force at the time of the commencement of this Act shall, subject to any alteration made therein by this Act or by any order or regulation of the said Secretary of State made in pursuance of this Act, continue in force, and all such provisions of the said Acts as relate to licenses granted under those Acts or any of them, subject to any alteration as aforesaid, apply to licenses granted under this Act.	V.—To repeal 46 Geo. III. c. 134. s. 35., forbidding cabs to ply for hire within 300 feet of any house in Bloomsbury Square, under penalty of 40*s.* or a month's hard labour. VI.—To amend 6 & 7 Vict. c. 86. s. 38., by substituting 10*l.* for 3*l.* as the amount recoverable by proprietors from drivers for wilful damage to cabs. VII.—To repeal 6 & 7 Vict. c. 86. s. 35., which enables proprietors to be called upon to produce drivers.	

THE MIDLAND RAILWAY (ADDITIONAL POWERS) ACT, 1867.

653.	*Section* 57.—The per-centage of their salaries which the officers and servants of the company shall contribute to the fund not exceeding the rate of two pounds ten shillings for each one hundred pounds of their respective salaries in the case of officers under 40 years of age at the time of becoming contributors to the fund.	I.—To prevent evasions of the provision of the Act to the effect that the company should pay an equivalent amount to the men's contributions to the mutual insurance fund.	
	Section 58.—The company shall, at the end of each and every half year after the establishment of the superannuation fund, contribute out of the revenues of the company a sum equal in amount to the sum which, during the same half year, has been contributed thereto by the officers and servants of the company, and such further sum as the company and the committee from time to time agree upon, not exceeding one half of such specified contribution.	II.—To repeal the provision to the effect that any member dismissed for dishonesty or retiring to avoid such dismissal should forfeit the whole of his contributions. III.—To establish instead a fund under the control of Government, but composed of subscriptions from the parties. IV.—To enact that the third of the three actuaries appointed in connexion with the fund should be appointed by the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies or some other independent authority.	

[§ 654.] THE OUSE (LOWER) IMPROVEMENT ACT, 1884. [§ 65

Text of the Act.	Proposed Amendments.
654. *Section* 46 *of the Act of* 1884.—In addition to the byelaws which, under the provisions with respect to the byelaws to be made by the undertakers in the Harbours, Docks, and Piers Clauses Act, 1847, contained, the undertakers may from time to time make, it shall be lawful for them from time to time to make, alter, and repeal and renew such byelaws as they think fit for all or any of the following purposes (that is to say)	I.—That the Act should be brought more immediately under the control of the Board of Trade.
Section 47 *of the Act of* 1884.—All byelaws made by the undertakers under this Act, except so far as they relate solely to the undertakers or their officers or servants, shall be subject to the provisions, with respect to byelaws, of the Harbours, Docks, and Piers Clauses Act, 1847, incorporated with this Act, but shall not have any force or effect unless and until the same be confirmed by the Board of Trade.	

THE PAYMENT OF WAGES IN PUBLIC-HOUSES PROHIBITION ACT, 1883.

655. *Section* 3 *of the Act of* 1883.—From and after the passing of this Act no wages shall be paid to any workman at or within any public-house, beershop, or place for the sale of any spirits, wine, cyder, or other spirituous or fermented liquor, or any office, gardens, or place belonging thereto or occupied therewith save and except such wages as are paid by the resident, owner or occupier of such public-house, beershop, or place to any workman bonâ fide employed by him.	I.—That, in the case of canal boats, lighters, &c., the payment of freightage in public-houses should be prohibited.
Every person who contravenes or fails to comply with or permits any person to contravene or fail to comply with this Act shall be guilty of an offence against this Act.	II.—To forbid orders to workmen being given in public-houses.
And in the event of any wages being paid by any person in contravention of the provisions of this Act for or on behalf of any employer, such employer shall himself be guilty of an offence against this Act, unless he prove that he had taken all reasonable means in his power for enforcing the provisions of this Act and to prevent such contravention.	III.—That publicans should be liable for permitting the Act to be broken, only if it can be proved that they were aware that wages were being paid illegally under their roof.
	IV.—That a member of a gang of workmen should cease to be liable for paying his fellows in a public-house, such liability resting solely on the employer.
Section 4 *of the Act of* 1883.—Every person who is guilty of an offence against this Act shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding ten pounds for each offence; and all offences against this Act may be prosecuted and all penalties under this Act may be recovered by any person summarily in England in the manner provided by the Summary Jurisdiction (Scotland) Acts, 1864 and 1881.	V.—That offences against the Act should be punished by imprisonment instead of by fine.

THE PREFERENTIAL PAYMENTS IN BANKRUPTCY ACT, 1888.

656. *Section* 1.—(*b.*) All wages of any labourer or workman not exceeding twenty-five pounds, whether payable for time or for piece work in respect of services rendered to the bankrupt or the company during two months before the date of the receiving order, or as the case may be, the commencement of the winding up: Provided that where any labourer in husbandry has entered into a contract for the payment of a portion of his wages in a lump sum at the end of the year of hiring, he shall have priority in respect of the whole of such sum, or a part thereof, as the court may decide to be due under the contract proportionate to the time of service up to the date of the receiving order, or, as the case may be, the commencement of the winding up.	I.—To empower the official receiver or trustee to advance wages, on the date at which they become due, on the security of the assets in the estate.

THE RAILWAY REGULATION ACT, 1893.

657. *Section* 1.—If it is represented to the Board of Trade, by or on behalf of the servants or any class of the servants, of the railway company that the hours of labour of these servants, or of that class or, in any special case, of any particular servants engaged in working the traffic, or any part of the lines of the company, are excessive, or do not provide sufficient intervals of uninterrupted rest, between the periods of duty, or sufficient relief in respect of Sunday duty, the Board of Trade shall inquire into the representation.	I.—To enforce a maximum working day of ten hours for railway servants in general, and eight hours for signalmen on main lines, in boxes always open. To limit a week's labour to six shifts, and to cause Sunday and overtime work to be paid for at the rate of time and a half.
(2.) If it appears to the Board of Trade, either on such representation or otherwise, that there is, in the case of any railway company, reasonable ground of complaint with respect to any of the matters aforesaid, the Board of Trade shall order the company to submit	II.—To allow, on application to the Board of Trade by a majority of the men employed in handling the traffic in the service or in any one grade of the service of any railway company, the following regulations to be enforced in respect of the applicants:—
	(i.) The regulations of the hours of duty of railway men shall be such that the period of 10 hours shall not be exceeded in any one day's work, nor shall those

[§ 657.] TEXT OF THE ACT.

to them within a period specified by the Board of Trade such a schedule of time for the duty of the servants or of any class of the servants of the company as will in the opinion of the Board bring the actual hours of work within reasonable limits, regard being had to all the circumstances of the traffic and to the nature of the work.

(3.) If a railway company fail to comply with any such order, or to enforce the provisions of any schedule submitted to the Board in pursuance of any such order and approved by the Board, the Board may refer the matter to the Railway and Canal Commission, and thereupon the Railway and Canal Commission shall have jurisdiction in the matter, and the Board may appear in support of the reference and the Commission may make an order requiring the railway company to submit to the Commission, within a period specified by the Commission, such a schedule as will, in the opinion of the Commission, bring the actual hours of work within reasonable limits.

(4.) If a railway company fail to comply with any order made by the Railway and Canal Commission in pursuance of this section, or to enforce the provision of any schedule submitted to the Railway and Canal Commission, in pursuance of any such order, and approved by that Commission, the company shall be liable to a fine not exceeding one hundred pounds for every day during which the default continues.

(5.) The Railway and Canal Traffic Act, 1888, shall apply in the case of any jurisdiction exercised or order made by the Railway and Canal Commission under this Act as if it were exercised or made under or for the purposes of that Act: Provided that notwithstanding anything in section five of that Act the jurisdiction of the Commission for the purposes of this Act may be exercised by the two appointed Commissioners.

(6.) The Board of Trade and the Railway and Canal Commission respectively may from time to time rescind or vary any order made by them under this section, and make such supplemental order as the circumstances of the case may appear to require.

(7.) This Act shall not apply to any servant of a railway company who is in the opinion of the Board of Trade wholly employed either in clerical work or in the company's workshop.

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duties be resumed without there having been allowed an interval of nine hours for rest, excepting in the case of accidents. Where meal hours are allowed, an hour may be deducted from the total of the day's work in cases only where the workman has been for that period free to leave the railway company's premises and clear of all responsibilities and duties.

(ii.) In the case of signalmen and pointsmen, the signal cabins shall be scheduled into three classes, the hours of duty in each to be restricted as under:—

(*a.*) First class, not to exceed eight hours per day.
(*b.*) Second class, not to exceed nine hours per day.
(*c.*) Third class, not to exceed ten hours per day.

(iii.) The hours of duty of men employed exclusively in the occupation of shunting shall not exceed eight per day. In the event of a railway company keeping a workman on duty beyond the prescribed number of hours, it shall pay such workman for the said overwork at twenty-five per centum over and above the rate of pay for the ordinary day's work. Any failure to comply with this requirement shall, on being proved to the Board of Trade, be met by an order of the Board of Trade enforcing such payment. In any case where the day's work of a railway man exceeds twelve hours, it shall be reported to the Board of Trade, who will inquire into the cause of the said overwork, and, unless the same be found to have occurred through some accident or other unforeseen occurrence beyond the control of the responsible officers of the railway company, the Board of Trade shall have power to impose a penalty on the company for the offence.

III.—To make it compulsory for engine drivers to pass an examination and obtain certificates of competency from the Board of Trade.

IV.—That the Board of Trade should have power to appoint sub-inspectors to supervise the working of railways under the direction of the present inspectors, and especially to inquire into accidents to individual railway servants, who are not at present specially brought to the notice of the Board of Trade and to ascertain whether such accidents were due to excessive hours of work.

THE SHOP HOURS ACT, 1892.

658. *Section* 1.—This Act may be cited as the Shop Hours Act, 1892.

Section 2.—This Act shall come into operation on the first day of September one thousand eight hundred and ninety-two.

Section 3.—(1.) No young person shall be employed in or about a shop for a longer period than seventy-four hours, including meal hours, in any one week.

(2.) No young person shall, to the knowledge of the employer, be employed in or about a shop, having been previously on the same day employed in any factory or workshop, as defined by the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, for the number of hours permitted by the said Act, or for a longer period than will, together with the time during which he has been so previously employed, complete such number of hours.

Section 4.—In every shop in which a young person is employed a notice shall be kept exhibited by the employer in a conspicuous place, referring to the provision of this Act, and stating the number of hours in the week during which a young person may lawfully be employed in that shop.

Section 5.—Where any young person is employed in or about a shop contrary to the provision of this Act, the employer shall be liable to a fine not exceeding one pound for each person so employed.

Section 6.—Where the employer of any young person is charged with any offence against this Act, he shall be entitled upon information duly laid by him to have any other person whom he charges as the actual offender brought before the court at the time appointed for hearing the charge, and if after the commission of the offence has been proved, the said employer proves to the satisfaction of the court that he has used due diligence to enforce the execution of the Act, and that the said other person has committed the offence in

I.—To make the closing of shops in each town at a fixed hour compulsory.

II.—To give local authorities power to enforce any regulations for the closing of shops, which shall receive the support of two-thirds of the shopkeepers in any town or district.

III.—To compel employers to give references except for a just cause.

IV.—To forbid shop assistants signing agreements not to take future situations within a certain distance of theirpresent situation.

V.—Instead of enforcing the early closing of shops, to introduce an eight hours' day for shop assistants.

VI.—To establish a fair rent court for shopkeepers.

VII.—To require shop assistants engaged in heavy work to have medical certificates of fitness.

VIII.—To insert in an Act enforcing early closing by local option a provision as to intervals for dinner and tea.

IX.—To extend the operation of the Act to every shop assessed for rates of 13*l.* and upwards.

X.—To exempt certain trades from its provisions, *e.g.*, tobacconists, restaurants, chemists, &c.

XI.—To suggest to the local authorities the advisability of ordering the shops within their jurisdiction to be closed at 7.0 p.m. on four, and at 9.0 p.m. or 10.0 p.m. on two days of the week.

XII.—To state in the text of the Act the fund from which town or county authorities are to pay the inspectors they "may appoint."

[§ 658.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 6

question without his knowledge, consent, or connivance, the said other person shall be summarily convicted of such offence and the occupier shall be exempt from any fine.

Section 7.—All offences under this Act shall be prosecuted, and all fines shall be recovered in like manner as offences and fines are prosecuted and recovered under the Fact and Workshop Act, 1878, and sections eighty-eight, eighty-nine, ninety, and ninety-one of the said Act, and so much of section ninety-two thereof as relates to evidence respecting the age of any person, and the provision relating to the application of the said Act to Scotland and Ireland, so far as these provisions are applicable, shall have effect as if re-enacted in this Act, and in terms made applicable thereto.

Section 8.—The council of any county or borough, and in the city of London the Common Council, may approve such inspectors as they may think necessary for the execution of this Act within the areas of their respective jurisdiction, and sections sixty-eight and seventy of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, shall apply in the case of any such inspector as if he were appointed under the Act, and as if the expression workshop as used in those sections included any shop within the meaning of this Act.

The powers conferred by this section may be exercised in Ireland by the council of any municipal borough, and by the commissioners of any town or township.

Section 9.—In this Act unless the context otherwise requires:—

"Shop" means retail and wholesale shops, market stalls, and warehouses in which assistants are employed for hire, and includes licensed public-houses and refreshment houses of any kind.

"Young person" means a person under the age of eighteen years.

Other words and expressions have the same meanings respectively as in the Factory and Workshops Acts, 1878.

Section 10.—Nothing in this Act shall apply to a shop where the only persons employed are members of the same family dwelling in the building of which the shop forms part, or to which the shop is attached, or to members of the employer's family so dwelling, or to any person wholly employed as a domestic servant.

XIII.—To appoint Government Inspectors under the Act.

THE THAMES CONSERVANCY ACTS, 1857–1870.

659. *Section* 2 *of the Act of* 1857.—There shall be twelve conservators for carrying this Act into execution, and such conservators shall be a body corporate by the name of "the Conservators of the River Thames," and by that name shall have perpetual succession and a common seal, and shall have power . . . . . .

Section 3 *of the Act of* 1857.—The Lord Mayor shall be one of the conservators, two other of such conservators shall be aldermen of the said city, four other of such conservators shall be members of the Common Council of the said city, one other of such conservators shall be the Deputy Master of the Trinity House for the time being, two others of such conservators shall be appointed by the Lord High Admiral of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or by the Commissioners for executing the office of Lord High Admiral of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, one other of such conservators shall be appointed by the Lords of the Committee of the Privy Council appointed for the consideration of matters relating to trade and foreign plantations, and one other of such conservators shall be appointed by the Master, Wardens, and Assistants of the Corporation of Trinity House of Deptford Strond.

Section 5 *of the Act of* 1864.—In addition to the twelve conservators acting under the principal Act, ... there shall be six conservators elected under this Act . . . . . .

Section 6 *of the Act of* 1864.—The six additional conservators . . . . . shall, ... be elected by the following classes of electors . . . . . ; namely,

Two by owners of shipping registered in the Custom House books of the port of London:

One by owners of steamers surveyed and certificated as passenger steamers by the Board of Trade (under

I.—That the authority in control of the Thames should be popularly elected.

659.]

TEXT OF THE ACT.

the Merchant Shipping Act of 1854, and Acts amending the same), and plying on the River Thames not seaward of Gravesend . . . . . .

Two by owners of lighters and steam tugs used on the River Thames:

One by occupiers of docks on the River Thames established under charter or Act of Parliament, and of legal quays and sufferance wharves on the River Thames appointed by the Commissioners of Customs . . . .

Section 3 *of the Act of* 1866.—In addition to the existing number of eighteen conservators of the River Thames constituting the body corporate of the conservators, there shall be five other conservators.

Section 6 *of the Act of* 1866.—Of the conservators added by this Act, one shall be appointed by the Board of Trade; . . . . . .

Section 7 *of the Act of* 1866.—Of the conservators added by this Act four shall be elected by such persons as for the time being respectively possess some one or more of the qualifications required for Upper Navigation Commissioners, and as before the passing of this Act have taken and subscribed the oaths or affirmations by the Upper Navigation Act of 1795 required to be taken and subscribed by them respectively so as to be authorised to act as Upper Navigation Commissioners if this Act had not been passed, or as after the passing of this Act make and sign at a conservancy meeting a declaration of qualification in the form given in the Second Schedule to this Act, or as after the passing of this Act deliver to the secretary of the conservators such a declaration made and signed in the presence of and attested by a justice of the peace or an attorney or solicitor of one of the superior courts.

Section 4 *of the Act of* 1870.—A person shall not be qualified to be an elector or an elected conservator under the Thames Act of 1866 at any election after the passing of this Act by being seized of lands, or being heir apparent, or residing as therein mentioned except subject to the conditions following (namely):—

Not by being seized of lands, as therein mentioned, unless the lands or a sufficient part thereof are or is in a parish or parishes some part of which or of each of which is within five miles of the Thames:

Not by being heir apparent, as therein mentioned, unless the estate of the person of whom he is heir apparent, or a sufficient part thereof, is in such a parish or parishes as aforesaid:

Not by residing, as therein mentioned, unless he resides in such a parish as aforesaid.

PROPOSED AMENDMENTS.

[§ 659.]

THE TRADE UNION ACTS, 1871–1893.

660. *Section* 4 *of the Act of* 1871.—Nothing in this Act shall enable any court to entertain any legal proceeding instituted with the object of directly enforcing or recovering damages for the breach of any of the following agreements (namely):—

2. Any agreement for the payment by any person of any subscription or penalty to a trade union.

3. Any agreement for the application of the funds of a trade union—

a. To provide benefits to members.

But nothing in this section shall be deemed to constitute any of the above-mentioned agreements unlawful.

Section 8 *of the Act of* 1871.—All real and personal estate whatsoever belonging to any trade union registered under this Act shall be vested in the trustees for the time being of the whole union, appointed as provided by this Act, for the use and benefit of such trade union and the members thereof.

Section 13 *of the Act of* 1871.—With respect to the registry, under this Act, of a trade union, and of the rules thereof, the following provisions shall have effect:—

1. An application to register the trade union and printed copies of rules, together with a list of the titles and names of the officers, shall be sent to the registrar under this Act.

2. The registrar, upon being satisfied that the trade union has complied with the regulations respecting registry in force under this Act, shall register such trade union and such rules.

3. No trade union shall be registered under a name identical with that by which any other existing trade

I.—To extend to trade unions the power of recovering contributions due from members.

II.—To prevent portions of trade union funds appropriated to benefits being expended in strikes.

III.—To prohibit trade unions supporting members out of employment through their own misconduct.

IV.—To allow trade union funds to be invested in co-operative enterprises.

V.—To give greater facilities for the registration of trade unions.

VI.—To render void the registration of any code of trade union rules that contains clauses providing for the restriction of the proportion of apprentices to journeymen.

[§ 660.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 6

union has been registered, or so nearly resembling such name as to be likely to deceive the members or the public.

4. Where a trade union applying to be registered has been in operation for more than a year before the date of such application, there shall be delivered to the registrar before the registry thereof a general statement of the receipts, funds, effects, and expenditure of such trade union in the same form, and showing the same particulars, as if it were the annual general statement required, as herein-after mentioned, to be transmitted annually to the registrar.

5. The registrar, upon registering such trade union, shall issue a certificate of registry, which certificate, unless proved to have been withdrawn or cancelled, shall be conclusive evidence that the regulations of this Act with respect to registry have been complied with.

6. One of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State may from time to time make regulations respecting registry under the Act, and respecting the seal (if any) to be used for the purpose of such registry, and the forms to be used for such registry, and the inspection of documents kept by the registrar under this Act, and respecting the fees (if any) to be paid on registry, not exceeding the fees specified in the Second Schedule to this Act, and generally for carrying this Act into effect.

Section 6 *of the Act of* 1876.—Trade unions carrying or intending to carry on business in more than one country shall be registered in the country in which their registered office is situate; but copies of the rules of such unions and of all amendments of the same, shall, when registered, be sent to the registrar of each of the other countries, to be recorded by him, and until such rules be so recorded the union shall not be entitled to any of the privileges of this Act or the principal Act, in the country in which such rules have not been recorded, and until such amendments of rules shall be recorded the same shall not take effect in such country.

In this section "country" means England, Scotland, or Ireland.

VII.—That registration performed in one country of the United Kingdom should hold good in all the others.

Section 1 *of the Act of* 1893.—A trade union duly registered under the Trade Union Acts, 1871 and 1876, shall be entitled to exemption from income tax chargeable under Schedules A., C., and D. of any Acts for granting duties of income tax in respect of the interest and dividends of the trade union applicable and applied solely for the purpose of provident benefits.

VIII.—To exempt from taxation the interest derived from the investment of such portions of trade union funds as are specifically set apart for provident purposes.

(*Already adopted.*)

THE TRUCK ACT, 1887.

661. *Section* 8.—No deductions shall be made from a workman's wages for sharpening or repairing tools, except by agreement not forming part of the contract of hiring.

I.—To allow agreements to be made only for reasonable deductions, *i.e.*, not for pick sharpening, lamps, doctor's fees, and mutual insurance.

II.—To prohibit deductions from the wages of spring knife cutlers for workroom, gas, power, and the use of tools.

III.—To incorporate in the Act a decision arrived at by a voluntary board of conciliation in connexion with the nail trade, fixing a minimum rate of wages.

IV.—To compel every workman to submit to a certain deduction from his wages, for the purpose of purchasing shares in his employer's business at par, when the aggregate amount deducted reaches a certain figure.

THE WATERMEN'S AND LIGHTERMEN'S AMENDMENT ACT, 1859.

662. *Section* 23 *of the Act of* 1859.—When and so often as any member of the said court dies or is removed, the said court of master, wardens, and assistants shall elect from amongst the freemen for the time being of the said company such persons as to them seem meet, for supplying such vacancy, and the person so elected shall continue in the said office during his life, unless he resigns, or is removed therefrom, as aforesaid.

I.—That the authority in control of the Thames should be popularly elected.

Section 46 *of the Act of* 1859.—Every freeman of the said company (the Company of Watermen and Lightermen of the River Thames), or widow of a freeman, may take such apprentices as he or she thinks fit, for the purpose of having them instructed in the navigation of barges, lighters, boats, vessels, and other like craft, subject to the following conditions, that no apprentice

II.—That apprentices should not be permitted to work for any one but the person to whom they are bound.

62.] TEXT OF THE ACT. PROPOSED AMENDMENTS. [§ 662.]

shall be bound for a less period than five years, and that the persons to whom such apprentice is bound shall undertake to find him proper board and lodging, either on his own premises or elsewhere.

Section 54 of the Act of 1859.—If any person, not being a freeman licensed in pursuance of this Act, or an apprentice, qualified according to this Act, to a freeman, or to the widow of a freeman of the said company (except as herein-after is mentioned) shall at any time act as a waterman or lighterman, or ply, or work or navigate any wherry, passenger boat, lighter, vessel or other craft, upon the said river, from or to any place or places, or ship or vessel, within the limits of this Act, for hire or gain (except as herein-after mentioned), every person shall forfeit and pay, for every such offence, any sum not exceeding forty shillings: Provided always, that it shall be lawful for any person who shall obtain a license as is herein provided, or is an apprentice qualified as herein provided, to work as a lighterman within the meaning of this Act.

III.—That it should be made illegal for a ship's crew to usurp the proper function of qualified watermen and lightermen by taking men to and from the ship in the ship's boat.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

APPENDIX II.

STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT OF LABOUR.

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NOTE.

In August 1891, the Secretary was directed to communicate copies of the following letter to the War Office and Admiralty, with the request that they should be forwarded to the Superintendents of Her Majesty's Dockyards, Arsenals, and Clothing Factories. The Secretary was further directed to send copies of the same to the County, Municipal, and Local Authorities in Great Britain and Ireland. The Returns came in slowly, the last being received in 1893, when the Secretary was directed to prepare the following Memorandum from the answers received, for the use of the Commission. Nearly nine hundred returns have been received; of these nearly three hundred were made by Lunatic Asylums, Poor Law Unions, Hospitals, and other similar bodies with which it has not been thought desirable to deal in this memorandum.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON LABOUR,

Telegraphic Address—
"ENTWINED, LONDON."

44, PARLIAMENT STREET,
LONDON, S.W.,
189 .

SIR,

The Royal Commission on Labour having decided to inquire into the Policy of State Regulation of Hours of Labour and the effect of State or Municipal Employment of Labour, I am directed to ask you if you would favour the Commission with any information in your power on the subject, and especially on the following points:—

1. What number of persons, if any, including the clerical staff, are employed by your Department, Corporation, Board or Trust?
2. What is the class of work in which they are engaged?
3. What are the rates of pay of different classes of work, including the clerical staff?
4. What is the number of working hours per week?
5. What are the Disputes, if any, that have occurred between your Department, Corporation, Board or Trust, and the persons in its employ?
6. What are the comparative efficiency and profitableness of work done under public and private management?

I beg to enclose for your further guidance copies of the papers issued by the Commission, and I have to add that it would greatly facilitate the work of the Commission if the answers to the above questions are returned as early as possible.

I am, Sir,
Your obedient Servant,
GEOFFREY DRAGE.

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STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT OF LABOUR.

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

1. WAGES.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF WAGES.

I. Municipal Employment.

[§ 663.] Nature and extent of information, and method of dealing with it.

663. The information contained in the returns from municipal and local authorities on the subject of wages is at once wide in extent and minute in detail. It has therefore been possible to obtain from them ample and accurate statistics. The English returns include 18 towns with a population of 100,000 and over, the figures for which are given separately in the following tables. There were, secondly, a large number of smaller corporations, and a still larger number of local boards, which have been grouped in counties. With regard to London, information was received from the London County Council and from several of the vestries. Returns were also sent from a few County Councils. For Scotland, statistics were received from the three corporations of Aberdeen, Dundee, and Glasgow; from several smaller towns, and from the County Councils of Stirling and Caithness. For Wales, the Corporation of Cardiff and various smaller corporations and local boards sent returns. In nearly every case the exact wage of every man employed by the town or county was given, together with the number employed at each rate. To obtain the average of any town, therefore, each rate of pay was multiplied by the number of men receiving that rate, and the whole divided by the total number employed. As it was possible therefore to weight the averages for each class of labour an accurate average could be obtained for the whole body. The average for each town in a county having been determined in this manner, the total average for the county was obtained from them. It was found possible in most of the large towns, and in a few of the smaller ones, to obtain separate statistics for police, roads, pavements, and sewers, gas and water works, and tables have accordingly been drawn up for each of these departments. One general table has also been prepared in which the averages for all classes of labour in every district from which returns have been received, are given in descending order.

Wages in municipal employment.

664. I.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Weekly Wages of Police in England and Scotland, 1891–2.*

District.	Local Authority.	Wage per Week.
		s. d.
England:		
Nottingham	Corporation	32 4
Yorkshire (Wakefield and Huddersfield).	Corporations	29 3
Bolton	Corporation	29 1
Hull	„	29 0
Lancashire (Clitheroe, Burnley, Rochdale).	Corporations	28 4
Salford	Corporation	27 9
Bradford	„	27 8
Manchester	„	27 4
Rutland	County	26 9
Worcestershire (Kidderminster).	Corporation	26 6
Brighton	„	26 5
Herefordshire (Hereford).	„	25 4
Scotland:—		
Glasgow	„	28 5
Fifeshire (Dunfermline).	„	27 9

* In calculating these averages no account has been taken of the uniform, boots, &c., given in addition to wages.

The averages include inspectors, sergeants, and constables. Where the wages of each rank were given separately, but the numbers of each were not specified, the proportion given in the case of Bolton has been taken, viz., three inspectors to 15 sergeants and 93 constables.—G. D.

Table summarising Results of above Table. [§ 664.]

	s.	d.
1. Mean wage for England	27	11¼
2. Mean wage for Scotland	28	1
3. Mean wage for England and Scotland	28	0

II.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Weekly Wages paid by Local Authorities to persons employed on Roads, Pavements, and Sewers.*

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Wage per Week.
			s. d.
England:—			
Sheffield	—	Corporation	29 2
Hull	—	„	28 0
Leicester	—	„	26 7
Newcastle	—	„	26 6
Devonshire	1	„	26 5
London	—	Vestries	26 5
Manchester	—	Corporation	26 4
Birmingham	—	„	26 3
Cheshire	1	„	25 10
Nottingham	—	„	25 6
Derbyshire	3	Corporations and Local Board.	24 1
Cardiff	—	Corporation	24 0
Salford	—	„	23 11
West Ham	—	„	23 10
Bradford	—	„	23 9
Lancashire	11	Corporations and Local Boards.	23 7
Durham	—	Corporation	23 1
Bolton	—	„	22 10
Blackburn	—	„	22 2
Yorkshire	7	Corporations	21 10
Hampshire	2	„	21 7
Durham	—	Durham County Council.	21 7
Brighton	—	Corporation	21 2
Berkshire	1	„	21 2
Norwich	—	„	20 9
Preston	—	„	20 7
Herefordshire	1	„	20 6
Staffordshire	3	Corporations	19 7
Warwickshire	2	„	19 1
Gloucestershire	—	Gloucestershire County Council.	19 0
Worcestershire	2	Corporations	16 5
Rutland	—	Rutland County Council.	14 0
Scotland:—			
Dundee	—	Corporation	23 0
Aberdeen	—	„	22 9
Glasgow	—	„	22 8
Forfarshire	1	Local Board	19 6
Stirling	—	Stirling County Council.	19 0
Fifeshire	1	Local Board	18 0
Caithness	—	Caithness County Council.	14 6

Summary of Results of Table II.

	s.	d.
Mean wage for England	22	11
Mean wage for Scotland	19	11
Mean wage for England and Scotland	22	5

* In the returns from Sheffield, some of the London Vestries, and some of the towns included in the counties, no information was given as to the numbers of the classes of men receiving different rates of pay. It was thus necessary to calculate the averages as though, *e.g.*, foremen and ordinary labourers were employed in equal numbers, and the averages in these cases are, therefore, probably somewhat too high. For details with regard to London *see* the following table.—G. D.

[64.] TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES paid by the LONDON VESTRIES to persons employed on ROADS, PAVEMENTS, and SEWERS.*

Vestry.	Wages. s.	d.
S. Saviour's, Southwark	34	1
S. Mary, Newington	32	7
Holborn	29	0
S. Giles'	29	0
S. George, Hanover Square	28	9
Chelsea	27	1
S. Mary, Islington	27	1
Rotherhithe	26	6
Bermondsey	26	5
S. Mary, Battersea	26	3
S. Leonard, Shoreditch	25	9
Bethnal Green	25	9
S. Marylebone	25	7
S. George the Martyr	25	4
Limehouse	25	3
Lewisham	25	0
S. Olave	25	0
Wandsworth	23	6
S.S. James and John, Clerkenwell	23	6
S. James, Westminster	23	0
Poplar	21	6
Average	26	5

* In the returns for S. Saviour's, Southwark, S. Mary, Newington, Holborn, S. Giles, S. George, Hanover Square, and Limehouse, no information was given with regard to the numbers of each grade employed, and the averages were thus calculated as if foremen and ordinary labourers were employed in equal numbers, and are, therefore, in these cases probably somewhat too high.—G. D.

III.—TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES of MEN employed by LOCAL AUTHORITIES in GASWORKS, 1891–2.

District.	Local Authority.	Wage per Week. s.	d.
ENGLAND:—			
Leicester	Corporation	35	1
Salford	,,	30	8
Warwickshire (Coventry).	,,	29	9
Bolton	,,	29	6
Blackburn	,,	29	0
Cheshire (Stalybridge)	,,	28	8
Birmingham	,,	28	6
Lancashire (Bury, Southport, Wigan, Darwen, Chorley Mossley, Middleton, Burnley, Rochdale, and Colne).	Corporations and Local Board.	27	10
Herefordshire (Hereford).	Corporation	27	6
Yorkshire (Doncaster, Beverley, Middlesborough, Richmond, Halifax, and Huddersfield).	Corporations	26	4
Bradford	Corporation	26	0
Nottingham	,,	25	7
Staffordshire (Burton-on-Trent, Leek, Burslem, and Smethwick).	Corporations and Local Board.	25	2
Oldham	Corporation	25	0
Derbyshire (Buxton)	Local Board	22	8
Worcestershire (Droitwich and Evesham).	Corporations	20	6
Preston	Corporation	19	6
SCOTLAND:—			
Forfarshire (Broughty Ferry).	Local Board	28	5
Aberdeen	Corporation	21	6

TABLE summarising RESULTS of TABLE III. [§ 664.]

	s.	d.
1. Mean wage for England	26	10
2. Mean wage for Scotland	25	0
3. Mean wage for England and Scotland	26	8

NOTE.—In the returns for Leicester, Salford, Coventry, Blackburn and Birmingham, and for some of the towns included in Lancashire and Staffordshire, no information was given as to the numbers of the different grades of labour employed. As these could not, therefore, be taken into account in estimating the averages, it is probable that they are in these cases somewhat too high.—G.D.

IV.—TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES of MEN employed by LOCAL AUTHORITIES in WATERWORKS.

District.	Local Authority.	Wage per Week. s.	d.
ENGLAND:—			
Devonshire (Torquay)	Corporation	33	6
Nottingham	,,	30	8
Cheshire (Winsford).	Local Board	29	6
Sheffield	Corporation	28	0
Manchester	,,	27	2
Warwickshire (Coventry).	,,	27	1
Salford	,,	27	0
Leicester	,,	26	7
Hull	,,	26	6
Yorkshire (Scarborough, Halifax, Wakefield, Doncaster, & Huddersfield).	Corporations	25	6
Lancashire (Bury, Darwen, and Burnley).	,,	25	5
Brighton	Corporation	25	3
Oldham	,,	25	1
Monmouthshire (Newport).	,,	25	0
Bradford	,,	24	8
Wiltshire (Salisbury).	,,	24	6
Cardiff	,,	24	2
Somerset (Bath)	,,	24	1
Bolton	,,	23	10
Worcestershire (Kidderminster).	,,	23	10
Derbyshire (Derby, Glossop).	Corporations	23	0
Berkshire (Reading)	Corporation	22	7
Hampshire (Southampton).	,,	22	6
Birmingham	,,	20	9
Staffordshire (Leek)	,,	20	4
Herefordshire (Hereford).	,,	20	0
SCOTLAND:—			
Dundee	,,	25	5
Aberdeen	,,	20	11

SUMMARY of RESULTS of TABLE IV.

	s.	d.
1. Mean wage for England	25	2
2. Mean wage for Scotland	23	2
3. Mean wage for England and Scotland	25	0

NOTE.—In the returns from Torquay, Nottingham, Winsford, Sheffield, Manchester, and Leicester, and for some of the towns included in Lancashire and Yorkshire, no information was given as to the numbers of the men receiving different rates of pay. As, generally speaking, there are more of the lower paid than of the more highly paid classes, the averages in these cases are probably rather too high.—G. D.

(*a.*) *Police.* (*a.*) It will be seen from Table I. that returns of the wages of police have been received from 14 English corporations and from only one county, Rutland, which must therefore be taken as representing the average wages of police in country districts. The extent of the variations in England is from 32*s.* 4*d.* in Nottingham to 25*s.* 4*d.* in Hereford. It may be observed that so far as the information goes, the averages of the northern towns are, without exception, higher than those of the southern. Further, the one estimate for the rural police, though above that of the southern corporations, is below those of the towns in the northern group, to which from its geographical position it naturally belongs. The Scotch averages, though comprising only two towns, are in both cases high.

§ 664 (b.)] (b.) *Roads, pavements, and sewers.*

(b.) The wages in Table II. vary from 29*s.* 2*d.* in Sheffield to 14*s.* in Rutland. This range is somewhat reduced, however, by the facts that the averages given for the highest towns are probably too high (*see* footnote to table), and that the lowness of the wage in some districts may be accounted for by the employment of old men on the roads as an alternative to the workhouse. Generally speaking, wages are higher in the north than in the south of England, and in the large towns than in the rural districts. This last fact is particularly noticeable in Scotland, where there is a difference of 3*s.* 2*d.* between the lowest corporation and the highest local board. In the appended table giving the rates of wages paid by the London vestries it will be noticed, when the fact is taken into account that several of the averages given are too high (*see* footnote), that the variations in the rates are slight, most of the vestries averaging between 25*s.* and 27*s.*

(c.) *Gas-works.*

(c.) With regard to municipal gasworks (*see* Table III.) information has only been received from northern and midland towns; it is therefore impossible to draw any comparison between the north and south. Wages appear to be on the whole higher in the large than in the small towns; though the highest, Leicester, (35*s.* 1*d.*) and the lowest, Preston, (19*s.* 6*d.*) are both corporations of over 100,000 population.

(d.) *Water-works.*

(d.) The rates in waterworks range from 33*s.* 6*d.* in Torquay to 20*s.* in Hereford (*see* Table IV.). Here again, with the exception of Torquay, the average of which is probably too high (*see* footnote to table), the higher rates are found in the northern and midland rather than in the southern towns; but the distinction between the large and small corporations, though clearly perceptible, is hardly so marked as in the other tables. It will be seen from the summaries appended to the tables that the highest wages are earned by police, who average in England 27*s.* 11¾*d.* The average in gasworks is 26*s.* 10*d.*, and in waterworks 25*s.* 2*d.*, while that for workmen employed on roads, pavements, and sewers, sinks to 22*s.* 11*d.* The average for Scotland is lower than that for England in every instance except in the case of police, whose wages exceed the English rate by 1*d.*

V.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Weekly Wages paid by various Local Authorities.*

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Wage per Week. s.	d.
England:—				
London	—	London County Council.	28	11
Hull	—	Corporation	28	6
Birmingham	—	„	28	4
Nottingham	—	„	26	5
London	—	Vestries	26	4
Bradford	—	Corporation	25	11
Bolton	—	„	25	9
Leicester	—	„	25	9
Blackburn	—	„	25	7
Manchester	—	„	25	2
Newcastle	—	„	25	0
Salford	—	„	24	9
Oldham	—	„	24	8
Sheffield	—	„	24	7
West Ham	—	„	24	1
Middlesex	10	Local Boards	23	11
Brighton	—	Corporation	23	4
Bedfordshire	3	Corporations	23	4
Lancashire	66	Corporations and Local Boards.	23	3
Croydon	—	Corporation	23	1
Northumberland	9	Corporations and Local Boards.	23	1
Herefordshire	1	Corporation	22	10
Preston	—	„	22	4
Durham	17	Corporations and Local Boards.	22	3
Nottinghamshire	4	„	22	1
Kent	16	„	21	11
Durham	—	Durham County Council.	21	7
Yorkshire	89	Corporations and Local Boards.	21	6
Westmoreland	4	Corporation and Local Boards.	21	4
Warwickshire	7	Corporations and Local Boards.	21	3
Portsmouth	—	Corporation	21	0
Cheshire	16	Corporations and Local Boards.	20	11
Worcestershire	12	„	20	11
Dorsetshire	5	„	20	11
Rutland	—	Rutland County Council.	20	7
Staffordshire	16	Corporations and Local Boards.	20	5
Monmouthshire	9	„	20	4
Essex	8	„	20	4
Norwich	—	Corporation	20	3
Northamptonshire	3	Corporations and Local Board.	20	3
Sussex	10	Corporations and Local Boards.	20	1
Cumberland	7	Corporation and Local Boards.	20	0
Leicestershire	6	„	19	9
Devonshire	19	Corporations and Local Boards.	19	5
Lincolnshire	13	„	19	3
Surrey	4	Corporation and Local Boards.	19	3
Gloucestershire	—	Gloucestershire County Council.	19	1
Derbyshire	10	Corporations and Local Boards.	18	11
Shropshire	6	„	18	11
Berkshire	5	Corporations and Local Board.	18	10
Hampshire	10	Corporations and Local Boards.	18	8
Cornwall	5	„	18	6
Hertfordshire	6	Corporation and Local Boards.	18	2
Somerset	10	Corporations and Local Boards.	18	1
Gloucestershire	9	Corporation and Local Boards.	17	2
Wiltshire	6	Corporations and Local Boards.	16	9
Cambridgeshire	4	„	16	5
Buckinghamshire	4	Corporation and Local Boards.	15	4
Suffolk	4	„	15	3
Norfolk	5	„	15	0
Huntingdonshire	2	„	14	6
Oxfordshire	3	„	14	5
Rutland	1	Local Board	14	3
Bedfordshire	—	Bedfordshire County Council.	13	0
Wales:—				
Carnarvonshire	2	Corporation and Local Board.	25	4
Cardiff	—	Corporation	23	3
Breconshire	2	Corporation and Local Board.	22	4
Glamorganshire	10	Corporations and Local Boards.	21	10
Carmarthenshire	1	Local Board	18	0
Denbighshire	2	Corporations	18	0
Anglesey	1	Local Board	17	9
Pembrokeshire	2	Corporations	16	10
Flintshire	1	Corporation	16	0
Merionethshire	1	Local Board	15	0
Scotland:—				
Glasgow	—	Corporation	23	6
Dundee	—	„	23	6
Linlithgowshire	2	Local Boards	23	6
Ayrshire	1	Local Board	23	0
Dumbartonshire	2	Local Boards	22	7
Lanarkshire	4	„	22	0

* In the returns from Nottingham, Sheffield, some of the London Vestries, and some of the towns included in Middlesex, Bedfordshire, Lancashire, Notts, Kent, Yorkshire, Warwickshire, and Cheshire, no information was given as to the proportion of the men paid at different rates. The averages in these cases are therefore probably somewhat too high.—G. D.

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Wage per Week.
SCOTLAND—*cont.*			s. d.
Fifeshire	3	Local Boards	21 8
Aberdeen	—	Corporation	21 4
Renfrewshire	1	Local Board	21 4
Forfarshire	2	Local Boards	20 11
Berwickshire	1	Local Board	20 0
Perthshire	2	Local Boards	19 11
Stirling	—	Stirling County Council.	19 9
Banffshire	2	Local Boards	19 3
Selkirkshire	1	Local Board	19 0
Elgin	1	„	18 6
Clackmannan	1	„	18 0
Inverness-shire	1	„	18 0
Haddington	1	„	17 7
Dumfries	1	„	15 0
Orkney	1	„	15 0
Caithness	—	Caithness County Council.	14 6

SUMMARY of RESULTS of above TABLE.

	s.	d.
1. Mean wage for England	21	1½
2. Mean wage for Wales	19	5
3. Mean wage for Scotland	19	10½
4. Mean wage for England, Wales, and Scotland	20	5½

(*c.*) The above table shows the average wages paid by local authorities in various districts to all persons in their employ. This includes, besides the four departments comprised in the preceding tables, a staff of persons engaged in sanitation; in the large towns officials connected with such institutions as public parks and gardens, cemeteries, baths, and in some cases museums and art galleries. The same conclusions appear to be borne out by this table which have been noticed in the others, and it may be noted that this is also the case in the complete returns of wages in 1886 prepared for the Board of Trade by Mr. Giffen. The rates in the large towns are, generally speaking, higher than in the smaller, and with the exception of London the northern and midland towns pay higher wages than the southern. The London County Council heads the list, with its average of 28*s.* 11*d.*, and the rates paid by the London vestries are also high. Preston is, as usual, the lowest of the northern corporations; while Hull and Nottingham maintain the high places they held in the former tables, and Birmingham is raised by the high rates paid in its improvement works and museum. Such county councils as have sent returns are in every case but that of Durham below the general average for England. Bedfordshire appears to afford a good instance of the superiority of town over country rates, its corporations averaging 23*s.* 4*d.*, while its county council stands at the bottom of the list with an average wage of 13*s.* On the other hand, the evidence of Gloucestershire points to an opposite conclusion. Here the county council pays an average of 19*s.* 1*d.*, while the wages paid by the corporation of Cheltenham and by various local boards only amount to 17*s.* 2*d.* As in the case of the table for roads, pavements, and sewers, the lowness of the wage in some of the worst paid districts may be explained by the fact that it is usual to employ old and infirm men who would otherwise be paupers, and who, of course, are not worth the high rates which can be paid in other localities. The variations of wages in Wales and Scotland are considerably slighter than in England, and it is difficult to trace in them any connection with geographical situation. It appears, however, that wages tend to be higher in the central than in either the northern or southern counties of Scotland. Even Aberdeen, which as a large corporation might be expected to rank high, falls below several of the small towns of the central districts.

665. Most of the work in all departments of local employment is paid by time, and wages are variously calculated by the hour, the day, or the week. Hourly wages are the least usual, and are generally found in the different branches of the building trades. Stone-breaking appears to be almost invariably paid by the piece; instances of this mode of payment are also found in the sanitary departments of various towns. [§ 665.]

666. With regard to allowances the information given in the returns is somewhat slight. It is probable that the police are supplied with their uniform in addition to their regular wages, but it is only at Hull and Clitheroe that this is definitely stated. Their wages at Glasgow are said to include boot money, but at the other towns this point is not mentioned. In other departments, foremen and keepers of parks and baths frequently receive houses, coals, &c., and have their rates paid for them, and in some cases uniform or boots are supplied. Allowances.

667. In the case of a few corporations information was supplied as to the proportion of pay allowed during sickness. In some instances full pay, and in others half-pay, was said to be given for a limited period. The most complete data on this subject came from Preston. Here the scale is as follows:—"Under one year's employment, nil; 1–5 years, one month half-pay; five years and upwards, thirteen weeks' half-pay." This rule is stated to hold for all classes of labour except paviors and flaggers.

II. GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT.

668. Statistics of wages in Government employment were received from several departments, but in only three of these, *i.e.*, Dockyards, Royal Engineers and Ordnance Stores, was the information at all complete. In these cases it was given in the same form as in the returns from municipalities; and has been dealt with in the same manner. A table has been drawn up showing the average rates in the three departments in several districts, including Scotland, Ireland and the Channel Islands. The information as to the Artillery Inspection Department, Ordnance Factories, Victualling Yards, the Quarter Master General's Department, and the Army Clothing Factory, Pimlico, was too scanty to admit of detailed tables; and one general statement has therefore been prepared giving simply the average rate in each of these departments irrespective of locality. Nature and extent of information and method of dealing with it.

669. VI.—TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES of persons employed in the ROYAL ENGINEERS and in GOVERNMENT DOCKYARDS and ORDNANCE STORES.* Wages in Government employment.

District.	Dockyards.	Royal Engineers.	Ordnance Store Departments.	Mean.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1. Home District	—	33 3	—	33 3
2. Aldershot	—	20 0	34 6	27 3
3. Sheerness	30 0	22 3	—	26 1
4. Devonport	30 7	—	20 4	25 5
5. Portsmouth	28 6	—	21 0	24 9
6. Chatham	28 0	24 8	20 11	24 5
7. Eastern District	—	24 0	19 0	21 6
8. Pembroke Dock	24 6	20 4	18 7	21 2
9. Dover	—	21 0	20 11	21 0
10. Woolwich	—	19 0	21 7	20 4
11. Deptford	20 3	—	—	20 3
12. South Western District	—	20 1	—	20 1
13. North Western District	—	21 2	17 10	19 6
14. South Eastern District	—	16 11	21 9	19 4
15. Plymouth	—	19 4	—	19 4
16. Scotland	—	16 0	20 9	18 4
17. Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney.	—	16 0	20 2	18 1
18. Ireland	—	15 8	20 4	18 0
19. North Eastern District	—	16 0	18 7	17 4
20. Western District	—	12 1	—	12 1

* In the returns from the Dockyards of Sheerness, Devonport, Portsmouth, and Chatham, and from the Royal Engineers, Home District, no information was given as to the numbers and the classes of men receiving different rates of pay. In the Ordnance Store Department at Aldershot statistics were only given for the more highly paid officials. The averages in these cases are therefore probably somewhat too high. On the other hand, the averages of the Royal Engineers in various districts are low, because in several cases old men and "pensioners" were employed, and in others men were engaged in work, such as lamp-lighting which did not occupy their whole time, and therefore received low wages.—G. D.

[§ 669.]

SUMMARY of RESULTS of above TABLE.

	Dockyards.	Royal Engineers.	Ordnance Store Departments.	Mean.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
1. England	26 11	20 8	21 4	20 11
2. Scotland	—	16 0	20 9	18 4
3. Ireland	—	15 8	20 4	18 0
4. Channel Islands	—	16 0	20 2	18 1
5. Total	26 11	19 10	21 2	21 4

VII.—TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES in various Departments of GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT.

Department.	Weekly Wage.
	s. d.
1. Inspection Department, Artillery	29 1
2. Ordnance Factories (Woolwich, Birmingham, Enfield, and Waltham Abbey).	27 0
3. Victualling Yards:— Royal Victoria, Royal Clarence, Royal Alexandra, Royal William	23 3
4. Quarter Master General's Department:—(Supply Reservoir Depôt, Woolwich.)	20 2
5. Army Clothing Factory, Pimlico	17 6
Total	23 5

(a.) Royal Engineers, Dockyards and Ordnance Stores.

(*a.*) It appears from Table VI. that the widest range of wages is found in the Royal Engineers' Department, where they vary from 33*s.* 3*d.* in the home district to 12*s.* 1*d.* in the western district. The former average is, however, probably too high, and the extreme lowness of the latter may be accounted for by the employment of old men and "pensioners" (*see* footnote to Table). In consequence, perhaps, of this last fact, the total average for this department both for England (20*s.* 8*d.*), and for the United Kingdom (19*s.* 10*d.*) is the lowest of the three. That for dockyards (26*s.* 11*d.*) is considerably the highest, but it has been already stated that this is probably too high (*see* footnote, p. 463). The conclusions arrived at in the case of municipal employment as to the relative wages in the northern and southern districts of England do not hold good in this table; and the comparison of large with small towns is, of course, inapplicable. The summary appended to it shows, however, that the average for England is still higher than that for other parts of the United Kingdom.

(b.) Other departments.

(*b.*) Table VII. shows the average weekly wages in various miscellaneous departments of Government employment, which range from 29*s.* 1*d.* in the Inspection Department, to 17*s.* 6*d.* in the Army Clothing Factory, Pimlico.

Mode of payment.

670. Practically all the work in these departments of Government employment is paid by time. Daily pay appears to be the rule in the dockyards, but in the Royal Engineers and Ordnance stores both daily and weekly wages are found, and there are also a few cases of payment by the hour, occurring chiefly in the building trades. Of the five departments in Table VII., it appears that in the two highest, viz., the Inspection Department and the Ordnance factories, payment is by the week, while in the other three it is usually by the day, though there are a few instances of weekly payment.

Allowances and deductions.

671. Little reference was made to allowances in addition to wages, but in a few instances free quarters were mentioned, and in others it was stated that for special kinds of work suitable clothing and tools were supplied. On the other hand, occasional mention was made of deductions of a few pence per week for quarters. These occurred chiefly among the Royal Engineers.

[§ 67

672. The only case in which reference is made to any system of sick pay is in the dockyards, where it is stated that half pay is allowed, and special consideration shown to men injured in the execution of their work.

Sick pa

(ii.) COMPARISON OF PRIVATE WITH MUNICIPAL AND GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT.

I. MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT.

Nature and ext of infor tion, an method dealing with it.

673. In order to institute some comparison between municipal and private management in respect of wages, tables have been drawn up showing the average wages paid by local authorities in 1891, and by all classes of employers, municipal and private, in 1886. The data for the latter were obtained from the Returns of Rates of Wages prepared for the Board of Trade by Mr. Giffen, and in order to obtain similar districts for comparison it was necessary to re-group the statistics for 1891 on the lines adopted therein. The tables drawn up in this manner include roads, pavements, and sewers, gas, and water; and a further one has been prepared for various branches of the building trade, in which the rates paid by private firms and by corporations in 1891 are compared.

Genera conclus with re to priva and mu cipal manage ment.

674. VIII.—TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES paid to Persons employed on ROADS, PAVEMENTS, and SEWERS by LOCAL AUTHORITIES in 1891-2, and by LOCAL AUTHORITIES and PRIVATE COMPANIES together in 1886.*

District.	Weekly Wage.	
	1886.	1891-2.
	s. d.	s. d.
1. London	22 3	26 5
2. Northumberland, Durham, and Cumberland.	21 7	24 9
3. Outer London and neighbourhood.	22 2	24 4
4. (*a.*) Lancashire (towns over 50,000 pop.)	22 1	23 6
(*b.*) Lancashire (towns under 50,000 pop.)	20 11	23 5
5. Yorkshire	22 3	23 5
6. South Scotland	20 4	22 8
7. Eastern and Midland Counties of England and North Wales.	21 5	22 5
8. Southern Counties of England and Wales, and Gloucestershire.	19 7	21 10
9. North Scotland	18 0	19 5

SUMMARY of RESULTS of above Table.

District.	Wage.		Percentage of Increase.
	1886.	1891.	
	s. d.	s. 6.	
1. England and Wales	21 6	23 8	10·0
2. Scotland	19 2	21 0	9·5
3. Great Britain	21 1	23 2	9·8

* Figures obtained from Board of Trade Returns of Wages for 1886, and from the Answers to the Schedules of Questions on Municipal Employment for 1891.

In some of the returns from which the averages for 1891 were obtained no information was given as to numbers of the classes of men receiving different rates of pay. The averages in these cases are, therefore, probably somewhat too high. (*See* Table II.) This is especially the case in London, Outer London, and the smaller towns of Lancashire.—G. D.

674.] IX.—TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES paid to Persons employed in GASWORKS by LOCAL AUTHORITIES in 1891–2, and by LOCAL AUTHORITIES and PRIVATE COMPANIES together in 1886.*

District.	Weekly Wage.	
	1886.	1891.
	s. d.	s. d.
1. West Riding of Yorkshire -	24 11	27 4
2. South Lancashire and North Cheshire.	25 10	27 0
3. Midland Counties - -	24 4	26 0
4. Northern Counties - -	25 4	23 5

SUMMARY of RESULTS of above Table.

District.	Wage.		Percentage of Increase.
	1886.	1891.	
	s. d.	s. d.	
North and Mid England	25 1	25 11	3·6

* Figures obtained from Board of Trade Returns of Wages for 1886, and from the Answers to the Schedules of Questions on Municipal Employment for 1891.
In some of the returns from which the averages for the West Riding, South Lancashire, and North Cheshire, and the Midland Counties in 1891 were obtained, no information was given as to the numbers of the classes of men receiving different rates of pay. The averages in these three cases are, therefore, probably somewhat too high. (*See* Table III.) —G. D.

X.—TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES paid to Persons employed in WATERWORKS by LOCAL AUTHORITIES in 1891–2, and by LOCAL AUTHORITIES and PRIVATE COMPANIES together in 1886.†

District.	Weekly Wage.	
	1886.	1891.
ENGLAND :—	s. d.	s. d.
1. Northern Counties	24 2	26 2
2. South Lancashire, West Riding of Yorkshire, and North Cheshire.	23 10	25 6
3. Southern Counties, with Monmouth and Glamorgan.	23 5	25 2
4. Eastern and Midland Counties.	23 9	23 11
SCOTLAND - - -	21 8	23 2

SUMMARY of RESULTS of above Table.

District.	Weekly Wage.		Percentage of Increase.
	1886.	1891.	
	s. d.	s. d.	
1. England - -	23 9	25 2	6·0
2. Scotland - -	21 8	23 2	7·0

† Figures obtained from Board of Trade Returns of Wages for 1886, and from the Answers to the Schedules of Questions on Municipal Employment for 1891.

[§ 674 (a.)] (*a.*) Table VIII. gives the average wages of men employed on roads, pavements, and sewers in 1886 and 1891. In both years the average for London is the highest; and here, too, the greatest increase has taken place. With the exception of London and the neighbourhood, however, the southern districts of England were in 1886, as well as in 1891, below the northern. The rates in 1891 are in every case higher than those in 1886; and from the summary to the table it appears that this increase averages throughout Great Britain 9·8 per cent. *(a.) Roads, pavements, and sewers.*

(*b.*) Figures with regard to gasworks for 1886 and 1891 (Table IX.) could only be obtained from the northern and midland districts of England. In this industry the increase of wages is not so marked as in the preceding table, and in one case, the northern counties, there has been a decided fall. The total increase, therefore, amounts only to 3·6 per cent. *(b.) Gas works.*

(*c.*) In the rates for waterworks (Table X.) there has been a universal rise, but it is in some districts very slight. The total increase is only 6 per cent. in England and 7 per per cent. in Scotland. Compared with other trades for which statistics have been obtained for 1886 and 1891, the per-centage of increase in these three tables is very small, and it is possible that the elimination of the private employer in 1891 renders it less than it would otherwise have been. As, however, it was not possible to obtain statistics in which exactly the same classes of labour were compared at the two dates nothing definite can be arrived at as to this point. *(c.) Waterworks.*

XI.—TABLE showing the MEANS of RETURNS received of WEEKLY WAGES paid by PRIVATE EMPLOYERS and by CORPORATIONS in the BUILDING TRADES and in GASWORKS, 1891.*

A. BUILDING TRADES.

Town.	Class of Labour.	Weekly Wage.	
		Employer.	Corporation.
		s. d.	s. d.
1. Oldham - -	Carpenters, masons, and bricklayers.	36 4	36 4
2. Preston - - -	Carpenters and plumbers	33 6	26 10
3. Bolton - -	Carpenters, masons, bricklayers, and painters.	32 2	32 0
4. Bradford - -	Carpenters, masons, and bricklayers.	31 4	31 2
5. Nottingham - -	Carpenters, bricklayers, plumbers, painters, and bricklayers' labourers.	30 0	33 0
Total - - -	- - -	32 10	31 10
	B. GASWORKS.†	33 6	26 10

* Figures obtained from the Returns from Master Builders and Trade Unions and the Answers to the Schedules of Questions for the Building Trades, and from Table III. and Summary, Group C., page 9, for gasworks.
† Of the three principal classes of workmen in gasworks—stokers, fitters, &c., and yard labourers—it appears that the wages of fitters are somewhat above, and those of yard labourers about the same amount below, those of stokers. The wages of stokers have therefore been taken in column 1 as representative of the whole trade. The lower paid classes of labour are, however, employed in larger numbers than the highly paid, and the average for private employers is therefore too high in comparison with that for corporations, where this fact has been taken into account.—G. D.

(*d.*) This table affords a more satisfactory basis for generalisation than the preceding, as it shows the wages paid by private employers and corporations respectively, to exactly the same classes of men, and at the same date and places. At Oldham, which is the highest in the list, the average for both is precisely the same. At Preston the wages of private employers are considerably higher than those paid by the corporation, and at Bolton and Bradford they exceed the corporation's rate in each case by 2*d.* At Nottingham, on the other hand, the corporation pay an average wage which is 3*s.* higher than that paid by private firms. The total average for private firms is thus only 1*s.* higher than that for corporations. *(d.) Building trades.*

II. Government Employment.

[§ 675.] Comparison of wages in private and Government dockyards.

675. The only industry in which any comparison can be drawn between Government and private employment in respect of wages is dock labour. Omitting those docks in which the rates given are probably too high (Table VI. and footnote), it appears that the averages in Government dockyards at Pembroke and Deptford are respectively 24*s.* 6*d.* and 20*s.* 3*d.* The wages in the private docks of London are stated to average 27*s.* 6*d.*; at Southampton, on the other hand, they are only 21*s.*[1] This was, however, stated, to be one of the worst paid ports in the kingdom. It would appear, therefore, that wages are somewhat higher in private than in Government docks.

2. HOURS.

(i.) STATEMENTS OF HOURS.

I. Municipal Employment.

Nature and extent of information, and method of dealing with it.

676. The information on the subject of hours was of much the same character as that with regard to wages, though slightly less extensive, as a few municipalities which sent returns of wages supplied no information as to hours. It has been dealt with in the same manner. The average for each town has been accurately determined by multiplying the number of men working any number of hours per week by that number, and dividing the sum by the total number employed. The towns with a population of 100,000 or over are given separately in the tables, and those with a smaller population have been grouped in counties. As with wages, separate tables have been drawn up to show the hours worked under local management, by police, on roads, pavements, and sewers, in gasworks and in waterworks. A general table is also given, showing the average hours of all persons employed by municipalities.

Hours in municipal employment.

677. XII.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Hours of Duty per Week of Police, 1891–1892.

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Hours of Duty per Week.
England :—			
Salford	—	Corporation	52
Bolton	—	„	52
Lancashire	2	Corporations	55
Hull	—	Corporation	56
Nottingham	—	„	56
Yorkshire	2	Corporations	57
Bradford	—	Corporation	59½
Herefordshire	1	„	60
Oldham	—	„	63
Rutland	—	Rutland County Council.	63
Scotland :—			
Glasgow	—	Corporation	63
Fifeshire	1	„	70

Summary of Results of above Table.

	Hours.
1. Mean number for England	57½
2. Mean number for Scotland	66½
3. Mean number for England and Scotland	58¾

(1) Summary, Group B., Part I., pp. 144–5.

XIII.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Number of Hours worked per Week by Persons employed by Local Authorities on Roads, Pavements, and Sewers, 1891–2. [§ 677

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Hours worked per Week.
England :—			
Bradford	—	Corporation	49⅓
Salford	—	„	49¾
Nottingham	—	„	51
Durham	1	„	51
Wiltshire	1	„	51
Manchester	—	„	52
Derbyshire	2	Corporation and Local Board.	52
Lancashire	13	Corporations and Local Boards.	52¼
Newcastle	—	Corporation	52⅓
Yorkshire	8	Corporations	52⅔
Sheffield	—	Corporation	53
Preston	—	„	53⅓
West Ham	—	„	53⅓
Cheshire	2	Corporation and Local Board.	53⅔
Hull	—	Corporation	53¾
Leicester	—	„	53¾
Birmingham	—	„	54
Cardiff	—	„	54
Bolton	—	„	54¾
Staffordshire	3	Corporations	55
London	—	Vestries	55¼
Devonshire	1	Corporation	55⅓
Warwickshire	2	Corporations	57¼
Berkshire	1	Corporation	58½
Brighton	—	„	59
Worcestershire	4	Corporations and Local Board.	59
Herefordshire	1	Corporation	60
Rutland	—	Rutland County Council.	60
Scotland :—			
Forfarshire	1	Local Board	55½
Glasgow	—	Corporation	56
Fifeshire	1	Local Board	58
Aberdeen	—	Corporation	58½
Dundee	—	„	59¾

Summary of Results of above Table.

	Hours
1. Mean number for England	54
2. Mean number for Scotland	57½
3. Mean number for England and Scotland	54½

Table showing the Means of Returns received of Number of Hours worked per Week by Persons employed by the London Vestries on Roads, Pavements, and Sewers, 1891–2.

Vestry.	Hours worked per Week.
1. Limehouse	52
2. Bethnal Green	52⅛
3. S. Saviour's, Southwark	52⅕
4. S. Marylebone	52⅜
5. S. Mary, Battersea	53¼
6. S. Leonard's, Shoreditch	53⅓
7. S.S. James and John, Clerkenwell	53¾
8. S. Giles'	54⅛
9. S. Olave	54⅓
10. S. James, Westminster	54½
11. Rotherhithe	55⅛
12. Chelsea	55⅓
13. Wandsworth	55⅓
14. S. Mary, Islington	55½
15. Bermondsey	55⅔
16. S. Mary, Newington	57
17. S. George the Martyr	57½
18. S. George's, Hanover Square	58
19. Lewisham	58½
20. Poplar	60
21. Holborn	60
Average	55¼

677.] XIV.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Number of Hours worked per Week by Persons employed by Local Authorities in Gasworks, 1891–2.*

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Hours worked per Week.
England :—			
Derbyshire	1	Local Board	49½
Oldham	—	Corporation	51
Bradford	—	„	52⅓
Nottingham	—	„	54
Birmingham	—	„	54
Lancashire	10	Corporations and Local Board.	54
Preston	—	Corporation	54½
Salford	—	„	55⅓
Staffordshire	5	Corporations and Local Board.	55½
Yorkshire	7	Corporations	56⅛
Warwickshire	1	Corporation	56⅔
Bolton	—	„	57
Worcestershire	3	Corporations and Local Board.	58⅓
Herefordshire	1	Corporation	60
Cheshire	1	„	62
Scotland :—			
Aberdeen	—	„	53½

Summary of Results of above Table.

	Hours.
1. Mean number for England	55½
2. Mean number for England and Scotland	55¼

* In certain of the towns included in other counties besides Derbyshire an eight-hours' shift has been established, but the average for those counties is raised by the inclusion of towns where it has not been introduced.—G. D.

XV.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Number of Hours worked per Week by Persons employed by Local Authorities in Waterworks, 1891–2.

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Hours worked per Week.
England :—			
Bradford	—	Corporation	49⅓
Sheffield	—	„	50
Manchester	—	„	51
Oldham	—	„	51¾
Derbyshire	2	Corporation and Local Board.	52
Monmouthshire	1	Corporation	53
Wiltshire	1	„	53
Leicester	—	„	53⅜
Lancashire	3	Corporations	53¾
Cardiff	—	Corporation	54
Somerset	1	„	54
Bolton	—	„	54½
Preston	—	„	54½
Staffordshire	1	„	55
Berkshire	1	„	55
Cheshire	1	Local Board	55
Devonshire	1	Corporation	55½
Brighton	—	„	56
Warwickshire	1	„	56
Hull	—	„	56¼
Yorkshire	4	Corporations	56½
Worcestershire	1	Corporation	57½
Birmingham	—	„	58
Nottingham	—	„	60
Herefordshire	1	„	60
Scotland :—			
Dundee	—	Corporation	49⅓
Aberdeen	—	„	52¾
Fifeshire	1	„	58

Summary of Results of above Table.

	Hours.
1. Mean number for England	54
2. Mean number for Scotland	53
3. Mean number for England and Scotland	54

[§ 677.] It appears from these tables that the high wages which have been noticed in the northern counties of England as compared with the southern are by no means generally accompanied by any increase of hours. The reverse seems, in fact, to be more often the case, and hours are, generally speaking, longer in the southern districts, though the variations of hours appear to be connected much less closely with geographical situation than was the case with wages.

(*a.*) The hours of police, of which, however, only a few instances could be obtained, vary from 52 in Salford to 63 in Rutland, or, if Scotland is included, to 70 in Fifeshire. The one county council from which returns have been received—Rutland—is at the bottom of the English list, but its hours are only equal to those of Glasgow, which represents the corporations of Scotland. The total average for England (57) is thus considerably less than that for Scotland (66½). (*a.*) *Police.*

(*b.*) The table for roads, pavements, and sewers includes a much larger number of municipalities. The hours are, on the whole, shorter; the range of variations, though of the same extent, is from 49½ in Bradford to 60 in Rutland. The bulk of the towns, too, show an average of from 52 to 55 hours per week, and the total average for England is thus only 54. The variations in Scotland are comparatively very slight. The shortest hours are worked in Forfarshire, which averages 55½, and the longest in Dundee (average 59¾). The total average for Scotland is 57½ hours. The appended table shows the hours worked in the London vestries, and gives an average of 55¼. (*b.*) *Roads, pavements, and sewers.*

(*c.*) In gasworks the average for England rises to 55⅓; the wide range in the number of hours (from 49½ to 62) may be accounted for by the fact that though certain towns have adopted an eight hours' shift, in those districts where it has not been introduced the hours are generally longer than in other industries. Only one Scotch corporation—Aberdeen—sent returns of hours in gasworks, and its average (53½) is less by two hours than that for England generally. (*c.*) *Gas-works.*

(*d.*) The same phenomenon is observable in waterworks, where Scotland is represented by three towns. Hours in this industry range in England from 49⅓ in Bradford to 60 in Nottingham and Herefordshire. This average for Nottingham is somewhat remarkable, as in the other tables it has appeared high in the list, and has never averaged more than 56. (*d.*) *Water-works.*

XVI.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Number of Hours worked per Week by Persons employed by various Local Authorities, 1891–2.

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Hours worked per Week.
England :—			
Sheffield	—	Corporation	51⅔
Newcastle	—	„	52
London	—	London County Council.	52
Yorkshire	74	Corporations and Local Boards.	52
Bradford	—	Corporation	52⅓
Northumberland	5	Corporation and Local Boards.	52½
Oldham	—	Corporation	52¾
Durham	15	Corporations and Local Boards.	52¾
Durham	—	Durham County Council.	53
Northamptonshire	3	Corporations and Local Board.	53
Manchester	—	Corporation	53⅜
Salford	—	„	53¾
West Ham	—	„	53¾
Lancashire	66	Corporations and Local Boards.	53¾
Preston	—	Corporation	54
Gloucestershire	9	Corporation and Local Boards.	54
Birmingham	—	Corporation	54¼
Nottingham	—	„	54⅝
Bolton	—	„	54½
Cornwall	5	Corporations and Local Boards.	54½
Derbyshire	11	Corporations and Local Boards.	54¾

[§ 677.]

District.	No. of Towns included.	Local Authority.	Hours worked per Week.
ENGLAND—*cont.*			
Norfolk	4	Corporation and Local Boards.	54¾
Hull	—	Corporation	55
Leicester	—	„	55
Leicestershire	5	Corporation and Local Boards.	55
Devonshire	14	Corporations and Local Boards.	55
Cheshire	16	„	55¼
Staffordshire	12	„	55⅓
Dorsetshire	6	„	55⅝
Lincolnshire	11	„	55¾
London	—	Vestries	55¾
Portsmouth	—	Corporation	56
Blackburn	—	„	56
Somerset	8	Corporations and Local Boards.	56
Westmoreland	3	Corporation and Local Boards.	56
Nottinghamshire	4	Corporations and Local Boards.	56¼
Norwich	—	Corporation	56½
Cumberland	7	Corporation and Local Boards.	56½
Kent	15	Corporations and Local Boards.	56¼
Gloucestershire	—	Gloucestershire County Council.	56½
Cambridgeshire	6	Corporations and Local Boards.	56⅔
Worcestershire	11	„	56¾
Rutland	1	Local Board	57
Surrey	5	Corporations and Local Boards.	57
Buckinghamshire	4	Corporation and Local Boards.	57¼
Warwickshire	8	Corporations and Local Boards.	57¼
Sussex	9	„	57½
Hampshire	9	„	57⅔
Middlesex	8	Local Boards	57¾
Croydon	—	Corporation	58
Bedfordshire	2	Corporations	58
Essex	8	Corporations and Local Boards.	58
Monmouthshire	8	„	58
Wiltshire	4	„	58
Berkshire	5	Corporations and Local Board.	58⅓
Suffolk	4	Corporation and Local Boards.	58¾
Brighton	—	Corporation	59
Huntingdonshire	3	Corporation and Local Boards.	59
Shropshire	6	Corporations and Local Boards.	59
Herefordshire	1	Corporation	60
Oxfordshire	2	Local Boards	60
Rutland	—	Rutland County Council.	61½
Hertfordshire	4	Corporation and Local Boards.	63½
WALES:—			
Anglesey	1	Local Board	50
Carnarvonshire	2	Corporation and Local Board.	50½
Cardiff	—	Corporation	54
Breconshire	2	Corporation and Local Board.	55
Glamorganshire	8	Corporations and Local Boards.	55½
Pembrokeshire	1	Corporation	56
Merionethshire	1	Local Board	58
Denbighshire	2	Corporations	58½
Flintshire	1	Corporation	60
Carmarthenshire	1	Local Board	65
Cardiganshire	1	Corporation	72
SCOTLAND:—			
Berwickshire	1	Local Board	54
Dumfries	1	„ „	54
Lanarkshire	3	Local Boards	54
Caithness	—	Caithness County Council.	54
Aberdeen	—	Corporation	54½
Clackmannanshire	1	Local Board	54½
Forfarshire	2	Local Boards	55¾
Renfrewshire	1	Local Board	56
Stirling	—	Stirling County Council.	56
Dumbartonshire	2	Local Boards	56¾
Linlithgowshire	1	Local Board	57
Glasgow	—	Corporation	57¾
Dundee	—	„	58¼
Perthshire	4	Local Boards	58⅓
Selkirkshire	1	Local Board	58½
Banffshire	1	„ „	60
Elgin	2	Local Boards	60
Orkney Islands	1	Local Board	60
Fifeshire	2	Local Boards	60½

SUMMARY of RESULTS of above TABLE.

1. Mean number for England	55¾
2. Mean number for Wales	57¾
3. Mean number for Scotland	57
4. Mean number for Great Britain	56¼

(*e.*) This table, showing the average hours worked per week by all persons in the employ of local authorities, presents several points of contrast with the corresponding table of wages. It is true that, with a few exceptions, the towns down to a certain point are all included in the northern districts; but below this point no connection between geographical situation and hours of work can be detected. Cornwall and Norfolk, *e.g.*, are above Hull and Cheshire. Further, the superiority of large over small towns, which was so pronounced in the case of wages, hardly exists with regard to hours. In only one large corporation — Sheffield — are shorter hours worked than in the small towns of Yorkshire, and the difference here is only 20 minutes. Brighton appears nearly at the bottom of the list. In Leicester and in the small towns of Leicestershire the hours worked per week are precisely the same; and, finally, under the Durham County Council they are only 53, *i.e.*, only 15 minutes per week more than in the corporation of the same name. London, it will be observed, appears twice in the list. The County Council is second only to Sheffield, but the vestries work an average of 55¾ hours per week. The summary appended to the table shows that this number (55¾) is also the average for the whole of England. That for Great Britain amounts to 56¼, being raised by the rates for Wales and Scotland—57¾ and 57.

(*e.*) *Municipal employment generally.*

678. With regard to payment for overtime, very little information was given. As, however, it was occasionally stated that "foremen were not paid for overtime," it is possible that in some cases payment is to be assumed where nothing to the contrary is asserted. In some of the returns it simply appears that "overtime is paid," or that "extra pay for night work" is allowed; in others the amount of pay is given. This is in many towns merely the same rate; in others it varies from time and a quarter to time and a half. Where payment for Sunday labour is mentioned, it is in all cases time and a half, except at Reading, where it is paid at double rate.

Overtime and Sunday labour.

679. Holidays were scarcely mentioned in the returns. Where any reference was made to them it was only to state that the general holidays were allowed. The ordinary pay appears to be given on these days, except at Preston, where only half pay is allowed.

Holidays.

II. GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT.

680. The information on the subject of hours under Government employment comprised the same departments as those dealt with under the heading of wages. Tables similar to those for wages have been drawn up,

Nature and extent of information, and method of dealing with it.

but as the average in dockyards was the same in each yard, it has been thought sufficient to give only one general average for this department in the second table. Table XVII. includes, therefore, instead of three, only two departments, viz., the Royal Engineers and Ordnance Stores.

681. XVII.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Number of Hours worked per Week by Persons employed by Government in the Royal Engineers and in Ordnance Stores.

District.	Royal Engineers.	Ordnance Stores.	Average.
1. Western District	50	—	50
2. Pembroke Dock	50	50⅔	50⅓
3. Woolwich	53¼	47¾	50½
4. Aldershot	56	45	50½
5. Portsmouth	—	50⅔	50⅔
6. Southern District	54½	51	52¾
7. Channel Islands	53	53	53
8. North-Eastern District.	55½	50⅔	53
9. Dover	54¾	51	53
10. Scotland	53¾	53	53¼
11. Ireland	54¼	53	53½
12. Home District	53¾	54	53¾
13. Chatham	55⅔	53½	54⅓
14. Sheerness	54⅔	—	54⅓
15. Plymouth	55⅓	—	55⅓
16. Eastern District	56¾	54¾	55¾
17. North-Western District.	62	50⅔	56⅓

Summary of Results of above Table.

1. England	54¾	51	53
2. Channel Islands	53	53	53
3. Scotland	53⅓	53	53¼
4 Ireland	54¼	53	53½
5. Total	54½	51½	53

XVIII.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Number of Hours worked per Week in various Departments of Government Employment.

Department.	Hours worked per Week.
1. Dockyards:—Chatham, Sheerness, Portsmouth, Devonport, Deptford, and Pembroke.	51
2. Victualling Yards:—Royal Victoria, Royal Clarence, Royal Alexandra, and Royal William.	51
3. Army Clothing Factory, Pimlico	51
4. Ordnance Stores*	51½
5. Inspection Department, Artillery	53
6. Ordnance Factories	54
7. Quarter Master General's Department (Supply Reservoir Depôt, Woolwich).	54
8. Royal Engineers*	54½
Total	52½

* *See* Table XVII.

[§ 681(a.)] (a.) *Royal Engineers and Ordnance Stores.*

(a.) Table XVII. shows the average hours worked per week in the Royal Engineers in 17 districts of the United Kingdom, and in 14 districts in Ordnance Stores. The hours in the latter are decidedly shorter than in the former, the variations extending from 45 at Aldershot to 54¾ in the eastern district, with an average of 51½; while in the Royal Engineers they range from 50 in the western district to 62 in the north-western, with an average of 54½. The total average for the United Kingdom is 53 hours.

(b.) *Other departments.*

(b.) In Table XVIII. the range is very slight. The shortest hours worked are 51, and the highest 54½, or, excluding the Royal Engineers, 54. The average is 52½.

(ii.) COMPARISON OF PRIVATE WITH MUNICIPAL AND GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT.

Nature and extent of information.

682. Tables similar to those given under the heading "Wages," comparing the rates paid by local authorities and by private employers on roads, pavements, and sewers, and in gas and water works, could not be obtained for hours, as no data were available corresponding to the Board of Trade returns of wages in 1886. This difficulty does not, however, exist in the case of the building trades; and in order that some comparison may be made between private employers and local authorities with regard to hours, the following table has been drawn up in the same manner as Table XI. under the heading "Wages."

683. XIX.—Table showing the Means of Returns received of Number of Hours worked per Week by Persons employed by Private Firms and by Corporations in the Building Trades, 1891–2.

Town.	Class of Labour.	Hours worked per Week.	
		Employer.	Corporation.
1. Bolton	Carpenters, masons, bricklayers, and painters.	47½	51½
2. Bradford	Carpenters, masons, and bricklayers.	48	49½
3. Preston	Carpenters and plumbers.	48½	54½
4. Nottingham	Carpenters, bricklayers, plumbers, painters, and bricklayers' labourers.	49	53
5. Oldham	Carpenters, masons, and bricklayers.	51	49½
Total		49	51½

General conclusions with regard to private and municipal management.

So far as this table goes, it appears that the relation between wages and hours under private employers and corporations respectively tends to differ considerably. Whereas under private employers the tendency appears to be that short hours and low wages or long hours and high wages should go together, under corporations the reverse is the case. At Oldham, for instance, where the highest wages are paid (*see* Table XI.—Wages) the hours under the corporation are only 49½. At Preston, on the other hand, where wages are considerably lower than in the other towns, they amount to 54½. Only five towns, however, altogether are included in the table, and it is, of course, unsafe to generalise from so slight a basis. The range of variations under private employers is from 47½ at Bolton to 51 at Oldham; under corporations from 49½ at Oldham and Bradford to 54½ at Preston. The corresponding averages are 49 and 51.

(iii.) EIGHT HOURS' DAY.

Municipal employment.

684. It appears from the returns that there is but little experience under municipal management of the system of eight hours work a day. The experiment

[§ 684.] where it has been tried occurs almost exclusively in the comparatively large towns. Most of the cases where it is found are corporations with a population of 100,000 or over; and the rest, though not falling under this category, are towns of a considerable size, such as Halifax and Darwen. Among the small corporations and local boards no definite mention of the system is made, though the hours in some cases are short enough to make it probable that it has been practically adopted. With very few exceptions the eight hours' system (where it has been introduced at all) occurs only in the gasworks of the various corporations. This is the case in Birmingham, Salford, Leicester, Manchester, Nottingham, and other towns. It is found in a few waterworks, and in miscellaneous departments of some corporations. Generally speaking, it has, as at Manchester, been introdued in consequence of a petition from the men. Very few of the returns give any information as to the results of the introduction of the system, but it is probably to be assumed that it has been successful where nothing is stated to the contrary. At Middleton, however, although in ecember 1889, the gas stokers, among other things, requested and obtained the establishment of an eight hours' shift, by April 1890, they asked to revert to the old system. At Middlesbrough the gas manager states that the men do more relative work under the eight hours' system than when working twelve hours a day, but that in consequence of the decrease in absolute returns, it costs 12 per cent. more. At Newcastle, on the other hand, there is a conspicuous instance of the successful introduction of the system. For five years, it is stated, the Corporation has destroyed part of the town refuse by fire. The operation is carried on in furnaces requiring pretty constant attention. For 3½ years the men worked alternate shifts of 12 hours each; but in the winter of 1889, a new arrangement was made on the request of the men, of three shifts of eight hours. The result was, that "with identically the same furnaces, "the amount burnt was so largely increased that the "cost per ton was slightly reduced."

[§ 6

685. An eight hours' day appears to have been adopted in some cases in the various departments of Government employment, but beyond the mere statement of hours no information was given.

In Gov ernme employ ment.

686. A memorandum has been handed in to the Commission enumerating certain advantages enjoyed by the men employed in Government Dockyards. It appears that a pension on retirement is granted to the "established" men, and those on the "hired" list receive gratuities on discharge. The work is regular, and is carried on for the most part under favourable conditions. When this is not the case extra pay is given. Various medical and educational advantages are enjoyed; rooms have been fitted up for the men's use, and canteens exist in certain yards at which tea, coffee, &c., can be purchased.

Other condit of labo Gover dockya

B. GENERAL RELATIONS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYED.

I. Municipal Employment.

General relations.

687. Nearly every town from which returns have been received has supplied some information as to the relations existing between employers and employed. It appears from the data thus available that these relations are particularly good. It must, however, be borne in mind that the returns express the opinions of only one side, the employers', and are, therefore, liable to be biassed. A large number of corporations answer simply, "None" to the question in the Schedules as to the disputes that have occurred. Some, however, give more explicit evidence of the friendly feeling said to exist. Thus in one department at Birmingham "general satisfaction" is said to be felt; and at Burton-on-Trent it is asserted that no dispute has ever occurred, the men having always been dealt with fairly. This is also the case at Grimsby, while at Dundee "the work-"men take no part in trade disputes, their wages being "for the most part regulated by the rates paid by local "contractors." It may be noted that at Barnsley, when the masons employed by private firms struck, those employed by the Corporation continued work on the understanding that they abode by the results of the strike.

So-called "disputes." Applications for increased wages, &c.

688. The signification given to the word "disputes" in the returns is so wide that it is necessary to make some sort of classification. Under this term are included not only strikes, or even such disputes as might lead to strikes, but dealings between employers and employed, such as applications for increased pay or shorter hours, however well received, or whatever their results. The greater number of the so-called disputes fall under this head. Such applications have been made at Glossop, Stalybridge, Mossley, Bath, Ripon, and several smaller towns. In the majority of cases the demands made have been granted, whether under protest or not; but at Sutton Coldfield and Lyme Regis there have been instances of refusal, which were not, however, followed by strikes. "Any question," writes the town clerk of Dundee, "that has arisen as to wages, "hours of labour, times of payment, &c., has been in-"variably settled by an amicable arrangement ac-"quiesced in by both employers and employed." This conciliatory spirit appears, indeed, to be very widespread. Thus, at Newcastle, the usual method of procedure is described as follows:—"In case of grievance or desire "for rise of wages they (the men) are expected to bring "their case before the city engineer, who either deals "with it at once, after the needful inquiries, or lays it "before the committee in whose charge the special "matter happens to be. They deal carefully with the "facts laid before them, and if the decision is to accede "to the wishes of the men, that ends the matter: if the "decision is adverse, then the men are called before "the Committee, and state their own case either per-"sonally or through their Union secretaries. This "mode has been found to work smoothly." The London County Council states that "it cannot be said that any "disputes have occurred between the Council and the "persons in its employment. Representations have "from time to time been made by various classes of "servants, and these have all been carefully considered, "and modifications have been made in the hours and "conditions of work."

Strikes

689. Serious disputes have, however, taken place in a few towns, but the accounts are in most cases so fragmentary that it is impossible to glean from them more than the causes and general results. It is noticeable that nearly all the important strikes occurred in the gas departments of the different towns. The causes are various, but the most usual are demands for higher wages and shorter hours, and questions connected with Trade Unionism.

(a.) In Gasw

(a.) A serious dispute at Manchester arose from certain demands on the part of the men for better conditions, and was immediately caused by a refusal to work with non-unionists. The other demands were conceded by the Corporation, but on this point they would not yield. In consequence, the Stokers' Union ordered the men in the Salford Corporation Gasworks to come out; and, as no compromise could be effected, men were eventually obtained from a distance to carry on the work. The formation of the Gasworkers' and General Labourers' Union was alleged to have led to a strike at Coventry on a question of wages and hours, in which the men had no real grievance. As soon as the true state of things was understood they willingly came back, expressing satisfaction with the treatment they received from the department. At Darwen, on the other hand, the men demanded certain alterations in wages and hours, and, though the Mayor offered the conditions prevalent at either Bolton or Blackburn, they refused so persistently that new men were imported by the Corporation. Disputes on the same subjects at Oldham and Mossley were won by the men.

(b.) In other Depart ments.

(b.) The few strikes that have occurred in other departments arose in every case on some question of the conditions of labour. The results were various. In some cases the Corporation gave in; in others they forced the men to yield.

II. Government Employment.

Genera relation

690. No actual disputes are recorded under Government employment, but applications for increase of pay, &c., have occurred in almost every department. These appear to have been generally conceded.

C. COMPARISON OF PRIVATE WITH MUNICIPAL AND GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AS TO EFFICIENCY AND COST.

I. Municipal Employment.

691. A considerable number of the returns, among which is that of the London County Council, merely state in answer to the question as to the comparative merits of municipal and private management, that they are unable to judge, not having the necessary data on which to form an opinion. Others, again, simply offer an opinion that public management is more efficient, but say nothing as the comparative cost of the two systems. By far the larger number of the returns, however, consider that municipal management is superior, both as to efficiency and cost, to private control. The Chichester clerk goes so far as to state that "the maximum of efficiency and profitableness is "obtained when work is done by those in the employ "of the corporation; the reverse when done by "contract." In many cases this opinion is given without any information as to the grounds on which it is based. Arguments are, however, brought forward in support of it by a few corporations. Thus the Birmingham town clerk writes that "profitableness is "increased by being able to borrow money on the "public rates for the purpose of new works at less "interest than people care to invest on share capital." In the return from West Hartlepool it is argued that "there is no sub-contracting and, consequently, no "scamped work in order to bring in the two profits." The work also, it is said, costs infinitely less in repairs. This view is upheld by several corporations. Others again argue that the responsibility of municipal bodies to the ratepayers and the strict audit of accounts ensure work being done better and at less cost under public management; while in one case the same result is attributed to the fact that "public management often "looks to the future, while private management some-"times ignores the future and looks only for present "returns." Instances in which work under public management has actually been carried out with greater efficiency and at less cost are also occasionally adduced. Thus, at Howden, it is stated that "the scavenging "which was until last June done by a contractor, was "not well done, the result being that this Board have "employed a man to work, under the superintendence of "the surveyor, with advantage in the execution of the "work and a saving of about 25*l.* per annum in the "cost"; and the Fleetwood town clerk quotes the case of a private contractor refusing to tender for a new highway "owing to the commissioners being able to do "the work with greater efficiency and at less cost." It is, of course, possible that the opinions given in the returns are biassed by the position of the clerks. The town clerk of Croydon, indeed, while declaring himself in favour of municipal management, adds that "contractors probably hold a different opinion." In a large number of cases the view is held that public work, though more efficient, is considerably more costly and often slower. In some, this is ascribed to the deliberate adoption of a policy of philanthropy. In the Chelsea Vestry, *e.g.*, there is a "tacit under-"standing that employment shall be given to the "parishioners first, and not necessarily to the fittest "and best men," while at Lyme Regis and Bethnal Green old men are employed who would otherwise have to go the workhouse; and the work is therefore done more slowly than would be the case under a contractor. Even where the cost of municipal undertakings is accounted for by no such reason, certain considerations are urged which may be set against the increased expense. That it is compensated, or more than compensated for, by the increased efficiency is contended in several of the returns. The town clerk of Abersychan uses a similar argument when he writes that "when "work is done by contract on the score of cheapness, "it is generally at the cost of efficiency, unless very "rigid supervision is exercised; the cost of such "supervision frequently being equal to if not in excess "of the difference in cost of the two methods." Others again urge that "profit is not considered," the object of municipal work being not profit making but the general good of the public. It is therefore contended that though no pecuniary gain is made, a benefit accrues to the community in the form of reduced rates, gas, &c., at cost price, which is of greater value.

[§ 692.] Neutral opinions.

692. Another opinion frequently met with in the returns is that there is no difference as to efficiency and cost between public and private management. Some consider that the question depends on the respective ability of the managers or the men employed; and others that it varies according to the kind of work. For the current work of a town it is generally held that public management is superior; for the erection of buildings and other large works where wide experience and extensive plant are necessary the contract system is to be preferred.

Opinions in favour of private management.

693. Of the few clerks who record an opinion in favour of private rather than public management, it is noticeable that nearly all bring forward arguments in support of their view. By some the absence of the element of self-interest is mentioned as a serious drawback to the success of work done under municipal control. "A private firm," writes the clerk of Oswaldtwistle, "is obliged to adopt measures to secure "efficiency and a profit, while there is no such existing "motive in a board or corporation, at least not "necessarily." Others argue that the members of a corporation do not possess the varied experience of a contractor, while a large number of small towns complain of the want of special plant. It is further contended that outside influences operate harmfully against the work of a public body; each member of a board or corporation being entirely dependent on outside support for the position he holds.

Various suggestions with regard to municipal employment.

694. A few suggestions made in the returns for the better conduct of municipal enterprises may conveniently be appended here. The town clerk of Kirkheaton complains of the difficulty experienced in rural districts in obtaining a sufficient number of able men to form a board, and adds that the result is that such places are "kept back and not encouraged to "advance with the times." He advises, therefore, that all small districts should be amalgamated and worked by district councils. Complaint is made by two clerks that the officers are so much at the mercy of the local authorities as to be afraid to discharge their duties honestly. One, therefore, suggests a right of appeal to a larger area; the other considers that officers should not be removable except for misconduct or incompetency; and recommends a right of appeal to the Local Government Board. He further advises the granting of a pension to incapacitated officers which would have the effect of removing one incentive to dishonesty.

II. Government Employment.

Opinions with regard to private and Government management.

695. The returns of Government employment state in several instances that no data exist for drawing a comparison with private management; or sometimes that the question is inapplicable, as the work done is of a kind not carried on in the general trade. The answers, however, that have been received are practically unanimous. In the return from the Chatham Dockyard it is stated that work done by contractors is equal in efficiency to that done in the yard; but all the others agree that Government work is more efficient than that done under private management, though it is often more costly. In two instances a reason is brought forward for this conclusion. In the return from the Inspection Department, Woolwich, the increased efficiency is ascribed to the facts that Government shops are not subject to competition for low prices or bent upon making a profit, and that, therefore, more care and better material can be used in the manufacture of any article. Hence, though dearer at first, it is more durable, and therefore more profitable in the long run. In the Ordnance Stores Department, at Portsmouth, it is asserted that the men employed "are from their training, after having served "some time in the Department, specially qualified for "carrying out the work required." Their work is therefore said to be more efficient and profitable than that done for the Department by contract.

Geoffrey Drage,
Secretary.

APPENDIX III.

SUMMARY UPON THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

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NOTE.

In accordance with a Resolution of the Commission, the Secretary was directed to prepare a Summary of the Evidence (oral and written) received by the Commission on the subject of the Employment of Women. This Evidence includes:—

A. INFORMATION RECEIVED BY THE COMMISSION.

1. The Seventeen Reports drawn up by the four Lady Assistant Commissioners.
2. The Evidence given before the three Committees of the Commission, and also before the Commission Sitting as a Whole.
3. The Answers to the Schedules of Questions.
4. The Rules of Associations of Employers and of Employed.
5. Summaries of Evidence given before the Commission.
6. Certain other Documents handed in or forwarded to the Commission, but not printed with the above
7. Further Correspondence on certain subjects.

B. INFORMATION OBTAINED FROM OFFICIAL SOURCES.

8. Reports of the Chief Inspectors of Factories and Workshops for 1891 and 1892.
9. Returns of Wages published between 1830 and 1886 issued by the Board of Trade.
10. Statistical Tables and Report on Trade Unions. Fifth Report, 1891.
11. Report on Strikes and Lock-outs issued by the Board of Trade for 1889, 1890, and 1891.
12. Reports of the Select Committee of the House of Lords on the Sweating System.

C. INFORMATION OBTAINED FROM GENERAL SOURCES.

13. Certain Non-official Publications bearing on the subject, including Reviews, Pamphlets, Reports of Women's Associations, &c.

An attempt has been made to group together all the information received under certain specific heads following in main outline those adopted in the summaries of the evidence taken before the Commission. At the same time the instructions of the Lady Assistant Commissioners have been carefully borne in mind, and the information has been arranged in such a way as to bring out clearly, (i) the difference in the rate of wages of men and women, (ii) the alleged grievances of women, (iii) the effects of women's industrial employment on their health, morality, and the home. Further sections have been added with regard to trade disputes and trade organisations.

It has been found impossible to deal with the information collected by the Lady Assistant Commissioners on precisely the same lines as those adopted in the other summaries, owing to the different nature of the information. The witnesses examined before the Committees of the Commission, the majority of whom were employers or trade union officials, showed a knowledge of the trade not only in their own locality but also in the whole area embraced by the union, as well as some acquaintance with the conditions of labour as a whole. The evidence given before the Commission sitting as a whole bore in a still greater degree on general questions connected with labour. It was therefore usually possible to give from the evidence itself any generalisation or conclusions arrived at. On the other hand, the information collected by the four Lady Assistant Commissioners referred for the most part to special districts, and hence consisted more often of a great number of particular facts relating to the employment of women in certain localities. While in some cases generalisations were made and conclusions were drawn with reference to the conditions of work in certain special districts or in certain parts of an industry, there were very few on the general questions connected with the employment of women as a whole. Hence in an attempt to group and arrange all the facts, with a view to bringing out the more salient points in connection with the subject, it has in some cases been found impossible to avoid a certain amount of generalisation and deduction from the facts given. This is especially true in the section on Wages.

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EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

[In all cases of foot-notes to the text where reference is made to pages only, the Reports of the four Lady Assistant Commissioners are referred to. Where reference is made to other sources of information the title of the volume or document is quoted.—G. D.]

A. CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

1. WAGES.

[§ 696.]

GENERAL QUESTION OF LOWNESS OF WOMEN'S WAGES.

Wages of women.

696. The following tables show the means of the returns of wages earned by women and girls in different industries and in different districts, collected by the Lady Assistant Commissioners. These means are in some cases probably not far from true averages, but in other cases they diverge. In the summarised tables (I.–VII.), the wage estimate is the arithmetic mean of the wages given in the detailed tables. The nature of the return in the latter tables and the method by which the means were determined is in each case indicated in the Remarks.

I. TABLE showing AVERAGE RATES of WOMEN'S and GIRLS' WAGES in FACTORIES and WORKSHOPS in various industries, 1891–2.*

(Arranged in descending order.)

Industry.	Arithmetic Mean of Mean Wages per Week collected.		Reference.
	s.	*d.*	
Shop Assistants (1) -	18	0	Paragraph 712.
Printing (including map-printing) (2).	16	0	„ 713.
Straw-hat making (3) -	14	4	„ 711 (*c.*).
Barmaids, waitresses, manageresses, and book-keepers in hotels (1).	13	8	„ 712.
Cotton industry - -	13	4	„ 710 (*a.*).
Shirt and collar manufacture (4).	13	4	„ 711 (*c.*).
Boot and shoe industry -	13	3	„ 711 (*b.*).
Milliners, dressmakers, and mantle-makers (1).	12	11	„ 712.
Hosiery (including fancy hosiery).	12	7	„ 711 (*b.*).
Rubber works and brush-making.	12	6	„ 717.
Carpet industry - -	12	4	„ 710 (*c.*).
Watch and jewellery -	12	2	„ 714.
Silk and poplin - -	12	2	„ 710 (*c.*).
Tailoring - - -	11	9	„ 711 (*a.*).
Laundresses (1) - -	11	6	„ 717.
Linen, jute, and flax - -	11	6	„ 710 (*c.*).
Woollen industry - -	11	4	„ 710 (*b.*).
Tinplate, iron, tin-stamping, iron enamel, enamel, and slate enamel works at the pit brow and in brickyards.	11	4	„ 714.
Miscellaneous trades (5) -	10	2	„ 717.
Worsted trade - -	10	2	„ 710 (*c*).
Miscellaneous clothing -	10	1	„ 711 (*c.*).
Umbrella trade - -	9	9	„ 711 (*c.*).
Iron and steel trades - -	9	9	Paragraph 714.
Book-binding, book-folding, book-sewing, &c.	9	9	„ 713.
Lead, match, and colour trades.	9	4	„ 714.
Trades connected with manufacture of food.	8	5	„ 715.
Fustian and velvet cutting -	8	3	„ 710 (*c.*).
Shoddy and flock manufacture.	7	6	„ 710 (*c.*).
Sack-making, rope-making, and rag-picking.	7	1	„ 716.
Straw plaiting - -	4	6	„ 711 (*c.*).
Mean of above estimates -	11	5	Detailed tables, paragraphs 710–718.

* Further details and explanations regarding all the wages mentioned in this table are found in the detailed tables (paragraphs 710 to 718), to which references are given in each case. For the relation between women's wages in these and in the so-called "sweated industries" (*i.e.*, those examined before the House of Lords Committee) *see* paragraph 718, and in particular footnote (1) appended to page 477.

(1.) It must be remembered that whenever board and lodging was wholly or partially provided, as in the case of shop assistants, barmaids, waitresses, &c., or whenever any "allowances" were made, such as beer to laundresses, the monetary value has been taken into account as far as possible in estimating the average wage.

(2.) The high average obtained in the printing trade is explained by the fact that the wages of apprentices or learners have not been taken into account, and thus the wages of comparatively skilled labour only are given.

(3.) The statistics from which the average wage for straw hat-making were obtained were furnished by factories in which apparently the best class of hat was made.

(4.) The wages given for shirt and collar manufacture refer only to the non-sweated part of the industry.

(5.) Miscellaneous trades include upholstery, unloading boats, soap manufacture, box-making, dock, wharf, and riverside labour, tobacco manufacture, saddlery and harness manufacture, pipe factories and potteries, and cocoanut-fibre mat-makers.

II. TABLE showing the FLUCTUATIONS of MEANS of RETURNS collected in DIFFERENT DISTRICTS.*

District.	Arithmetic Mean of Mean Wages per Week collected.	
	s.	*d.*
1. Lancashire and Cheshire - -	15	3
2. South Scotland - - -	14	9
3. Leicester - - - -	13	9
4. London - - -	13	2
5. Glasgow and District - -	12	8
6. Huddersfield - - -	12	3
7. Halifax - - - -	12	1
8. England - - -	11	10
9. North Scotland - - -	11	10
10. Leeds - - -	11	10
11. Yorkshire - - -	11	7
12. Scotland - - -	11	6
13. West England - - -	11	6
14. Manchester - - -	11	1
15. West Scotland - - -	11	0
16. Bristol - - -	10	11
17. Bradford - - - -	10	10
18. East Scotland - - -	10	9
19. Wales - - - -	10	8
20. Birmingham - - -	10	5
21. Midlands - - - -	10	1
22. Liverpool and Birkenhead - -	9	9
23. Ireland - - - -	9	5

*Estimates obtained from the detailed tables (paragraphs 710–718). It has been found impossible to attempt any adequate explanation of the fluctuations of wages in various districts because very little information on the subject is given in the reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners. That some of the chief centres of the principal branches of the textile industry come at or near the head of the list is not surprising, since that industry is in many places better paid and better organised than most others in which women are engaged, and it employs, moreover, a larger number of persons than perhaps any other. It appears probable that the low wages of such towns as Bristol and Liverpool is accounted for by the fact that they are ports with a vast miscellaneous population, in which there is a demand for all sorts of unskilled as well as skilled labour, and in which there is a large amount of home-work. The very large number of women workers, both married and unmarried, in Birmingham, and the practically unskilled character of the mechanical work on which they are employed in the factories, may also account for the low wages in that town. It is stated that the very low wages paid in many industries to women in Wales are attributed by most of those who offered opinions on the subject to the small choice of employment. The supply of labour greatly exceeds the demand. A number of country hands, the daughters of farmers, slate quarrymen, and miners, compete for employment with the daughters of tradesmen and mechanics in the town. "Any new opening . . . . . in a factory is stormed with applicants, and the managers can really fix the wages with almost arbitrary power. It is only when some skill is required, and the hands have become trained, that a rise in wages has been obtained." p. 242.

[§ 696.] It appears from the above that the mean of the estimated wages earned by women and girls in all industries from which information has been received is 11*s.* 5*d.* This is strikingly corroborated by the returns of wages paid to women and girls in the 23 chief industries in which they are employed, handed in to the Commission by Mr. Giffen. According to these statistics, 151,263 women earn an average wage of 12*s.* 8*d.*, 48,772 girls an average of 7*s.*; together earning an average wage of 11*s.* 3½*d.* It is, however, a significant fact that the mean of the returns of wages in the so-called "sweated" trades, which was obtained from details given in the evidence before the House of Lords' Committee on the Sweating System, was estimated at 12*s.*(1) The conclusion, therefore, appears to be, not that the wages paid in so-called "sweated" trades are high, but that in the majority of cases women's wages are low. A glance at the first of the above tables shows that in only 15 out of all the trades in which women are employed, and concerning which evidence has been obtained, does the mean of the returns collected rise above 11*s.* 5*d.*; in the very great majority of trades, therefore, women do not even receive so low a wage as is represented by the mean in all industries. Nor must it be forgotten that in 13 out of those 15 trades (2) in which the estimate is over—in some cases considerably over—11*s.* 5*d.*, the mean of the wages of women workers in certain places or in certain lower branches of the trade do not amount to that sum. In the remaining industries (those in which the mean is below 11*s.* 5*d.*) the wages of many sections of workers are exceedingly low. This can be seen by the detailed tables appended to the end of the wages section of the mean of the returns collected from the several departments of the various industries in different districts. Thus even in the textile trade the mean for woollen spinners is 7*s.* 6*d.* per week in Leeds, and 6*s.* in Ireland, and for workers in a worsted factory at Ayr only 5*s.* 10*d.* For spike nail makers in Worcestershire the mean amounted to 4*s.* 6*d.*, and for those engaged in rope teazing and sack sewing in London and Scotland it ranged from 4*s.* 9*d.* to 3*s.* In straw-plaiting at Luton the weekly earnings were estimated at 4*s.* 6*d.*, and the hourly earnings at ¾*d.*; while in "sprigging" embroidery at Donegal the wages of "hundreds of people" were stated to range from 2*d.* to 9*d.* a day, and the weekly wage to average 2*s.* 9*d.*(3) Such means of the returns collected are, of course, only of the nature of rough estimates but, as such, they yield a striking conclusion. Further illustrations were contained in the Lady Sub-Commissioners' accounts of visits to or interviews with individual workers, and in the evidence given before the House of Lords' Committee on the Sweating System. Thus a woman in the hosiery trade receives 3*d.* for "turning off and seaming feet of a dozen pairs of stockings. She can make 10 dozen in one week, which is equivalent to 2*s.* 6*d.*" Another woman seams men's socks for eight to nine hours daily at 4½*d.* per dozen. Her average earnings are 2¼*d.* per day or 1*s.* 1½*d.* per week. In the lace trade a woman was found beading frilling at 2½*d.*–3½*d.* per dozen yards. She could bead 3½ yards in an hour, and by "neglecting her home" she could earn 3*s.* a week.(4) [§ 696.]

DIFFERENCE IN THE WAGES AND RATES OF WAGES OF MEN AND WOMEN.

III. Table showing the Comparison between the Means of the Returns collected for Men* and Women in those Trades in which both are employed, 1890–2.

Trade.	Mean of the Returns collected for Women and Girls (Weekly Wages).	Mean of the Returns collected for Men (Weekly Wages).	Reference.
	s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	
Shop assistants	18 0	34 5 (1)	Table I.—Reports on the Conditions of Labour in various Industries, pp. 4, 5.
Printing	16 0	33 1	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part II., Section 409.
Cotton industry	13 4	25 11 (2)	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part I., Sections 304, 305.
Boot and shoe industry	13 3	24 2 (3)	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part I., Section 324.
Hosiery	12 7	25 9 (4)	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part I., Section 323.
Carpet industry	12 4	25 6 (5)	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part I., Section 313.
Silk (and poplin)	12 2	34 0†	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part I., Section 312.
Jute	11 9	26 10	Appendix A. (3.)—Summary, Group C., Part I., Section 311.
Tailoring	11 8	24 4 (6)	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part I., Sections 325, 341.
Woollen industry	11 4	20 9 (7)	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part I., Sections 308, 309.
Potteries	9 5	26 10	Appendix H.—Summary, Group C., Part II., Section 421.
Chemical trades	9 4	34 6	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part II. Section 414.
Nail and chain trades	7 3	18 10	Appendix E.—Summary, Group A., Part II., Section 10
Mat-making	7 0	16 10	Table I.—Summary, Group C., Part II., Section 421.
*Total in all industries from which information has been obtained	11 5	—	—
Average wages in certain selected occupations, as estimated by Mr. Giffen (8)	(Women) 12 8 (Girls) 7 0	24 7	Average rate of men's wages 94 per cent. above average rate of women's wages (excluding domestic servants).

* The wages of men in the specific industries referred to in this table were in every instance but one determined from the summaries, and the sources of information were, therefore, more easily accessible than in the case of the wages of women. The method adopted was in all respects similar to that employed with regard to women's wages, and in the case of shop assistants the information was derived from the same source. The labour involved in drawing up the table would have been enormously increased by giving a *detailed* explanation of the method followed in determining the means, and in view of these facts it has not been thought necessary to do so. Moreover, this explanation has been already given, to some extent, in the detailed tables in the summaries themselves.

† This figure refers only to a special class of workers.

(1) This average was determined by a process exactly similar to that already adopted in the detailed table given in paragraph 17. Board, lodging, and premiums have been included wherever possible.

(2) The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of the results given in the summaries.

(3) The average given by the Boot Manufacturers' Association for Leeds (taking the mean of the wages of riveters, clickers, and finishers) is 27*s.* 4*d.*, and that given by the Boot and Shoe Operatives is 22*s.* 6*d.* The mean between these results (*i.e.*, 24*s.* 11*d.*) was added to the average for Leicester and Aberdeen (given by the operatives) and divided by three to obtain the above.

(4) Seven statements were given in which wages were said to vary between certain specified limits. The arithmetic mean was taken in each case and finally the mean taken of the whole.

(5) Mr. Southwell stated that wages ranged from 32*s.* to 35*s.* The arithmetic mean was taken and the mean then taken between this result and the average given by the Aberdeen Carpet Weavers' Association.

(6) The number of hours worked on an average in Scotland (Section 341) is 58¾, and the mean rate of payment per hour 5*d.*, *i.e.*, a mean weekly wage of 24*s.* 4*d.* The hourly rate in England, Wales, and Ireland is also 5*d.* The mean wage in Scotland has, therefore, been taken as typical of the whole.

(7) It is not quite clear whether this represents the wage of men alone or men and boys together. If the former, then the wage would be lower in 1891 than in 1886 (*see* Table IV.). The latter has, therefore, been assumed to be the case.

(8) See Tables of Wages handed in by Mr. Giffen. The average applies to 38 selected occupations, but they may be taken, according to Mr. Giffen's evidence, as representative of industries as a whole. The average refers to the year 1885, which was one of depressed trade, but these rates do not differ very materially from those paid at the present time. (*See* Mr. Giffen's evidence before the Commission Sitting as a Whole.)

(1) The table of women's wages on p. 502 was obtained from the details given in the evidence before the Committee of the House of Lords appointed to investigate the "sweating system." With few exceptions the returns of wages in the various industries are as high, or higher, than those given in the tables obtained from the reports issued by the Lady Sub-Commissioners; and the mean of these returns given above (12*s.*) is higher than that obtained from those tables (11*s.* 5*d.*). It may be noted that the results in the above table may to a certain extent serve to corroborate those already obtained. Where they do not agree the difference would appear to be accounted for by the fact that the means in this table are determined solely (except in the case of the tailoring trade in London) from statements made by individual witnesses, and frequently apply only to certain more highly-paid classes of labour in the industry under consideration; whereas those in the previous tables apply, unless otherwise specified, to the industry as a whole. This is particularly the case in the wages given in the tailoring trade, which are thus considerably higher than the means already obtained. In other cases (*e.g.*, in the buttonhole-making industry of London) daily rather than weekly wages have been given, the latter having been calculated from the former on the basis of six days' work a week, and this fact may account for the high rate in these instances. In some industries the results obtained from the two sources agree, or differ but slightly. In the tailoring trade of Walsall, for instance, the mean given above is 12*s.* 7*d.*, while that previously obtained was 12*s.*; and in the saddlery and harness trade the two rates were respectively 9*s.* 10*d.* and 10*s.* 4*d.* In the nail-making industry the mean given above is 5*s.* 6*d.*, and the maximum rate was stated to be 11*s.* 9*d.* In the tables obtained from the reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners the mean for hand nail makers was given as 10*s.*, and that for spike nail makers as 4*s.* 6*d.*

(2) *i.e.*, with the exception of barmaids and London milliners. Detailed tables of wages, pp. 20-21.

(3) Detailed tables of wages, pp. 487–504, *infra*. (4) pp. 160–1.

[§ 697 (a).] Difference in wages.

(a.) *Arising from difference in the kind of work.*

697. (*a.*) It has been already seen that the mean of the returns of weekly wages for women and girls in all industries from which information has been obtained is 11*s.* 5*d.* It appears from the above table that the average weekly wage of men is 24*s.* 7*d.** The difference in remuneration is largely accounted for by the difference in the kind of work. The average wage of men is calculated as far as possible upon a basis sufficiently representative of the whole number of industries in which men are employed, and this includes a number of the best paid, best organised, and most highly skilled trades such as mining and engineering, for which women are physically unfitted. The mean of the returns collected for women is determined from a far smaller number of trades. These include a certain proportion which are also common to men, but women's work is to a large extent confined to the unskilled, unorganised, and ill-paid industries. In the case of those industries in which both men and women are employed, the difference in the rate of wages is also partly explained by the same cause, difference in the kind of work. Except in a few branches of the textile trade, it is very unusual to find men and women employed in exactly the same part of any industry. Under the present system of subdivision of labour, there is a constant tendency towards the appropriation of the heavier and more highly skilled—and therefore better paid—portions of the work by the men, while the easier, lighter, and more mechanical—and therefore worse paid—portions are left over for the women. A good deal of evidence in support of this was given by various witnesses examined before the Commission and by the Lady Sub-Commissioners, with reference to the textile and other industries, and in the Answers to Schedules of Questions in the miscellaneous trades of Group C., with reference to cabinet-making, hosiery, brush-making, printing, bookbinding, boot and shoe making, tailoring, tobacco and snuff-making.(1) The different wages paid to men and women in the textile industries were almost always accounted for by the men by the fact that the work was different. Thus, the representatives of the Amalgamated Card and Blowing Room Operatives' Association in Lancashire, which comprises districts in Cheshire, Derbyshire, and Yorkshire, stated that the wages of the women were not quite so high as the men, as their work was "not quite so heavy."(2) A wool and worsted cloth manufacturer at Huddersfield accounted for the difference in the wages of the two sexes by the fact that "the women weavers "get the simpler, cheaper kind of work, the men get the "more complicated kind."(3) Very often the difference lay not so much in the work itself as in the inability of the women to perform some necessary process connected with it. Thus a male weaver from Yorkshire explained that women could not "tune," *i.e.*, keep in repair, their looms, and their wages were less as someone else had to be paid to do it for them. In silk picking "they are compelled to have the aid of the men," in wool combing they "cannot tend and clean machinery."(4) At a carpet mill in Halifax, and in a printing house at Edinburgh, where men and women did the same work, a member of the firm explained that the women required assistance in the heavier part of the work. In the comb-cutting department in a vulcanite factory where the men's wages are 50 per cent. more than the women's, "the "men's work requires more skill, and they also sharpen "their tools."(5) From these facts arises the extreme difficulty of any comparison between the wages of men and women. Any conclusion which does not take them into account is necessarily fallacious. As, however, the work performed is usually either altogether or partly different in kind, there are no certain data for comparison. [§ 697 (a).]

(*b.*) But though it appeared that in most cases wages are different because the work is different or inferior in amount or quality, it would appear from the evidence that women are not merely paid a different amount, but they are paid at a different rate. Not only do they equitably receive less wages for less or inferior work, but these would appear in most cases to be estimated by a different standard. Thus: from Table III. men's wages are seen to be nearly twice as good as women's in those industries in which they are commonly employed. Nor does an examination of the details of this table mentioned above throw any light upon the great difference of remuneration in these trades. A Huddersfield weaver stated that in his district the women weavers did exactly the same work as the men, but were paid at a different rate. He acknowledged that they could not "tune" their looms, but he considered that 2½ per cent. "would be "ample" to pay "not only the whole of the cost of "'tuning,' but would also pay the capitalist for the "diminished product of the loom." The women's wages, however, were from 15 to 50 per cent. less than the men's.(1) At Ayr it was noted that women had been taking the place of the men for the last ten or twelve years in the warping departments in tweed and shawl mills, and that they were doing work for 11*s.* or 12*s.* a week for which the men were formerly paid 22*s.* to 28*s.* Though it was stated that the women did not produce quite so much, and they required some assistance, this hardly explains such an inequality in wages.(2) A Huddersfield woollen cloth manufacturer was asked, "Supposing a woman was "working at precisely the same work as the men, would "there be any difference in the price paid?" "There "would be, I think, roundly 20 per cent," was his reply.(3) A silk manufacturer also stated that though the women usually did lighter kinds of work for less wages, when they happened to do similar work they did it at "about half the price paid to the men." The plea so often given to account for the difference in wages in work that "women require assistance in the heavier parts," scarcely seems adequate to account for the difference of 38 per cent. paid in the wages of men and women in the Halifax Carpet Factory.(4) In the printing house before mentioned, the rate of pay to women was 4½*d.* and to men 6¾*d.* per 1,000 words. The employer reckoned that 1*d.* would cover the extra labour involved in assisting the women, so 1½d. or 18½ per cent. would represent the difference in rate, after allowing for the cost of assistance. Men tailors, an employer stated, were usually engaged for certain skilled work which the women could not do, but even when both sexes were employed on the same work, he had "no hesitation in saying that women are paid at a lower rate." This was also corroborated by the evidence of journeymen tailors.(5) In a certain branch of brush-making, it was observed that in the same work the women received 9*d.* where the men received 1*s.* An employer in the Glasgow potteries owned that though women's work was slightly different, they were paid at a lower rate.(6) Evidence was also given in the nail and chain trade that the women, although doing the same work as the men, received only about half as much wages.(7) From the foregoing evidence—and similar instances might be multiplied—it may be gathered that the difference in wages of men and women in industries in which they are both employed is not wholly explained by the difference in the nature, amount, or quality of the work performed, nor by the extra assistance sometimes necessary. It appears then that a deeper reason must be found to account wholly for the lowness of women's wages. Such lowness is partially explained by the fact that women have a practical monopoly of some of the most unskilled and worst-paid industries, and do the easier and lighter branches in those trades in which men and women are both employed together, while women's work is for some reasons inferior in quantity or quality. The evidence obtained on the subject pointed to the additional conclusion that even when all this is taken into account, women are paid at a lower rate, and their wages are estimated by a different standard. And though not equally evident in those industries in which only women are employed, because there are no data for comparison, the inference may perhaps be drawn that the miserably low wages that are often received are due largely to the same cause. But there is one notable

(*b.*) *Difference in standard by which women's wages are estimated.*

* It must be remembered that the term "women" has usually been taken to include "women and girls," while the term "men" has referred to men only. Hence none of the comparisons between the wages of men and women can be considered exact; they can only illustrate general tendencies. Thus a comparison is made in the last section which shows that the wages of men apparently tend to rise at a higher rate than the wages of women, and had it been possible to procure the wages of women alone as distinguished from those of women and girls, in so far as the evidence goes, it appears probable that the same conclusion would have been arrived at. The reason for taking the wages of women and girls together was the impossibility of separating them. In the reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners they were practically treated together, and the line of demarcation between them was too undefined for any clear or consistent division to be made. Moreover, the term "girl" is often used of all young unmarried women, and therefore it comprises the vast majority of female workers. This is not the case with men and boys. The line of demarcation between men's and boys' wages is much more clearly drawn, and the difference in earnings appears to be greater than the difference (where obtainable) between the earnings of women and girls (*see* Tables IV. and V. for year 1886). Thus, the average wages of men in 1885, according to Mr. Giffen, were 24*s.* 7*d.*, and of boys, 9*s.* 2*d.*, while the average of women were 12*s.* 8*d.*, and of girls, 7*s.* Therefore, a comparison of the wages of women and girls (since they are in most cases inseparable) with those of men and boys would really be more misleading than a comparison with those of men only. This fact, however, must be borne in mind in connection with the summary.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., pp. xiii, xxix, xxx. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mullin. 396-36. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Thomson, 7142. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Gee, 4821-37; Hopkinson, 5334-46 Marran. 954-88. (5) pp. 100, 290, 295.

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Gee, 4805-12, 4826, 4961-71. (2) p. 185. (3) Group A., Minutes, Vol. I., Thomson, 7142. (4) p. 100. (5) Reports, pp. 265-7, 13-14; Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., 14,800-2. (6) p. 281. (7) Group A., Digest, Vol. II., p. 55; Minutes, Vol. II., p. 574 Miss Orme.

97 (b.)] exception to this rule, the weaving industry of Lancashire, and to a certain extent of Yorkshire. A representative of the Northern Counties' Amalgamated Association of Weavers states that men earn no more than women, the highest wages for adults of either sex being 28*s.* or 30*s.*, and the lowest 12*s.* In Yorkshire the custom appeared to vary, at Huddersfield the women were paid on a lower scale, at Bradford it was the same as the men's.(1) The explanation of the equal rates of wages paid to the weavers of both sexes in Lancashire and Bradford seemed to lie in the fact that the women weavers, who are in a great majority in both districts, make up a large part of the men's unions. They form two-thirds of the association in the first case and nearly three-quarters in the second.(2)

COMPETITION BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN.

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698. The extent and nature of the competition between men and women has already been partially dealt with in the last paragraph. In certain trades, such as engineering or millinery, for which one or other sex is obviously unfitted, the question does not arise. In many other industries, as has been shown, in which both sexes are employed, custom and expediency have relegated certain more difficult or heavier branches to one sex, and other easier and lighter branches to the other. Where, however, the line of demarcation is not very clearly drawn, as in the tailoring trade, or where women are trying to work their way into more skilled and better paid departments, hitherto monopolised by the men, friction appeared to arise. This is also the case in those comparatively few industries such as weaving, in which exactly the same work is done by the men and the women. Thus in Yorkshire we find "weaving and wool "combing are the two branches of the textile manufacture "in which women compete largely with men. In most "other branches the work is recognised as belonging "exclusively to one or the other."(3) In Lancashire the greater part of the spinning is the monopoly of the men, and the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners contains 18,926 members who are all males. It was observed that the "ring and throstle" spinning, in which women were employed, competed "slightly" with the "mule spinning" of the men. The different conditions required by the former process, however, render it unlikely that the women will replace the men to any serious extent.(4) In the jute and flax industry of the north, and in the cotton industry of the west of Scotland, men and women do not compete with each other, as spinning and weaving proper are mostly confined to the women. Carpet weaving is the only branch in which men are employed in the western district, and even then they are employed exclusively on hand looms. At Arbroath there are also a few male weavers in the flax manufactories. Nor is there much competition in the woollen industry in the south either, for there spinning is performed solely by the men, and weaving for the most part by the women.(5) The extent to which women as well as men are employed in other industries can be estimated in some measure by the Answers to the Schedules of Questions. It appears that the great majority of employers in Group C., which comprises all the miscellaneous industries in which women chiefly work, employ some proportion of female labour. In 122 answers, the number of women employed is said to be equal to or greater than the number of men. Excluding the 73 answers which come from the textile trades, 17 come from tobacco, 16 from clothing, 9 from printing and bookbinding, 5 from potteries, and one each from the rope spinning and baking trades.(6) There are many other answers in which the number of women employed is said to be at least half the number of men. In the industries comprised under Groups A. and B., women are only employed in the nail and chain and nut and bolt trades; in canal boats; and also to a certain extent at the pit's mouth, especially in Lancashire and Cornwall.(7)

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699. The most salient points that arose in connection with the wide question of the competition of men and women may be briefly summarised thus. The men object to the competition of women on two grounds. Women, they complained, encroach upon their trades and tend to push them out of employment. Not only are they liable to be thus displaced, but the competition of women's labour, being cheaper, tends to pull down their rate of wages. This, they assert, happens in two ways: Either the women do the same work at a lower price, or they do more unskilled work with the aid of machinery. It appears that the men try and protect themselves, either by adopting an altogether unfriendly attitude and endeavouring to exclude women entirely from certain trades or branches of trades through Trade Union rules, &c., or by trying to raise the rate of women's wages for similar work to a level with their own. [§ 699.]

(a.) The Yorkshire textile industries.

(*a.*) The evidence with regard to the competition of women in various trades, more especially in the Yorkshire weaving and in the tailoring trades—where the pressure is very acute—illustrates all these points. That women were supplanting men by cheaper labour was a bitter complaint on all sides where the work of the two sexes tends to overlap. The Bradford and Huddersfield Power Loom Weavers' Associations state respectively, that "women do the same work as the men. Men are being displaced," and that "women have for some time been driving men out of "the trade on account of less wages."(1) "We have scores, "I may say hundreds, of able-bodied men, good weavers, "walking the streets," said a male weaver, "in the "Huddersfield district, who cannot get employment "in consequence of women's labour." At Bradford equal rates of wages are the custom, while at Huddersfield women are paid less; and it appeared that the competition for work is most acute in the latter district. But the other grievance, that this cheap female labour tends to bring down the men's wages, is brought forward on all hands. At Huddersfield, it was asserted that "men are offered women's wages now," and "unfortunately" many have accepted those terms, as it was a choice of no work at all or work at the "women's statement."(2) In the same way representatives of the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weaving Association stated that weavers received lower wages than any other class connected with the industry, because they alone suffer from competition with female labour.(3) Although the rate of wages is the same for both sexes in Bradford and Batley, the very low wages of the weavers in those districts, *e.g.*, 13*s.* 4*d.* and 10*s.* to 12*s.*, was explained by the fact that the proportion of women to men is larger there than in any other Yorkshire towns. They form three-quarters of the weavers' association.(4) Why wages are reduced by the competition of women in the textile industries in Yorkshire to so much larger an extent than in Lancashire was partially explained by the statement of one of the Yorkshire male weavers concerning organisation. Only one-sixteenth of the weavers in the West Riding, he said, were members of the Association. He attributed this largely to the preponderance of women, who do not care to subscribe as they are always intending to leave the mills when they are married.(5) In Lancashire not only are the male cotton weavers much better organised than the male woollen weavers in Yorkshire, but the women are as well organised as the men.(6) As far as that evidence from Yorkshire is concerned, it at least supported these two conclusions in connection with the competition of men and women. "Where women predominate largely, men are working at the women's wage."(7) "The tendency with all employers is to substitute women's labour for that of men, and some have entirely done so."(8)

(b.) Tailoring.

(*b.*) The extent and nature of the employment of women in the tailoring trade varies in different places. Speaking generally, women are far more extensively employed in the lower branch trade, which consists mainly in "ready-made" clothes, and is largely sweated, than in the upper branches of the trade, which consists chiefly of "bespoke goods" and "customers' work," the best part of which is done by hand on the premises by men tailors. There are, however, infinite varieties of grades and classes of shops in the tailoring trade, and the subdivision of labour is carried on to such an extent that some persons spend their lives in sewing on buttons. In many places, however, women are employed in the "bespoke" trade, or in certain of its less skilled parts; it is also partially sweated, especially in its lower branches. Thus it appeared from the evidence that neither sweating, nor the amount and nature of the work done by women, depends absolutely on the "higher" or "lower" parts of the trade. This was also shown by the evidence given before the House of Lords' Committee on the Sweating System and the reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners.(9) There was a consensus of opinion amongst journeymen tailors that the extensive employment of women in "lower class trade has a tendency to lower wages. Of "course if an employer can get a woman to make trousers

(1) Group A., Minutes, Vol. I., Wilkinson, 1624-25; Drew, 5385-404; Downing, 5028-30. (2) Summary, Group C., Part I., pp. 18 and 21. (3) p. 100. (4) Digest I., Group C., p. 10; Reports, p. 116. (5) pp. 184, 297, 301. (6) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. xxix. (7) Digests of Evidence, Groups A and B.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. xiii. (2) Group A., Minutes, Vol. I., Downing, 4999; Gee, 4930. (3) Group C., Digest, Vol. I. p. 20, Drew; Turner. (4) Summary, Part I., Group C., pp. 2 and 21 (5) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 20. (6) Summary, Part I., Group C., p. 18. (7) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Drew, 5694. (8) p. 100. (9) Index Sweating System. Part II., pp. 223-33, Report, Sweating System. McLaughlin, 25,661-71, 25,548-25,600-3; Pinto, 26,060-95, 26,134; Letham, 25,820-22. Reports, pp. 69-73, 204-74. Mr. Burnett's Report on the Sweating System in Leeds.

[§ 699 (b.)] "or 10½d., he will not employ a man to make them for "2s. 9d. or 3s." A member of the executive council of Amalgamated Society of Tailors complained that women turned out the men, because they did 24s. worth of work for 14s. The disputes that occur in this trade illustrate the constant struggle that competition causes between the women who are trying to fight their way into the better paid and more skilled branches of a trade, and the men who desire to exclude them.(1) In Glasgow the two departments in which women compete with men are vest making and trouser making, but this is only in the second-class, third-class, and lower grade shops. In first-class shops, which are chiefly engaged in "customers' work" which requires a high standard of skill as regards cut and finish, women are never employed, except occasionally on vests which are given out to home workers. Vest making is the branch of the trade which, it is said, women can most easily take up when they are allowed to do so. As they "take the vests "at the employers' own terms, while men insist on being "paid at the union rates, the result is that vest making "has become the chief plank by which women are being "floated into the trade." In third-class and lower grade shops the women have succeeded in procuring for themselves most of the vest making, and a great part of the trouser making. In the second-class shops, however, the struggle appears to be still going on.(2)

(c.) Miscellaneous trades.

(c.) In the printing trade in Edinburgh there is a good deal of jealousy of the women compositors who were introduced during the men's strike in 1872 for a 51 hours' week. As they work at a lower rate than the men they are considered to furnish a standing obstacle to any movement on the part of the men for an advance in wages. The competition, however, is limited, because the physical disabilities of women prevent their taking up the heavier branches of the trade. It was further stated by an employer that women rarely remain long enough in the trade to learn the most skilled work.(3) Bitter complaints were made by male representatives of the chain and nail industry as to the disastrous effects of the competition of women on the rate of wages. They were paid, it was asserted, at a lower rate, and the tendency was for this rate to become general. The Lady Sub-Commissioner who subsequently invested this industry did not think that this point was clear.(4) A wharf and barge labourer objected to the employment of women in such rough work as bottle washing, sacking and bag making, because it "threw the men out of work" and "lowered wages." Similar complaints came from the hosiery trade.(5) Another occasion for the displacement of male by female labour was stated to be the introduction of labour-saving machinery. The man who previously performed the process by hand is, it is said, supplanted by the girl who can tend the machine at a low rate of pay. This amounts simply to the substitution of cheaper unskilled labour for dearer skilled labour. In the watch trade at Coventry the introduction of women's labour was opposed by the men for the first five years, but the women now enter very little into direct competition with them, as the skilled work is for the most part done by the men. The hand work for which men were formerly paid about 18s. a week is now done by women with machinery for about 12s.(6) Similar instances were noted in the pottery and pipe factories at Glasgow. Plates which were once made by hand labour by the men are now made very cheaply by the girls with the aid of a machine called the "jolly." It was observed that except in one or two departments of the watch trade attempts to promote women to skilled work have failed. They seem to prefer mechanical work which requires little attention to skilled work which requires a great deal more. An employer at the potteries stated that he had long been anxious to educate women workers in the more highly skilled decorative departments of the trade, for which he thought they would be quite capable. He was willing, moreover, to pay them at the same rate as the men. But all his efforts had been hitherto frustrated by the opposition of the latter. This last statement, however, was contradicted by the manager of the works.(7)

Attitude of the men (i.) Oppose female labour altogether.

700. The attitude of the men or of their unions to the competition of cheap women's labour in many of the cases described above appears from the evidence to be one of uncompromising opposition. This is the position taken up by the Potters' Union in Glasgow, the Typographical Society, the Operative Pearl Button and Stud Worker Protection Society. By rule 21 of the latter any member who either teaches a woman any part of the trade or works in the same shop with a woman shall be fined.(8) Mr. Gordon, the honorary secretary of the Master Tailors' Association, complained of the great opposition offered by the Amalgamated Society to the employment of women tailors—who, he affirmed, were given the less skilled work at lower wages. He instanced a strike that had occurred on account of the employment of two tailoresses. The union would not allow its members to return unless a guarantee was given that no work should be "given out" and no woman employed except in machining. He further stated that there was plenty of room for the women in the lower branch of the trade, as in the busy season they suffered from a dearth of men. The men refuse to take apprentices, and the employers need some other supply of labour to take the place of boys. In his opinion the plain sewing part should be allotted to the women, and the highly skilled part to the men.(1) The rules of the Scottish National Operatives Tailors' Society contain a clause by which members are forbidden to assist a woman in work connected with the trade. A change of attitude, however, has been observed amongst the men in this society in the last two years. Their opposition is now not to the employment of women, but to their employment at a lower rate of wages. At a conference in 1892 a resolution was passed to the effect that "it be an instruction to the N.E.C. to initiate a movement for the organisation of the female workers in our trade, the funds of our society to be responsible for the initiatory expenses." Steps in this direction have been taken.(2) At Liverpool also the Trades Council assisted the formation of a Tailoresses and Coat Makers' Union on the occasion of a strike.(3) The women were also supported by the Manchester Tailors and Pressers' Society. A male weaver from Yorkshire stated that he believed there had been for some time "a growing feeling "that if women do the same amount of work as the men, "their wages should be the same."(4) It seems, therefore, that if women were paid at equal rates for the same work as the men, a great deal of the opposition of the latter would disappear. Though any increase in the number of workers in any industry tends to limit the chance of the individual of employment, if all are competing on equal terms there is no real grievance. One witness was willing to admit the woman's "right to live." "The great difficulty," said a weaver who was advocating equal payment for equal work, "that the men fear is that the employer will force the rate of men's wages down to the women's, not that the women's will be raised to the men's."(5) The experience of the textile industries in Yorkshire gives some grounds for this apprehension. But where this result does not occur, equal wages to both sexes for equal work is obviously desirable.

(ii.) Or try to raise the rate of women's wages to their own.

Possible effect upon the employment of women of equal rate wages, and question of the superiority of men's labour.

701. Though an equal rate of wages would be an unmixed advantage to the woman worker who secured employment, the effect produced upon the extent of the employment of women is, it appears, not so unquestionable. It is at this point that the absolute superiority of men's labour would come in. Though there may be many women workers who do as good or better work than men, speaking generally, it is probably true to say that men from their greater physical strength and power of endurance are more profitable workers than women. The question is often rather one of quantity than quality. The superior strength of a man enables him to produce a larger output. In the textile and other industries he can perform certain necessary mechanical operations in which women have to seek assistance. He is also less liable than the woman to interruptions of a domestic character or from ill-health, and is therefore presumably more regular. A larger output, from whatever cause, means a larger return to the employer on the capital sunk in plant and machinery. Hence on economic grounds, if a man and a woman compete for certain work, for which the rate of pay to both sexes is equal, the preference will probably be given to the man. "When the time comes that I have to pay females the "same price as males, I shall have no females," was the remark of an employer in the nail and chain industry which was quoted by a male worker in reference to this question.(6) This apprehension appeared to prevail amongst the tailoresses of Glasgow. It was observed "what women chiefly fear is that any agitation on the "part of the men for the payment of equal rates to women "workers might result in the exclusion of the latter from "the trade. The general opinion among the more intelli-"gent and experienced female operatives . . . seems "to be that it would be more judicious for the women to "aim at a time log of their own, which would give not "equal rates, but a partial re-adjustment of the dis-"crepancy that now exists between their rates and those

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., Keir, 14,800–2; Gall, 33,267; Gordon, 15,311–25. (2) pp. 267–9. (3) p. 291. (4) Group A., Digest, Vol. II., pp. 53–57; Minutes, Vol. II., p. 574, Miss Orme. (5) Group B., Digest, Vol. I., p. 11; Group C., Digest, Vol. II., p. 13. (6) p. 147. (7) pp. 180–1. (8) pp. 54; 180–1; 290.

(1) Group C., Digest, Vol II., p. 32; Minutes, 15,371, 15,431. (2) p. 269. (3) p. 70. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Gee, 4961. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Gee, 4961. (6) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Juggins, 17,846–9.

" of the men, at least until altered conditions allow of a " woman's obtaining the same training and skill as are " possessed by the men workers, and being admitted to " first-class shops and all the branches of the trade. " Opinion is, however, much divided on the point."(1) It is difficult to ascertain from the evidence the absolute or relative superiority of the work of men over that of women, and it is still more difficult to make any general statement on the subject, owing to the contradictory nature of the evidence. Thus a Huddersfield employer said " good men weavers will do even more than good women weavers," while a representative of the Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers was of opinion that " a female is as good a weaver as a man, in fact in most cases better."(2) A woollen manufacturer in Scotland stated that when men and women were employed in weaving at the same rate, " the woman makes more money as she is more " dexterous." On the other hand the secretary of the Cotton Spinners and Manufacturers' Association in North Lancashire said that although a good woman weaver would earn as much as " many a good male weaver," yet, " upon the whole, the balance " would be slightly on the side of the men. " Men are capable of more continuous " exertion than women, and they are stronger no doubt."(3) In the fustian velvet-cutting department, it was stated that men and women were " paid at the same rate, but " men earn about twice as much as women, because of " their greater strength."(4) An employer at the Glasgow potteries preferred men workers on account of their greater strength and " steadiness of attendance."(5) The evidence from Glasgow distinctly supported the view that men's labour is on the whole superior to women's. The decay of the cotton industry in that district was largely attributed to the fact that weaving was there entirely confined to women. " It is generally believed in Glasgow that the " proportion of men workers is an immense advantage for " the English manufacturer, the men's continuity at their " work, their greater physical strength, their ability to " keep the machinery in order . . . all combine, it is " asserted, to give a higher standard of application and " production in Lancashire than in Scotland, where the " trade suffers from general causes which affect women " workers."(6) Thus in spite of somewhat conflicting evidence, it appears that the conclusion arrived at above expresses a general truth. In so far as the causes which tend towards the superiority of men's labour do not operate, men and women would stand an equal chance of employment on similar work at a similar rate of pay. But in so far as they do operate, women are at a disadvantage as compared with men in the race for employment at an equal wage. However this may be, there is apparently no doubt that the standard of an equal rate of pay for both sexes should be the one which should be approximated to. If, however, the rate of pay in the case of women could be so adjusted as recommended by the tailoresses at Glasgow as to allow roughly for the superiority of men's labour, the equality between the two sexes would be more real, and the rate of pay would express the " economic value " of the work. The great danger is that the women's wage would then be estimated by a different standard to the men's, and that under the specious plea " inferiority," either of quantity or quality, a far larger amount would be deducted than is equitably attributable to that cause. It has been shown in the second section that the evidence shows that this is what has so frequently happened. [§ 701.]

Effect of competition of men and women in the same employment upon their wages respectively.

702. It appears from the evidence that the competition of men in industries in which women are employed has a tendency to raise the rate of women's wages. On the other hand, various instances have already been given of the almost invariable tendency of the competition of women in the same industries as the men to lower the rate of the men's wages. It must, however, be remembered that such factors as organisation and skill must be taken into account. The chief textiles may be taken to represent, as far as women are concerned, the skilled and well organised industries. It will be seen in Table VI. (line 4) that between 1860 and 1891 the mean of the returns of women's wages in the cotton, hosiery, woollen, and worsted trades have increased as much as 42 per cent., although the cotton industry, in which the rise has been most marked and in which by far the largest number of women are employed, is only regarded as of equal importance with the other industries. The extent of the increase in wages in these industries can be estimated by comparison with the rate of increase in other industries in the same period, which is given in the same table.

IV. TABLE showing the MEAN of the RETURNS of WAGES collected for MEN, and for MEN and BOYS, in 1849, 1860, and 1891,(1) compared with the AVERAGE WAGES in 1886.

Industry.	1849.		1860-1.		1886.		1891.		Remarks.(2)
	Men.	Men and Boys.	Men.	Men and Boys.	Men.	Men and Boys.	Men.	Men and Boys.	
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	
1. Cotton (3) - -	18 5	13 4	22 0	13 11	25 3	17 3	25 11	—	Men and Boys, 1891 = 17/8
2. Hosiery - -	—	—	18 8	12 0	24 5	16 11	25 9	—	„ „ „ 17/10
3. Carpet - - - -	—	—	25 6	15 6	26 7	17 5	33 6	—	„ „ „ 21/2
4. Woollen - -	14 7	12 8	23 6	14 4	23 2	15 10	—	20 9	Men only, 1891 = 30/4
5. Cotton, Hosiery, and Woollen - -	—	—	—	13 5	—	16 8	—	18 9	

(1) Details obtained from Returns of Wages published between 1830 and 1886. Reports on Wages issued by the Board of Trade. (2) The wages of men and boys together for 1891 in the cotton, hosiery, carpet, and silk industries, and in mines and quarries, were calculated on the assumption that they increased at the same rate between 1886 and 1891 as the wages of men alone, and those of men alone in the woollen industry on the assumption that they increased at the same rate as those of men and boys together. N.B.—Where daily wages were given the weekly wages were calculated on the basis of six days' work a week. (3) The nearest year for Manchester (3rd column) was 1859.

(1) p. 269. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Thomson, 7152; Wilkinson, 1624-25; Rawlinson, 2506-7. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Wilson 7498-501. (4) p. 141. (5) p. 281. (6) p. 175.

702.] V. TABLE showing the MEAN of the RETURNS of WAGES collected for WOMEN in CERTAIN INDUSTRIES in the YEARS 1860–1 and 1891 (1) (2) (3), and the AVERAGE WAGES EARNED in the CORRESPONDING INDUSTRIES in 1886. [§ 702.

Industry.	1860–1. Women.	1860–1. Women and Girls.	1886. Women.	1886. Women and Girls.	1891. Women.	1891. Women and Girls.	Remarks.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	
1. Cotton Industry	—	9 9	15 3	11 0	—	13 4	
2. Boot and Shoe Industry	—	9 10	12 6	9 0	—	13 3	
3. Hosiery	—	7 10	11 6	9 10	—	12 7	The nearest year obtainable for the period 1860–1 for Nottingham was 1866.
	[1880.]						
4. Carpet Industry	—	—	11 1	9 0	12 4	—	
5. [(2) Kidderminster]	15 3	11 6	—	—	—	11 0	
	[1859–62.]						
6. (2) Silk and Poplin	—	7 11	10 1	7 10	12 2	—	
	[1859–61.]						
7. (2) Linen, Jute, &c.	—	8 6	9 3	7 0	11 6	—	The nearest year obtainable for Dundee was 1868. The average for 1886 refer to jute and linen only.
8. Woollen Industry	9 8	8 8	13 3	10 4	—	11 4	The averages from Halifax and Dewsbury used in the first columns are for 1868 and for Batley 1866.
9. Worsted Industry	10 1	7 0	11 11	9 0	—	10 2	The average in Halifax referred to the year 1866.
10. Book-folding, Book-sewing, &c.	8 5	—	—	—	—	9 8	
11. (2) Potteries	—	9 6	—	—	—	9 5	The average in the 2nd column refers to the period 1860–3.
12. Tobacco, &c., manufacture	—	6 3	—	—	—	8 11	The average in the 2nd column refers to the period 1857–60.
13. (2) Rope making	—	10 5	—	—	—	8 0	The average in the 2nd column refers to the period 1860–74.
14. (2) Shoddy and Flock manufacture.	—	8 0	—	—	—	7 6	The average in the 2nd column refers to the period 1880.

(1) Details obtained from returns of wages between 1836 and 1886, and for 1886 issued by the Board of Trade from the Lady Assistant Commissioners' Reports, and from Appendix to volume of evidence given before the Commission as a Whole.
(2) Evidence was also given to the effect that the rates of wages had fallen in the confectionery trade, the umbrella covering trade (Scotland), and among the straw-hat machinists and finishers.
(3) It was not always quite clear whether the average referred to women alone or to women and girls together, but the division has been made as accurately as possible.

VI. SUMMARY of RESULTS of above TABLE.*

Industries.	Mean of the above Estimates; 1860–1. Women and Girls.	Mean of the above Averages; 1886. Women and Girls.*	Mean of the above Estimates; 1891. Women and Girls.	Percentage of increase in first two periods.	Percentage of increase in last two periods.	Percentage of increase in whole period.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*			
Industries numbered 6, 7, 9	7 10	7 11	—	1%	—	—
Industries numbered 5, 11, 12, 13, 14	9 1	—	8 11	—	—	—2%
Industries numbered 2, 5, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14	8 11	—	9 9	—	—	9%
Industries 1, 3, 8	8 9	10 5	12 5	19%	19%	42%

* It may be noted that the average wage for women and girls in the year 1886, in certain typical industries given in Appendix 124 to the volume of Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, is 12*s.* 8*d.* for women and 7*s.* for girls. This is in very close agreement with the above means for women and girls together.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS WITH REGARD TO WOMEN'S WAGES.

Question of the standard by which women's wages are estimated.

703. The following table summarises the main conclusions arrived at on the question of the wages earned by women.

VII. TABLE summarising RESULTS of TABLES III., IV., and VI.

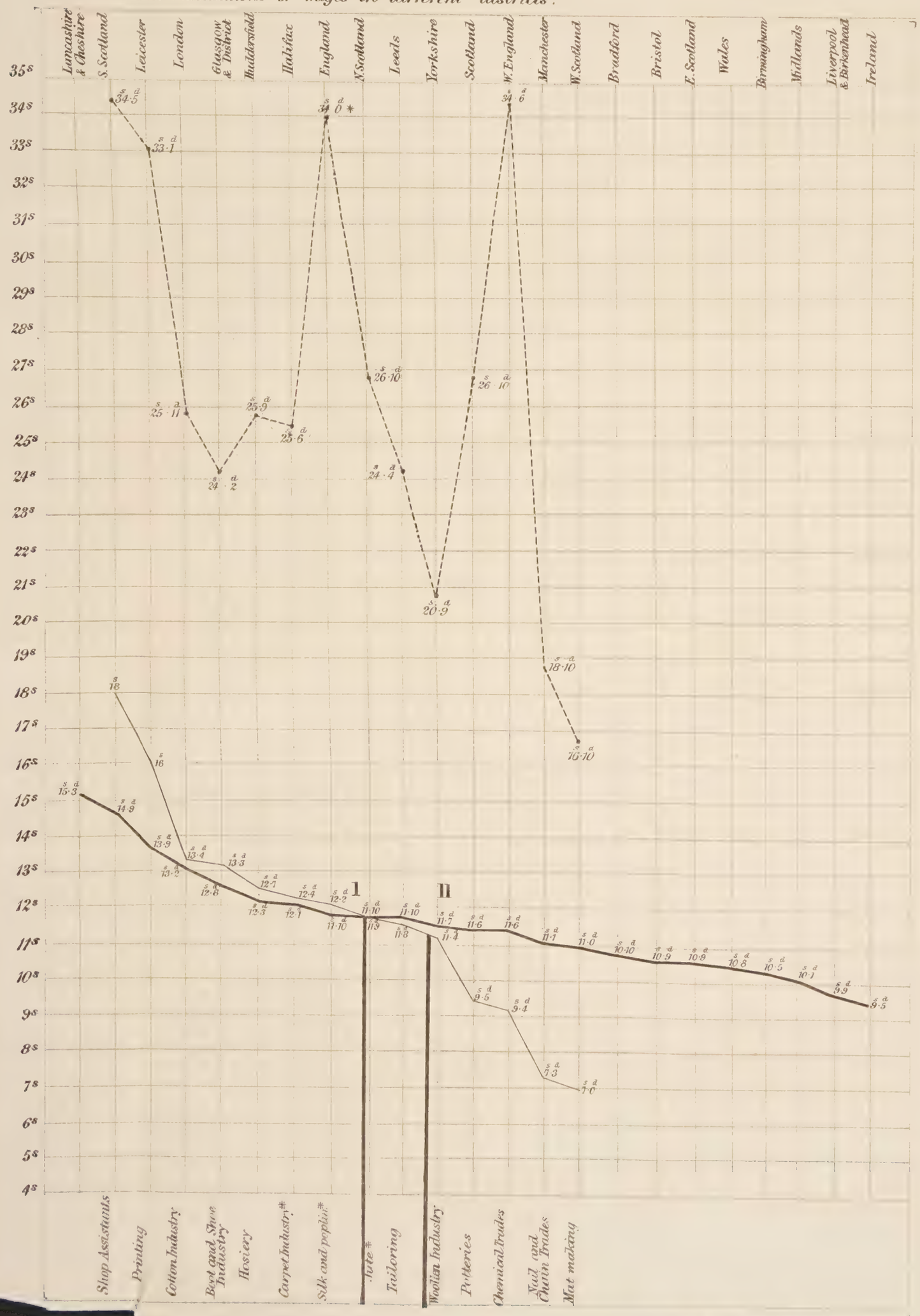
A. MEN'S WAGES.*

Industries.	Mean of the Estimates given in Table IV. (Weekly Wages). 1860–1.	1890–1.	Percentage of Increase.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	
1. Hosiery and Carpet	22 1	29 7	34%
2. Cotton	22 0	25 11	18%
3. Cotton, Hosiery, and Woollen	21 5	27 4	27·6%
4. Cotton, Hosiery, Carpet, Woollen	24 9	28 10½	17%

* The rise in men's wages in the last 50 years has been about 100 per cent. according to Mr. Giffen. These estimates have only been given for the sake of detailed comparison with women's wages. The general result established by Mr. Giffen has been used in the text.

DIAGRAM SHEWING.

1. *The wages of men compared with those of women and girls in various districts* ⁜
2. *The fluctuations of wages in different districts.*



EXPLANATION OF DIAGRAM.

(i) *Dotted line, thus _____; Wages of Men in industries specified below.*

(ii) *Thin black line thus ___; Wages of Women and Girls in industries specified below.*

(iii) *Thick black line thus ▬; Wages of Women in districts specified above.*

(iv) *Thick erect black lines; mean wage of Women and Girls.* I *In industries dealt with in the diagram.* II *In all industries.*

⁜ *It was not always quite clear whether the wage given referred to women alone or to women and girls together. In those of the industries specified below (which are marked thus* ⁜*) the wages given refer probably to women alone.*

* *This figure refers only to a special class of workers.*

B. Wages of Women and Girls.

Industries.	Mean of the Estimates given in Table V. 1860-1.	Mean of the Estimates given in Table V. 1890-1.	Percentage of Increase or Decrease.
	s. d.	s. d.	
1. Carpet (Kidderminster), Potteries, Tobacco, Rope-making, Shoddy, and Flock.	9 1	8 11	−2%
2. Boot and Shoe, Carpet, Worsted, Potteries, Tobacco, Rope-making, Shoddy, and Flock.	8 11	9 9	9%
3. Cotton,* Hosiery, and Woollen	8 9	12 5	42%

The mean of the returns collected for woman in 1860–1 in the Kidderminster carpet, pottery, tobacco, &c., rope-making, shoddy and flock trades was 9*s.* 1*d.* The mean in 1891 was 8*s.* 11*d.* If these statistics are to be trusted, and so far as the mean of the returns can be taken as representing true averages, women's wages in those trades would seem to have not merely been stationary, but to have positively decreased. It appears probable that if the information concerning the alleged decline in wages in the confectionery, umbrella covering, and straw-hat trades were sufficiently reliable, and covered a sufficiently long period to be taken into account, the same conclusion might be drawn from a larger number of industries. The means of the returns given in 1860–1 in the above-mentioned trades, and also in the boot and shoe and worsted industries, which group represents the greatest number of industries under consideration, both skilled and unskilled (excluding the organised industries), was 8*s.* 11*d.* In 1891 it was 9*s.* 9*d.*; it had therefore increased by only 9 per cent. The apparently arbitrary selection of the industries which furnish data for these comparisons is explained by the fact that the necessary information was only forthcoming in these instances. Women's wages, in the industries under consideration, except in certain skilled and organised trades, have either decreased, remained stationary, or have increased but slightly. It may, perhaps, be the case that the number of women engaged in the organised industries is so large that the gain there, relatively greater than that obtained by the men, would outweigh the comparatively stationary rate of wages in the other industries. In the Census Returns for 1891, it appeared that while the number of women in the cotton industry was nearly 333,000, the number of women employed in all the other industries enumerated in Table V. amounted to about 370,000. Taking this into account in finding the averages over the whole period, women's wages would probably appear to have risen faster than men's. On the other hand it must be remembered that the industries mentioned in Table V. include less than 800,000 women workers out of a total of more than 1,800,000 in the industrial class. The wages of a million women, therefore, in the industrial class, that is excluding domestic service, remain unaccounted for; and the evidence obtained both by the House of Lords' Committee and by the Lady Assistant Commissioners, and from other sources, went to show that this large proportion of women belonged rather to the body of unorganised and underpaid workers than organised and better paid.

Women and girls in domestic service are, however, on an average, better remunerated than those engaged in other occupations. Whereas the average yearly wages of women in non-domestic employments amounts to about 32*l.*, in domestic employments it is nearly 50*l.* Similarly, the average remuneration for girls in non-domestic employments is about 23*l.*, and in domestic employments nearly 28*l.* a year. It is moreover important to note that domestic service engages about a third to one-half of all the women and girls occupied. For this reason, although the average wages of women, excluding domestic servants, were only about half those of men; including domestic servants, the proportion rises from one half to two-thirds.

* This industry has not been weighted in estimating the above mean; if it had, the rise would have been greater.

WAGES IN HOME INDUSTRIES AND "SWEATED TRADES." [§ 704.]

Very low rate of wages obtained in home industries.

704. Home industries are attacked on two grounds. Firstly, because of the starvation wages paid to many workers in them. Secondly, because this low rate of pay has a distinct tendency to lower the ordinary rate of pay in factories and workshops. Both these points have been incidentally touched upon in part of the foregoing summary, in reference to the low average wage of women, and to the competition between men and women. Some more detailed information, however, may be given on both points. It is impossible, as may be seen from the detailed account of visits to home-workers in the Lady Sub-Commissioners' Reports, to make any general statement concerning the ordinary rate of pay in home industries, as it varies enormously in different trades, parts of the trade, and districts. In some cases a respectable wage was earned, but more often wages were exceedingly low. Thus, two very different classes of home workers in the tailoring trade at Glasgow were mentioned. One woman was an experienced worker, and her monthly wages ranged from 1*l.* 1*s.* in February to 6*l.* 15*s.* 4*d.* in July. The other woman was elderly, and during an unusually bad winter she was driven to accept an order for finishing trousers at ½*d.* a pair, each pair taking two hours' work. She only executed one order, "finding," as the narrator remarked, "that it was easier to starve without the work."(1) The average hourly wage of outworkers in the villages round Dudley who supply much of the clothing trade of that town was 1½*d.*(2) A widow in Manchester who "finished" shirts at 2½*d.* a dozen, whatever the work required might be, could never earn more than 2*s.* 2*d.* a week.(3) A tailoress in Lambeth "finished" boys' trousers for 3*d.* a pair, out of which 1*d.* had to be subtracted for thread and twist. It took her 2½ hours to finish one pair, so her rate of pay was less than 1*d.* per hour.(4) In the hosiery trade a woman seamed stockings for nine hours daily, and if she worked very hard earned ¾*d.* per hour. Her average weekly earnings were 3*s.*(5) A sack sewer and a rope teazer at Arbroath stated that their average wages were about 3*s.* and 3*s.* 6*d.* a week respectively.(6) It was stated that in the lace trade at Nottingham a great quantity of work which was formerly done inside the factories, such as scolloping, is now given out at reduced prices. An employer who at one time employed 50 women as "scollopers" in his factory, most of whom earned 15*s.* a week, now gives out this work to home workers, to whom he pays 6*s.* or 7*s.* a week. From the evidence of the out-workers, it appeared that the rate of payment was sometimes as low as ½*d.* per hour.(6) In Glasgow a woman was found who did tailoring work for Government contracts. The shop which gave them out paid 2*s.* 2*d.* per dozen for making Dungaree jackets, the dozen taking 14 hours. Another woman "finishes" them for 4*d.* per dozen, and makes perhaps "four dozen in a day." The total cost to the shop for the making and finishing a dozen of these jackets by outside workers was therefore 2*s.* 6*d.* Inspectors' "overalls" were also given out at 4*s.* 8*d.*, and certain "overall" trousers at 1*s.* 6*d.* per dozen. The witness said that she could make six inspectors' "overalls" in a day, or three pairs of "overall" trousers, *i.e.*, she could earn 2*s.* 4*d.* or 6*d.* for the day's work.(7) In all the cases quoted above the information was received from the home workers personally. One of the worst cases of sweating was that related by the secretary of the Shirtmakers' Union in Manchester. A man in Gorton had a workroom for which he paid 5*s.* 6*d.* a week. He took out work from Manchester, and employed women in this workroom at shirtmaking. He made them pay 1*d.* for rent and 1*d.* for fire, and a certain sum for cotton, which was 1½*d.* more than the price in retail shops in Manchester. The women also paid 1*s.* a week for the use of the machine, no matter how slack the work might be. Although they were nominally buying the machines on the hire system, they were never employed regularly or long enough to become the owners. Besides all these deductions, he only paid them 7*d.* a dozen for work for which the witness had been paid 1*s.* by another firm who had once employed her.(8)

Grievance that the competition of home workers lowered the ordinary rate of pay.

705. The grievance that the low rate of pay received by home workers lowered the ordinary rate of pay in factories and workshops was brought forward from many quarters. The complaint was made by unmarried with reference to married women, by women in factories with reference to those who worked at the same trade at home, by men with

(1) p. 274. (2) p. 60. (3) p. 79. (4) p. 92. (5) p. 161. (6) p. 296. (7) p. 273. (8) p. 78.

[§ 704.] reference to all female home workers, and by women's Trades Unions in the tailoring trade with reference to the competition of both sexes in domestic workshops. Strong representations were made, it was stated, by unmarried women against the competition of married women in the tailoring trade. The latter, they urge, not being entirely dependent on their own earnings take work at a lower rate and thus lower wages. No evidence, however, was forthcoming in proof of this, and it appeared to the Lady Sub-Commissioners that any tendency amongst married women to take work at a lower rate was due to the greater pressure of their circumstances.(1) This view is corroborated by Miss Collet, "Whenever I have found "women who said they worked at very low rates, they have "been working for their living and for that of their "children; their husbands have always been men "disabled and out of work . . . The women I have found "working at really starvation wages—sack-makers and "carpet-slipper makers—were women who had either to "support themselves or to fall back on charity or the "workhouse."(2) On the other hand, the president of the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation stated specifically that in both Leicester and Nottingham married women worked for a lower rate of wages than single women, and this brought about a general reduction. "They come "into such keen competition with single girls because they "have got husbands at work, and they are generally the "people who can afford to accept reductions in wages."(3) The indirect effect of the competition of home workers was clearly shown by an umbrella maker. "Home workers," she said, "are used as a screw to reduce the others. "Married women take the work home and sit up till all the "hours of the night to do it, and lots of them get their "children to help them after school hours. They can thus "lift good wages, and when we complain, the employer "points to this and says, 'Look at so-and-so's big pay. "Why can't you make this?" Thus the fact that out-workers can be got to do the work for as low or a lower rate is usually the standing obstacle in the way of procuring a rise in wages on the part of the factory hands.(4) Whenever the work is of such a character that the children or any members of the family can help, a low rate of pay will be accepted by the out-workers, which is naturally insufficient for the single worker in a factory. In this way the competition of home industries is severely felt. It was stated that the objectionable features in the prevailing system of domestic workshops in Luton appeared when the attempt to arrive at any estimate of the wages there paid was made. The majority of straw-hat makers are small men who make a few special shapes on the chance of being able to sell them afterwards. When these are in demand they obtain good prices, but at other times they are obliged to sell them at a low price to the merchant who can afford to keep them in stock until they are again wanted. The weekly return on the capital and labour spent vary very considerably, and the small maker is only enabled to maintain what he regards as an independent position by the fact that his wife and children work for him without fixed wages. In good times the family are provided with clothes, and the children have pocket-money given them; in slack times they only buy what is absolutely necessary.(5) In the Bristol district, where much of the cheaper sort of the clothing trade is given to out-workers, the effect produced on the wages of factory hands is again indirect rather than direct. There appears to be little complaint that the out-workers actually take lower rates for the same work, but as they are in a great majority, and are able, moreover, to live on lower wages than would be sufficient if they had to incur all the expenses incident to factory work, it is probable that the rate of payment in factories is kept down.(6) The London Tailoresses' Trade Union complained of the "unfair" competition of tailoring domestic workshops. The workers in them worked much longer hours, and were content with lower rates of payment, and thus reduced the wages of others. A man and his wife and daughter, it was stated, would perhaps sit up all night to make a garment, which was given out to them in the evening to be taken back again in the morning.(7) The objections of the men to the competition of women, which in many cases meant the competition of home workers, have been already dealt with. It is especially noticeable in the chain and nail and nut and bolt trades. A representative of the latter industry stated that by means of boys' and women's cheap labour, sweaters are able to supply the principal employers with work done in home workshops at a lower price. They thus undersell the factories where the adult male operatives are paid at the "list price." This tends eventually to reduce wages. A witness representing the File Cutters' Association at Sheffield also complained that women were sweated in home workshops.(1)

(1) p. 269. (2) Life and Labour of the People, pp. 450–1. (3) Group C., Minutes II., Holmes, 12,806–13. (4) p. 277. (5) p. 30. (6) p. 28. (7) p. 91.

GRIEVANCES CONNECTED WITH THE CALCULATION OF WAGES AND THE METHOD OF PAYMENT.

Fines.

706. Fines may be divided into two classes, those inflicted for purposes of discipline, and those inflicted in order to compensate for damage done. They are much resorted to in the textile industries, in shops and places of refreshment, and in some of the East London confectionery factories. In many cases some system of fining is the only means whereby discipline can be maintained; it seems to be a reasonable and necessary precaution, and prevents recourse to stronger measures, such as dismissal; hence, in well-managed factories or establishments no serious objections are raised. As, however, the system is not uniform, and the application of it depends necessarily on some individual—a foreman or shop-walker, as the case may be, who may or may not be a fit person to exercise this power—abuses constantly creep in. Complaints were made before the Commission, and to the Lady Sub-Commissioners, that in many cases the fines imposed were unfair, vexatious, and oppressive. It is with the grievances of women workers on this head that this section will be concerned.

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(a.) The disciplinary fines which are imposed in the textile industries, particularly in England, are almost exclusively those inflicted to enforce punctuality and regularity of attendance. About these not very many complaints are made. They range from 1*d.* to 6*d.* in Yorkshire and Lancashire. The weavers' associations in the latter district object to the present system of fines for late attendance, but they endeavour to secure punctuality on the part of their members by other means. It was stated that at Rochdale the Union secretary, upon receiving a complaint with regard to unpunctuality, attended himself the following morning at the place where it had occurred, and excluded for the day all those who were not there at three minutes past six. This action on his part was accepted without any ill-will, and no complaint for unpunctuality has since been made by the firm.(2) At many mills, in addition to or instead of the fines, the gates are locked for periods varying from five minutes to two hours. This was much complained of by some of the silk operatives. The worker who arrives a few minutes late at certain mills is "locked out" as a rule until the next starting time. Not only does she suffer a proportionate loss in wages, but if her home is at a distance she finds it difficult to obtain shelter for the two or three hours during which she has to wait, and the consequent exposure in bad weather is sometimes attended by serious results. It was noted that Messrs. Beresford, Brothers, of Congleton, provided a room in which those who are late can find seats and shelter, although in this instance the gates are only locked for fifteen minutes. If this were always done, the hardship would be greatly lessened. A very good method was adopted in some cases by which the fines were presented to the local infirmary, or paid into the sick benefit club, or applied in some way for the benefit of the workers.(3) A different sort of case was reported by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners from a Bradford mill. A girl had what is known as "ends down." The master's son threw a roving bobbin at her; the bobbin hit the girl's head and flew off on to a window, breaking it. The girl was then fined 2*s.* for the broken window.(4) The disciplinary fines inflicted upon shop assistants fall also largely under the head of unpunctuality, and were very often considered unobjectionable. Some instances of vexatious fines were, however, given, but the system varies so much in different shops and in different towns that generalisation is impossible. As a rule unfair fines were not a subject of general complaint in Ireland; one shop in Dublin was an exception. The assistants there stated that a fine of 2*s.* 6*d.* was charged if they spoke to each other, or if they failed to sell an article. In provincial towns in England similar grievances were narrated. One witness said that she was not often fined, but she "dared not let a customer go without buying anything." Another stated that anyone who left

(ii.) Sh
assista

(1) Group A., Minutes Vol. II., 17,804, Juggins, 17,845–50.; Digest, p. 64, Uttley. (2) pp. 99, 115. (3) pp. 99, 135, 298. (4) p. 108.

06 (a).]

the counter on account of illness was fined for absence. Fines for various small irregularities were detailed, which, it was stated, were often deducted from the premiums or commissions on sales. If the latter were small, the fine sometimes exceeded the whole amount. In one shop, where the fines were very numerous, one of the most objectionable features of the system was that they were given to the clerk who inflicted them.(1) Corroborative evidence on the subject of fines was given by the secretary of the National Union of Shop Assistants before the Commission. "The shop assistant's life," he said, "is hedged in with a series of fines and impositions by the employer."(2) In Wales the shop assistants alleged that the fines were excessive in amount, too numerous, and unfairly imposed. Over 100 fines are in the rules in some places, and additional private rules inflicting others are also issued. One witness complained that in a house where the private rules for the use of shop assistants contain one against "misleading customers," she had been fined because she said a material would not wash, a statement that in her opinion was perfectly true. Another witness stated that if a certain employer thought that the shop-walkers—whose business it was to impose fines—were too lenient, he would say, "It is your duty to fine for a breach of the rules, and "if you fail to do so I shall fine you for neglecting your "duty." On the other hand, it was stated that fines were really for the advantage of the employées, as the forewoman was thus enabled to deal with small faults. Without fines the offender must be reported, and she would probably be then dismissed at once.(3) The Dressmakers', Milliners', and Mantlemakers' Society, London, states that "there are fines sometimes if workers are late "to business. This varies from the loss of one hour to a "quarter of a day." A Bond Street dressmaker is mentioned who fines any worker who is late 6*d.*, and the money thus procured is divided amongst the punctual workers. Instances of vexatious and oppressive fines were mentioned by Miss James, secretary of the Confectioners' Trade Union. Girls, she said, were fined for "eating "bread and butter, looking out of the windows, talking, "and such trivial offences. . . . I have myself slipped "under my bench or gone round a stack of jam to eat a "piece of bread and butter." "At a firm where the "women are washing bottles, if they pick up a sack to "keep the water off them they are fined." A girl whose wages were 6*s.* a week was fined 1*s.* for some irregularity, and the next day "she was fined 2*s.* 6*d.* because she slipped "down in the dining-room. Then the other girls came "out on strike. . . . When they went back it was "on much better terms, and all fines were abolished."(4)

) *Lon-n con-tionery ade.*

(b.) Fines for damages excited a great deal of discontent amongst many textile operatives, especially amongst the weavers. It was contended in some cases that the fine exceeded the amount of damage done, in others that the damage was not due to the fault of the person on whom the fine was inflicted. Thus, the Yorkshire weavers state that "tuners" are responsible in many cases for the damages for which the weavers are fined. "In one mill a weaver "was fined 6*s.* for the jacquard dropping 10 times. This "was the full piece wage, and the damage was the "tuner's" "fault. The following week the full piece wage, 11*s.* 6*d.*, "was stopped, and again the following week the same "amount also, making in three weeks a total of 29*s.* "These three pieces after they had been 'milled' were "passed as 'perfect,' and the weaver claimed the return of "the money which she had been fined. She was allowed "to buy the first piece on which she had earned 6*s.*, and "on the other two she could only obtain 10*s.* She thus "lost 13*s.* on the three weeks' work although all the pieces "had been passed as perfect, and the original damages "were not her fault."(5) "Fines," said a male weaver, "are given as a rule for circumstances over which the "weaver has no control. For instance, a loom may be "out of order, it makes a thin place or a thick place, as "the case may be, and the weaver is held responsible for "it, although it is the fault of the loom." A weaver was fined 4*s.* 6*d.* for weaving a 3*s.* 6*d.* piece. The fault complained of in this case was what is known as "broken picks," which are due to the state of the weft. She was fined 6*d.* for every broken pick, and the piece contained nine. Thus she was fined the whole of her week's wages, and a shilling from the next week's.(6) At another mill a weaver was fined 11*s.* 6*d.* upon a 15*s.* 8*d.* piece for the same cause. The piece when finished was passed as "perfect," but the money though claimed was not returned.(7) Menders in a certain mill complain that they are fined more than their piece wage for not having mended "hard twined ends," which cannot be seen until after the piece has been dyed, and cannot therefore be seen by the mender. Menders are not shown the piece when a fine is imposed, and when they ask to see it, in order to be satisfied that it is theirs, and that there has been neglect on their part, they are threatened with dismissal.(1) The president of the Dublin United Trades Council stated before the Commission that the girls who worked in a linen weaving factory at Harold's Cross, near Dublin, complained that the fines were "positively unbearable."(2) The fines for damages in the textile industry in the north of Ireland were objected to as both heavy and unfair.(3) In the cloth trade in Trowbridge the method adopted differed from the Yorkshire system, as the weavers' damages are assessed by the menders, and thus a very bitter feeling has been created between these two classes of workers. It appears to be a common custom in the West of England to subtract a sum ranging from 1*s.* to 2*s.* from the price of every piece of cloth after it has passed the weaver. As the actual damage done varies considerably, a standing account is kept against him, and the balance in the weaver's favour is entered against his name as a debt. Such debts frequently amount to 2*l.* or 3*l.* The amount of damage is calculated after it has passed the mender, and the weavers complain that they never know what sum is standing against them in the books, or for what faults they have been fined.(4) In Lancashire it appears that the fines for damages are as a rule lighter than in Yorkshire, though they are not always lighter in proportion to the value of the cloth. In every district weavers complained of fines inflicted for what is known as "black oil," that is, for cloth stained during the process of weaving, by oil dropping from some part of the loom. The employers admit that the stains may not have been caused by any carelessness on the part of the weaver, and the weavers state that the damage is seldom due to their neglect, but is more frequently caused by the condition of the "pricking band," for which the "tackler" should be held responsible. "The "weavers further state that, when the oil supplied is of an "inferior quality, it is impossible to prevent it 'flying' on "to the cloth. At a number of mills they are allowed "to wash out the oil stains at their own cost, and at "a few mills this is done at the cost of the firm."(5) In the case of barmaids and waitresses it was stated that no fixed custom prevailed with regard to payment for breakages. Some witnesses declared that they always had to pay 2*s.* a week whether anything was broken or not, and others stated that they had to pay for all breakages, whether or not they were due to their carelessness. "Unavoidable accident was no excuse." On one occasion a large shelf of glasses, and a pier glass, were thrown down by the vibration of a goods train during the night, and 2*s.* each was levied from every girl in the station bars.(6) In some East End confectionery and goods factories it was stated that the fines for damages were both heavy and unfair. If a girl were labelling a bottle of jam which was cracked and it broke in her hands, she would have to pay the full price for it, although the jam would be used afterwards. One girl at a drysalter's who was earning 5*s.* a week, had to pay 7*s.* for damages; it was stopped out of two or three weeks' pay. Accidents occurred "because the girls had to carry "very heavy weights, and had to go backwards. If there "is any oil or anything on the floor, they are apt to slip "down, and for all accidents they have to pay, and at full "prices, out of their wages."(7) The five London branches of the Laundresses' Union mention fines "for 'damage' often "not the worker's fault."(8)

[§ 706 (b.)]

) *Fines for mages.*) *Textils brics.*

(ii.) *Barmaids and waitresses.*

707. Various complaints are made with regard to deductions. In some cases it is stated that the deductions are in themselves unfair, in others that an undue amount is deducted, in others, again, that a certain amount of work is not paid for. The further complaint that such insufficient or false particulars are supplied that it is impossible to estimate the real wage is dealt with under the heading Inspection. Deductions which are made in some parts of the textile industries of England for the renewal and repair of brushes and oil cans, damage to the machinery, and for the oiling of looms, are much resented. It is urged that the quality of brush supplied is so poor that it cannot last for the time expected by the employers, and that as the operatives are obliged to oil the machinery while it is in motion, it is impossible to avoid occasional accidents. The charge for oiling the looms is also objected to as unjust in itself, and the weavers are of opinion that they might with

Deductions.

For extra service.

(1) pp. 88, 321. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. III., Davis, 31,075. (3) Reports, p. 235; Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., xliii. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8129-30, 8499, 8516. (5) p. 99. (6) Drew, 54,115. (7) p. 99.

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., p. 99. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., O'Reilly, 16,251-3. (3) p. 323. (4) pp. 148, 145. (5) p. 115. (6) p. 205. (7) Group C, Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8602, 8604, 8562-3. (8) Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. xliii.

[§ 707.] equal right be charged for the oiling of the engine which runs the looms or for the wages of the tackler who attends to them.(1) They further contend that the weekly levy of ½*d.* per loom is considerably in excess of the wages paid to the oiler, who is, morever, engaged upon other work for the firm for the greater part of his time. A similar complaint is made by the tailors and tailoresses at Glasgow. A certain sum is deducted from the price paid for the making of each garment for "machinery." Theoretically, this sum goes to pay the "wages of the women machinists, "the cost of the thread, and the upkeep of the sewing "machine." Practically, the sum deducted for this purpose would appear to be disproportionate. On an average, it is stated, an employer takes 4*s.* per week off the wages of every man employed in his shop. In a third-class shop, 20 men may be employed, therefore, 4*l.* would be deducted. For 20 men, two women machinists may be kept who are paid 15*s.* a week. Hence by this system of deduction a profit of 50*s.* is made. It was noted that the women, and more especially the members of the Tailoresses' Union, consider that they are used in this way as a means of unfair deductions from the men, and from *esprit de corps* they object to the practice.(2) Great complaints were made by some workers about deductions for materials used. One witness stated that workers in the umbrella trade suffered large deductions in their gross earnings on this account. She quoted two instances, in which 41*s.* and 19*s.* respectively had been earned in a fortnight, and 6*s.* and 3*s.* 3*d.* had been deducted for thread. In a certain department in the manufacture of sewing-machines it was stated that the workers earn from 9*s.* to 10*s.* a week. Out of this wage they pay from 9*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* a week for oil, pumice, rags, and flint.(3) In this case it was observed that so much was wasted before this rule came into force that some check had to be instituted. The employer of the umbrella makers explained that as he required a very good quality of thread for his work, he insisted on his workers buying it from himself, as otherwise they purchased an inferior kind. No explanation, however, was offered as to why the workers should be required to pay for the thread, any more than for the material itself, though both cases point to the necessity of some check on the use of inferior material and the tendency to wastefulness. Such deductions for material are very common in home industries, especially in connection with the clothing and tailoring trade, as for instance in a case already quoted where trousers were finished for 3*d.* a pair, out of which 1*d.* was deducted for thread and twist.(4) Presumably the payment for the work is raised to cover the cost of the extra material necessary, but the above case hardly supports this theory. Apart from the question of the equity of such deductions in themselves, one objection that applies to the system, whether it takes the form of deduction for materials or for extra labour involved, somewhat resembles that raised against the truck system. Under the truck system it is very difficult for the worker to ascertain whether the wages paid in kind are exactly equivalent to their nominal money value. Under the deduction system it is very difficult for the worker to determine whether the amount deducted for material or extra service is exactly equivalent to the actual cost incurred by the employer.(5) Compulsory deductions for "the infirmary" or for "medical attendance and physic," or for "compulsory sick club" were mentioned in a few cases. The secretary of the Confectioners' Union stated that "in most factories they have 1*d.* payments for the hospital and the doctor stopped out of their wages." Sometimes these compulsory deductions were considered a grievance, and the medical attendance was complained of.(6)

or materials.

Many cases were mentioned in the textile industry of the difficulty of calculating wages which appear to come under the operation of clause 24 of the Factory and Workshop Act of 1891.* Several instances were brought forward in other trades not thus protected, of payment for less work than was actually done. Evidence was obtained from a Trades Union official who was not in the pen trade, and from women who worked in certain pen factories in Birmingham, that a strong suspicion existed amongst the pen-makers "that they were given more "work to do than formerly for the same pay. It was stated "that they were paid by the 'lot'; this was supposed to be "such a weight of metal as would give 100 gross of pens, "but neither the weight nor the number was stated to the "girls. They believed that the weight was increasing, and "that they were now making many more gross to a 'lot' "than before."(1) A lace-worker who earns only 3*s.* a week by "beading frilling," stated that one yard extra was put into each roll of a dozen and not paid for.(2)

[§ 707.]

708. As regards the alleged system of truck in the straw hatmaking industry, several women stated that they bought their plait where they chose, and were under no compulsion of any kind to buy it from the merchant or manufacturer who bought their hats. Others said the same thing, but added that if their customer obliged them by buying their hats, they liked to oblige him by buying his plait.(3) Undoubted breaches of the Truck Act occur in the hosiery trade at Nottingham. Much of the work is done by outworkers, through middlemen and middlewomen, who pay only in kind. "The quality of the goods sold and "the prices charged compare unfavourably with the "goods and prices in other shops. Thus the truck "price for tea was 2*d.* per ounce, and the ordinary price "¾*d.* per ounce; the truck price for bacon was 9*d.* per "pound, the ordinary price 6*d.*" The workers further stated that the truck system is not confined to provisions, and that if they succeed in securing money, their wages are calculated at a lower rate than if they accept goods. A hand seamer who was visited stated that she earns 7½*d.* and 8*d.* per dozen pairs of stockings. She receives no money payment, and all goods at the middlewomen's shop are dearer than elsewhere; flannel, for example, costs 5*d.* a yard more.(4) Another breach of the Truck Act is reported from the north of Ireland in the linen manufacturing district. A certain firm keep a shop in which provisions, clothing, hardware, and other things are sold, and at which the workpeople are obliged to spend their wages. A foreman who gave evidence on the subject stated that he had been obliged to dismiss three workpeople for buying goods at other shops in the village.(5)

Truck system.

709. In the jute trade in North Scotland considerable exception is taken by the women operatives to the "bounty" system, *i.e.*, the premium that is paid on production over and above a certain quantity. This is known among mill-workers as "overspin." It was alleged that advantage was sometimes taken of this system to pay at a lower rate, while production is forced up by overdriving in order to get the premium. The statement was made that in one factory "there was a tacit understanding that the "weavers should clean their looms and do other things "pertaining to their work during meal hours in order to "take off a certain amount of cloth. If they failed in this "way they incurred a risk of being dismissed by the tenter, "who was paid a premium on production." A tenter and a man of large experience stated that the children employed as half-timers are frequently overdriven if not beaten in mills where the premium, popularly known as "blood-money," on production is given. "The little craters are harder wrocht than iver they were," said another witness.(6) The same complaint was made by a male weaver from South Lancashire who represented the Burnley Weavers' Association. The practice was there called "driving." As a "poundage" on the output is paid to the "overlookers," those who do not produce the requisite amount are liable to be abused or dismissed. The result is that "those who are physically weak and perhaps not so "able as others to follow up so keenly have to fall out of "the race." "It often causes . . . young persons "and females . . . . a great amount of anxiety and "trouble." It was further stated that where the employer paid a higher rate of poundage there was far less driving.(7)

Bounty system.

(1) p. 115. (2) p. 268. (3) pp. 277, 279. (4) p. 79. (5) This point can be illustrated by reference to an incident which has recently taken place. It appears that Miss Abraham, recently appointed Sub-Inspector under the Home Office, prosecuted the owners of a jute factory for a breach of the Truck Acts, on account of the fines and deductions levied on the workpeople. She based her prosecution on the clause in the Act which provides that the entire amount of the wages earned by an artificer shall be paid in coin of the realm. The defence was based on a decision of Justices Matthews and Grantham, and the stipendiary magistrate gave the case against the Home Office, although he admitted that he personally inclined to the Sub-Inspector's reading of the law. An appeal against this decision has now been made to a higher court.—("Women's Trade Union Review," October 1893, p. 12.) (6) Reports, pp. 99, 235, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8433–63; Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. xliii.

* It is enacted that "sufficient particulars" shall be supplied to enable the worker to "calculate the rate of wages." It is contended that this clause is evaded in many places, and that insufficient, fraudulent, or even no particulars are supplied in various cases, pp. 99, 106, 107, 111, 115, 143, 175, 298, 301, 302, 324.

(1) p. 54. (2) p. 161. (3) p. 31. (4) pp. 159–60. (5) p. 325. (6) p. 307 (7) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Holmes, 897–908.

[§ 710.] STATISTICS OF WOMEN'S WAGES* ON WHICH THE ABOVE PARAGRAPHS ARE FOUNDED. [§ 710.]

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Wages in the textile industries.

710. TABLES OF WAGES IN THE TEXTILE INDUSTRIES.

(*a*) TABLE of WAGES EARNED by WOMEN in the COTTON INDUSTRY, 1891–2.

(Arranged in descending order.)

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., pp. 119–29 - Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Wilkinson, 1682, 1705; Birtwistle, 1503, 1508–9; Rawlinson, 2869–71.	Weavers - -	Lancashire and Cheshire.	20 2	This estimate is determined from tables giving 183 different averages, which vary from 4*s.* to 9*s.* 6*d.* for a single loom. In some instances the average per loom was given as such. Where the average was said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken. In these reports the average number of looms worked per woman is not stated. In the evidence, Mr. Birtwistle stated that the number of looms varied from two to six (*i.e.*, average four). Mr. Rawlinson estimated that the average number of looms run in the district of Burnley was 3·9. It was also stated by Mr. Wilkinson that in the district of Haslingden the number of looms worked per week was four on an average. The average weekly wage for cotton-weavers in Lancashire and Cheshire has therefore been taken to be 4 × 5*s.* 0·5*d.* (average per loom), *i.e.*, 20*s.* 2*d.* It may be noted in corroboration of this result that the weekly wages in Burnley were stated by Mr. Birtwistle to average 20*s.*, and Mr. Rawlinson gave the average weekly wage as 21*s.* These averages are in almost exact agreement with the estimate given in the table.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 99.	Spinners - -	Oldham	16 10	The wages for a skilled datal hand and for a datal hand as feeder were stated to be 9*s.* 4*d.* and 17*s.* 7*d.* per week respectively. On piece work, females, heavy frame coupled, receive 1*l.* 0*s.* 2*d.* per week; single frame, 19*s.* 5*d.*; one heavy and one light frame coupled, 19*s.* 5*d.*; light frame coupled, 18*s.* 4*d.*; light frame single, 13*s.* 11*d.* The arithmetic mean of these averages is given in the table.
Reports, &c., pp. 119–29 -	Card-room	Lancashire and Cheshire.	15 0	This estimate was obtained from 105 different averages. In some cases the average was given as such. Where wages were said to range between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 193 -	Spinners - -	Bridgeton - (Glasgow).	14 7	The average wages of spinners in two factories employing respectively about 680 and 240 workpeople were given as 14*s.* 9*d.* and 14*s.* 6*d.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 119–29 -	Winders - -	Lancashire and Cheshire.	14 3	This estimate was determined from 24 different averages varying from 10*s.* to 18*s.* 6*d.* In some instances the average was given as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken as before.
Reports, &c., p. 191 -	Weavers - -	Lanark - -	14 0	The wages of weavers were said to average 14*s.* a week.
Reports, &c., p. 191 -	Winders - -	„ - -	13 0	The wages of winders were said to vary from 12*s.* to 14*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 193 -	Card-room workers	Bridgeton	12 3	The wages of card-room workers were stated to average 12*s.* 6*d.* and 12*s.* respectively in two factories. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 190–1 -	Calico-weavers -	Kilmarnock -	11 0	The wages were said to vary from 10*s.* to 12*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 191 -	Cotton-spinners -	Lanark - -	10 0	In a factory employing about 400 people the wages of spinners were said to average 10*s.*
Reports, &c., p. 190 -	„ -	Johnstone -	10 0	The wages of spinners were said to vary from 8*s.* to 12*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. Several workers confirmed the wage average given by employers.
Reports, &c., p. 190 -	Card-room workers	„ -	9 0	Wages were said to vary from 6*s.* to 12*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. In this case also the employers' averages were confirmed by the workpeople.

* These means are in some cases probably not far from true averages, but in other cases they diverge. The nature of the Returns in each case is indicated in the Remarks.

§ 710 (b.)] (b) TABLE of WAGES EARNED by WOMEN in the WOOLLEN INDUSTRY, 1891-2. [§ 710 (b.)]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. *d.*	
Reports, &c., pp. 299-300 - Minutes of Evidence, Group C. Wilson, 7497-7511.	Weavers - -	South Scotland	18 1	This wage is the arithmetic mean of 15 different averages obtained from the Report. These averages were, in some instances, given as such; in others, wages were said to vary from 16*s.* to 20*s.*, 17*s.* to 20*s.*, 16*s.* to 19*s.* or 20*s.*, &c. In these cases the arithmetic mean has been taken. In one instance wages were said to vary from 17*s.* to 18*s.* in busy times, and from 14*s.* to 15*s.* in slack times. The wage has in this instance been taken to be the arithmetic mean between 17*s.* 6*d.* and 14*s.* 6*d.*, *i.e.*, 16*s.* In another instance the rate for fast looms was said to vary from 15*s.* to 25*s.*, and for slow looms from 15*s.* to 20*s.* The wage has been taken as the mean between 20*s.* and 17*s.* 6*d.*, *i.e.*, 18*s.* 9*d.* It may be noted that in the evidence before the Commission, Mr. Wilson stated that the wages of skilled women lie between 20*s.* and 24*s.*, and of unskilled women, between 10*s.* 6*d.* and 14*s.* The arithmetic mean of these rates is 17*s.* 1½*d.* This average only slightly differs from the mean between the wages of weavers and winders, *i.e.*, 16*s.* 10*d.*
Reports, &c., pp. 299-300 -	Winders -	„	15 9	This wage is the arithmetic mean of six different averages obtained from the Report. These averages were, in some instances, given as such. Where the rates were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 103-5 - Digest, Group C., Vol. I., p. 19. Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Gee. 4835; Thomson, 7079.	Weavers - -	Huddersfield -	14 5	This wage is the arithmetic mean of 27 different averages obtained from the Report. These averages vary from 7*s.* to 20*s.* (full-time average). In some instances the averages were given as such, but where wages were said to range between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has in all cases been taken. It may be noted that in the evidence given before the Commission, the wages of women weavers were said to be from 15 to 30 per cent. less than those of men weavers, and sometimes even lower. The average wage of men weavers was given as 17*s.* 6*d.* The average wage of the women would therefore be probably somewhat lower than 13*s.* 6*d.* Mr. Thomson stated, however, that the average wages of women weavers varied from 16*s.* to 17*s.* The arithmetic mean between 16*s.* 6*d.* and 13*s.* 6*d.* is 15*s.*, which differs but slightly from the estimate obtained from the Lady Sub-Commissioners' Reports.
Reports, &c., pp. 184-5, 190-1	„ - -	West Scotland -	13 7	This estimate is obtained from different averages for weavers in Glasgow; the carpet industry, Ayr; shawl and tweed weaving, Alva; and woollen weavers, Kilmarnock. In some instances the actual average was given; in others, wages were said to vary between certain specified limits. In these cases the arithmetic mean has been taken. It may be noted that in several cases the averages given by the employers were confirmed by the workers themselves. In the carpet factory of Ayr, on the other hand, the employers stated that wages varied from 10*s.* to 15*s.*, and the employed from 5*s.* to 12*s.* In the opinion of the Sub-Commissioner the latter estimate was judged to be more correct; 8*s.* 6*d.* has therefore been taken in this instance.
Reports, &c., pp. 109-10 -	„ - -	Halifax - -	13 7	The rates of wages in four instances were said to be 10*s.*, 13*s.* 10*d.*, 14*s.* 5*d.*, and 16*s.* (full time) respectively. The arithmetic mean of these rates has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 110-12 -	„ - -	Leeds - -	13 6	This estimate is the mean of 26 different rates of wages varying from 10*s.* to 17*s.* 3*d.* In some instances, as before, the average was given as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken. In a few instances the full-time averages only were given. Where the averages were given both for full and slack times the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 106-9 - Digest, Group C., Vol. I., pp. 20, 24, 28. Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Arnold-Forster, 6463 9742-4, 11,381; Foster, 6642 Wilson, 11,429.	„ - -	Bradford -	12 1	The wages given are the arithmetic mean obtained from 27 different averages, which vary from 6*s.* 4*d.* to 16*s.* In some instances the average was given as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken in every case. Sometimes the average was stated to be the full-time average. Sometimes the general average was given, but in the majority of cases this point was not mentioned. It would appear that there has been a fall in wages in late years. In three instances where wages were said to average at the present time 11*s.* 6*d.*, 12*s.*, and 14*s.* respectively, the corresponding former averages were 20*s.*, 15*s.* 6*d.*, and 19*s.* The evidence given before the Commission on weavers' wages in this district was of a contradictory nature. Men, it appears, are paid at the same rate as women. Messrs. Turner and Drew stated that the average wage of weavers was 11*s.* 9*d.*, or 9*s.* a week allowing for slack time. Mr. Arnold-Forster stated that the average during the last year was 14*s.* 6*d.* "including all holidays, and stoppages, and breakdowns, and feasts, and everything." Mr. Foster, also an employer, estimated the average during the last four years at 12*s.* 7½*d.* Mr. Arnold-Forster, when recalled, added "I do not think either side has figures to go upon; he only gives us his personal impression, and we only state our personal impression." This witness later obtained statistics of the actual wages paid, and stated as a result that the wages of weavers averaged 13*s.* 3·84*d.* per week. The returns with regard to wages on which this estimate was based were not, however, complete, and Mr. Wilson stated: "I "do not doubt the returns which have come; I simply wish for those "that have not come, which are far below those which have come." It may be noted that the arithmetic mean between 13*s.* 3·84*d.* and 11*s.* 9*d.* (Mr. Wilson's average) is about 12*s.* 6*d.* This differs but slightly from the estimate given in the table.
Reports, &c., pp. 106-9 - Digest, Group C., Vol. I., p. 24. Minutes of Evidence, Shaftoe, 5876; Marran, 5951.	Wool-combers -	Bradford	11 9	This estimate is the mean of five rates varying from 11*s.* to 12*s.*, which were given as the average for wool-combers. It may be noted that this was confirmed by the oral evidence. One witness stated that wages averaged 12*s.*, and another that they varied from 10*s.* to 13*s.*, of which the arithmetic mean is 11*s.* 6*d.* The mean thus obtained is 11*s.* 9*d.*
Reports, &c., pp. 346-7 -	Weavers - -	Ireland -	11 6	This estimate is determined from five different averages varying from 8*s.* 6*d.* to 14*s.* In two cases the average was given as such; in the others, where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, the arithmetic mean was taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 110-2 -	Rag-sorters -	Leeds - -	11 3	This estimate is the mean obtained from seven different rates of wages varying from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* In some cases the average was given as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken. In one instance the limits given were stated to be those for full-time employment; in the others this point was not mentioned.

[§ 710 (b.)]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. *d.*	
Reports, &c., pp. 145–6	Weavers	West of England.	10 11	This estimate is the mean obtained from 21 different rates of wages varying from 8*s.* to 15*s.* In every case but one the average was given as such. In the case in which wages were said to vary between specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken. In half the instances the averages given were those for full time.
Reports, &c., pp. 109–10	Winders	Halifax	10 10	This is the mean obtained from five different rates of wages varying from 8*s.* 6*d.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* In every case but one the average was given as such. In the instance in which wages were said to vary between specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken as the average.
Reports, &c., pp. 106–9	Winders	Bradford	10 6	This is the mean of two rates of wages, viz., 9*s.* and 12*s.* In the latter case wages were said to vary between 10*s.* and 14*s.*, and the arithmetic mean has been taken as the average. In the former case the average was given as such.
Reports, &c., p. 238	Flannel, shawl, tweed workers.	Wales	10 5	This was obtained from statistics with regard to the weekly wages earned by 433 women in woollen shawl, tweed, and hosiery factories. The wages of 62 did not exceed 7*s.*; of 64 exceeded 7*s.*, but under 8*s.*; the wages of 82 were between 8*s.* and 9*s.*; of 90 were between 9*s.* and 12*s.* 6*d.*; of 111 between 12*s.* 6*d.* and 15*s.*; and of 24 between 15*s.* and 1*l.* The aggregate amount of wages earned has been determined by multiplying the number of women receiving certain rates of pay by the arithmetic mean of those rates. The total thus obtained has been divided by the number of women employed, and the result has been taken as the average.
Reports, &c., pp. 103–5	Winders	Huddersfield	10 2	This is the mean obtained from three rates, 8*s.*, 10*s.*, and 12*s.* 6*d.*, given as the average wages of winders.
Reports, &c., p. 185	,,	West Scotland	10 0	This is the mean obtained from five rates of wages. In three cases 10*s.* was given as the average; in the others wages were said to vary from 11*s.* to 12*s.* and from 8*s.* to 9*s.* respectively. In these cases the arithmetic mean has been taken. It may be noted that in one instance the statistics given by the employer were confirmed by the workers.
Reports, &c., pp. 106–9 Digest, Group C., Vol. I., p. 28. Minutes of Evidence, Foster, 6642, 6752; Watson and Sutcliffe, 10,348–49.	Spinners	Bradford	9 1	This is obtained from nine different averages varying from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* In most cases wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean has been taken. It was stated in the oral evidence that the wages of spinners vary, according to the number of sides minded, from 8*s.* 6*d.* to 11*s.* 6*d.*, full time. The mean would therefore be 10*s.* This is, however, for full-time, and this may account for the difference between this and the estimate given in the table.
Reports, &c., pp. 109–10	,,	Halifax	9 1	This is obtained from three averages, which vary from 8*s.* 3*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* In one instance the average was given as such; in the others wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 145–6	,,	West of England.	8 2	This is obtained from five different averages, which vary from 6*s.* to 9*s.* 6*d.*
Reports, &c., pp. 110–2	,,	Leeds	7 6	Wages were in one instance said to vary from 4*s.* to 10*s.* In another the average was stated to be 8*s.* The arithmetic mean between 7*s.* and 8*s.* was taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 346–7	,,	Ireland	6 0	Wages were in one case said to vary from 5*s.* to 7*s.*, and in another case from 4*s.* to 8*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.

(c) TABLE of WAGES EARNED by WOMEN in MISCELLANEOUS TEXTILE INDUSTRIES, 1891–2.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. *d.*	
Reports, &c., p. 187	Linen-winders	Dunfermline	17 6	Miss Irwin stated that the ordinary wage of winders ran from 17*s.* to 18*s.*, although numbers make considerably more in busy seasons.
Reports, &c., p. 187	Linen-weavers	,,	16 0	The ordinary wages of weavers were stated to run from 15*s.* to 17*s.* per week, although numbers make considerably more in busy seasons. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers, &c., Group C., p. 103. Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Roy, 11,367.	Jute and linen winders.	Forfar	15 6	The wages of warp and weft winders were stated to be 17*s.* and 14*s.* respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 190	Flax spoolers and reelers.	Johnstone	15 6	The wages of spoolers and reelers were stated to vary from 15*s.* to 16*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. It may be noted that the wage averages given by employers were confirmed by several workers.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Hadwen, 6944.	Silk-preparers	Halifax	15 0	
Reports, &c., p. 184	Carpet-weavers	Glasgow	15 0	In a factory where 600 people were employed the wages of weavers were said to average 15*s.* a week.
Reports, &c., p. 325	Poplin	Dublin	14 6	The wages earned were stated to vary from 9*s.* to 1*l.* a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken. It may be noted that the workers are unemployed during four months in the year.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Roy, 11,367.	Jute and linen weavers.	Forfar	14 5	The average wages of weavers were obtained from six different averages varying from 10*s.* 6*d.* for two looms (8*s.* to 13*s.*) to 18*s.* for four looms. In some instances the average was given as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 307–9	Jute-weavers	North Scotland	14 3	This is determined from 13 different averages varying from 11*s.* to 17*s.* 9½*d.* In some instances the average wage was said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken. In other instances the averages were given for single and double looms, and for broad and narrow looms, and the arithmetic mean between the different rates given was again taken.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Wates, 12,547–8.	Worsted-spinners	Leicester	14 3	This is the arithmetic mean between the average or time workers' *i.e.*, 11*s.* 9*d.* (10*s.* 6*d.* to 13*s.*), and piece workers, *i.e.* 16*s.* 9*d.* The average for piece workers, whose wages varied from 13*s.* 6*d.* to 20*s.*, include those of preparers, spinners, doublers, and reelers.

[§ 710 (c.)]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., p. 184	Carpet-winders	Glasgow	14 0	In a factory where 600 people were employed the wages of winders were stated to average 14*s*.
Reports, &c., pp. 307-9	Jute-winders	North Scotland	13 7	This is determined from fourteen different averages, which vary from 11*s*. 10½*d*. to 15*s*. In some instances the average was given as such. Where it was said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean was taken as the average.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Southwell, 15,452.	Carpet-weavers	United Kingdom.	13 6	The wages of weavers in the carpet industry were stated to vary from 12*s*. to 15*s*. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 308-9	Linen-winders	North Scotland	12 11	This was determined from six different averages varying from 11*s*. 10*d*. to 15*s*. 5*d*. Generally speaking the rates were given separately for warp and weft winders, and these were stated to range between certain specified limits. The arithmetic mean of the rates given has in each case been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 308-9	Linen-weavers	„	12 3	This was determined from six different averages varying from 10*s*. to 13*s*. 6*d*. In some instances two or three different rates of wages were given, and the arithmetic mean of these rates was taken. In one instance three rates were given for single looms (varying from 8*s*. 9*d*. to 12*s*. 11½*d*.), three rates for double looms (varying from 9*s*. 1½*d*. to 17*s*.), three rates for treble looms (varying from 15*s*. 7½*d*. to 17*s*. 0½*d*.). The arithmetic mean of these nine rates has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 192	Thread-spinners	Paisley	11 2	In one factory, employing 3,200 workpeople, the wages of spinners were stated to average 9*s*. In the spinning department of another factory, employing between 3,500 and 4,000 workpeople, the wages of two-thirds of the workers were stated to average 14*s*., and the remainder 12*s*. (*i.e.*, an average of 13*s*. 4*d*.). The arithmetic mean between 9*s*. and 13*s*. 4*d*. has been taken for the estimate in the table.
Reports, &c., pp. 307-9	Jute-spinners	North Scotland	11 2	This was determined from 16 different averages varying from 10*s*. to 12*s*. 6*d*. In some instances the average was given as such; in others it was said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken. Where the rates were given for single and double frames the arithmetic mean between these rates was taken.
Reports, &c., p. 140	Carpet-weavers	Kidderminster	11 0	The average wage earned by weavers of Turkey carpets was 12*s*.; of Axminster rugs and chenille, 11*s*.; of ordinary rugs and chenille, 10*s*. The arithmetic mean of these three rates has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 193	Flax-weavers	Port Glasgow	11 0	In a factory employing 240 workpeople the wages of weavers were said to vary from 10*s*. to 12*s*. (piece work). The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 352	Jute-spinners	Ireland	10 9	In one factory it was stated that 10*s*. could be earned by spinners and weavers when on full time. In another factory weavers can earn 3*s*. to 3*s*. 6*d*. a loom, and work three or four looms. The average wage in this factory has been taken to be 3*s*. 3*d*. multiplied by 3½. The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of these averages.
Reports, &c., p. 184	Carpet-weavers	Ayr	10 6	The employers stated that wages varied from 10*s*. to 15*s*.; the employed from 5*s*. to 12*s*. The average given by the employers would thus be 12*s*. 6*d*., while the average given by the employed was 8*s*. 6*d*. The arithmetic mean between these rates has been taken. It may be noted that Miss Irwin stated that "the evidence inclined "one to accept the latter figures as indicating the ordinary rates, "although there was evidently a great rise or fall according to the "supply of work at the factory."
Reports, &c., p. 190	Flax-reelers	Kilbirnie	10 6	The wages of reelers were said to vary from 9*s*. to 12*s*. The arithmetic mean has been taken. The figures given by the employers were confirmed substantially by several workers, who, however, stated that a large proportion of the girls could not make so much.
Reports, &c., p. 186	Hosiery-workers	Dalry	10 5	In a hosiery factory at Dalry three-fourths of the workpeople were stated to earn from 9*s*. to 13*s*. a week, and one-fourth 8*s*. to 9*s*. 6*d*. The mean of these rates has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 307-8	Flax-reelers	North Scotland	10 5	The wages of flax-reelers were determined from four different averages varying from 8*s*. 6*d*. to 12*s*. 6*d*. In some instances the average wage was given as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 307-8	Flax-spinners	„	10 4	This was determined from four different averages varying from 9*s*. 6*d*. to 11*s*. 3*d*. Wages were in each case said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 341-5	Linen-weavers	Ireland	10 4	This was determined from 31 different averages, which vary from 5*s*. 5½*d*. to 14*s*. Twenty-nine of these averages were determined from the tables. In some instances the average was given as such, but generally speaking the wages were said to vary between certain definite limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken. One average was obtained from a factory at Belfast, where the wages of weavers were said to vary from 7*s*. to 20*s*. The arithmetic mean was taken. In a linen factory in the South of Ireland the wages of weavers vary from 6*s*. to 15*s*. (*i.e.*, average 10*s*. 6*d*.).
Reports, &c., pp. 137-9	Silk-weavers		10 3	This is determined from 14 different averages varying from 6*s*. to 16*s*. In some cases the average was given as such. In others, wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken. Where these limits were given both for slack time and full time the mean was again taken. Sometimes the average was stated to be the full time average, but generally speaking this point was not mentioned.
Reports, &c., p. 140	Carpet-winders	Kidderminster	10 1	This was determined from six different averages, varying from 8*s*. to 12*s*. Generally speaking the average was given as such, but in the two cases where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean was taken.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Simmons, 15,258.	Silk-trimmers	East London	10 0	Mr. Simmons stated in connexion with this average that it was "not "a fair average, because the average is subject to variation of "fashion."

[§ 710 (c.)]

Reference.	Class of Work	District	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Bean, 12,240–4.	Linen-weavers -	Brechin	10 0	This was stated to be the average for two looms.
Reports, &c., pp. 307–8 -	Flax-preparers -	North Scotland	9 10	This was determined from four different averages, varying from 9*s.* 1½*d.* to 10*s.* 9*d.* In one case the average was given as such; in the others, wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken.
Reports, &c., p. 193 -	Flax-spinners -	Port Glasgow -	9 9	The wages of spinners in a factory where 240 people were employed were said to vary from 9*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* (time). The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 190 -	„ -	Kilbirnie - -	9 9	The wages of spinners in a factory where more than 800 people were employed were said to vary from 9*s.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* These figures, given by the employers, were confirmed by several workpeople.
Reports, &c., p. 190 -	„ -	Johnstone -	9 0	The wages of spinners in a factory where 1,000 workpeople were employed were said to average 9*s.* Several workers confirmed the wage-averages given by the employers.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Ritchie, 12,478–12,484; Mrs. Hicks, 12,512.	Jute-spinners -	East London -	8 11	Mr. Ritchie stated that the average wage of spinners in East London was 10*s.* Mrs. Hicks stated that they varied from 7*s.* 4*d.* to 8*s.* 4*d.* (*i.e.*, average 7*s.* 10*d.*), but she added, "If they work very hard they cannot take more than 10*s.*" The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean between 10*s.* and 7*s.* 10*d.*
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Taylor, 13,288.	Linen-lappers -	Ireland (chiefly Belfast).	8 6	——
Reports, &c., pp. 137–9 -	Silk-winders -	- - -	8 3	This is obtained from 22 different averages varying from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* In some instances the average was given as such. Where the average was stated to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 141 -	Fustian and velvet cutting.	- - -	8 3	This was obtained from 10 different averages varying from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* 6*d.* In one instance the average was given for long and short frames, and the arithmetic mean was taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 341–5 -	Linen-winders -	Ireland - -	8 3	The wages of warp and weft winders were determined from 24 different averages varying from 6*s.* to 11*s.* 6*d.* The average was in some cases given as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean has been taken. In some instances the wages of bobbin-winders, hank-winders, cotton-winders, and quill-winders, were given separately, and the average of these separate classes of winders was taken to represent the average for winders as a whole. In a typical factory in Belfast the average wage of winders and warpers was 10*s.* 1½*d.*, and in South Ireland 7*s.* 1½*d.*
Reports, &c., pp. 341–5 -	Linen-spinners -	„ - -	8 0	The mean wage of spinners was determined from 12 different averages, which vary from 5*s.* 9*d.* to 9*s.* 3*d.* Generally speaking wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken, but in a few instances the average was given as such. In a typical factory in Belfast the wages of spinners varied from 5*s.* 9*d.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, average of 8*s.* 10½*d.*); in South Ireland they varied 4*s.* to 8*s.* 6*d.* (*i.e.*, average of 6*s.* 3*d.*).
Reports, &c., p. 144 - -	Shoddy and flock manufacture (Sorters).	West of England	7 6	This was determined from three different averages varying from 6*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* In one case the average was given as such. In the others, wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken.
Reports, &c., p. 183 -	Worsted factory -	Ayr - -	5 10	In this factory wages were said to run from 4*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* 6*d.*, one-third of the workers earning 4*s.* 6*d.* Two-thirds of the workers were therefore calculated to earn 6*s.* 6*d.*

Wages in the clothing industries.

711. TABLES OF WAGES IN THE CLOTHING INDUSTRIES.

(*a*) Table of Wages earned by Women in the Tailoring Industry, 1891–2.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., p. 91 -	Tailors, clothiers, and outfitters.	London -	16 9	The wages of tailoresses in the log drawn up by the Amalgamated Society of Tailoresses are 24*s.* for machinists and first-class tailoresses, 18*s.* second-class, and 14*s.* learners (*i.e.*, an average of 18*s.* 8*d.*). This log was drawn up at the request of the London County Council. This body, having recently passed a resolution to pay trade union wages, probably enforce this log in their contracts. The wages paid in the Army Clothing Factory at Pimlico in 1892 were 14*s.* 9½*d.* on an average to indoor hands, and 14*s.* 11*d.* to outdoor hands (*i.e.*, an average of 14*s.* 10*d.*). The wages given in the table are the arithmetic mean of these rates.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 399.	„	Exeter - -	16 0	The wages given by Messrs. Pinder and Tuckwell, outfitters, Exeter, were stated to vary from 12*s.* to 20*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers, &c., Group C., p. 400.	„ -	Plymouth -	15 0	The wages paid by Messrs. Pearse and Son, tailors and general outfitters, Plymouth, were said to vary from 12*s.* to 18*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers, &c., Group C., p. 403.	„ -	Dundee - -	15 0	The average wages paid to women employed on cheap clothing by J. P. Smith and Son, clothiers, Dundee, were said to range from 12*s.* to 18*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 237 -	„ -	South Wales, Mid Wales, and North Wales.	14 9	Fifteen tailoresses were stated to earn a wage not exceeding 8*s.* 6*d.* a week. The wages of 13 varied from 8*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.*, *i.e.*, an average of 10*s.* 3*d.*; the wages of 76 varied from 12*s.* to 17*s.* 6*d.*, *i.e.*, an average of 14*s.* 9*d.*; and the wages of 44 varied from 17*s.* 6*d.* to 20*s.*, *i.e.*, an average of 18*s.* 9*d.* The aggregate amount of wages earned by the 148 tailoresses in question was estimated by multiplying 8*s.* 6*d.* by 15, 10*s.* 3*d.* by 13, &c., and adding the totals thus obtained. The whole was then divided by 148 to obtain the weekly average.
Reports, &c., p. 35 -	„ -	Leeds - -	12 4	Thirty-six per cent. of the women and girls earn under 10*s.*; 32·5 per cent. earn from 10*s.* to 15*s.*; 31·5 earn over 15*s.* The average was determined by multiplying 10*s.* by 36; 32·5 by the mean between 10*s.* and 15*s.*, *i.e.*, 12*s.* 6*d.*; and 31·5 by 15*s.* The sum total of these results was then divided by 100. It may be noted that the average thus obtained may be somewhat too high (*see* average wages earned in Bristol).

[§ 711 (a.)] [§ 711 (

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., p. 59 -	Tailors, clothiers, and outfitters.	Walsall - -	12 0	In an ordinary week 8·8 per cent. of the women and girls earn under 6s.; 26·5 per cent. earn from 6s. to 10s.; 40 per cent. earn from 10s. to 15s.; 20·1 per cent. from 15s. to 20s.; and 4·6 per cent. 21s. and over. The aggregate amount earned was determined by adding the totals obtained by multiplying the per-centage obtaining certain rates of wages by the mean between those rates, and dividing the total thus obtained by 100. It may be noted that the average throughout the year is considerably lower (9s. 7d.) than the average obtained for an ordinary week.
Reports, &c., pp. 266-7 -	„ -	Scotland -	11 4	This is the arithmetic mean obtained from 14 different averages in the busy season, and nine averages in the slack season. The busy season averages varied from 6s. 6d. to 20s. a week. In some instances the averages were given as such; in others the rates were stated to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken. Sometimes the average was given separately for machinists and finishers, and the arithmetic mean of their averages has been taken. In some instances the piece-work rates for vests or trousers were given, together with the average number of garments per week. No account has been taken of the "extras" paid for certain items. The average for the slack season was similarly determined.
Reports, &c., p. 35 -	„ -	Bristol - -	11 3	38·2 per cent. of the women and girls earn a wage not exceeding 8s. a week; 30·4 per cent. earn wages varying from 8s. to 12s.; 14·3 per cent. earn from 12s. to 15s.; 8·9 per cent. from 15s. to 18s.; and 8·2 per cent. earn wages exceeding 18s. The sum total obtained by multiplying 38·2 by 8s., 30·4 by 10s., &c., and adding the results, has then been divided by 100 to obtain the average (*i.e.*, 10s. 11*d.*). From another table, in which it was stated that 53·4 per cent. earned wages not exceeding 10s., 29·5 per cent. an average of 12s. 6d., and 17·1 per cent. wages exceeding 15s., the average similarly obtained was 11s. 7d. The wage given in the table is the arithmetic mean between these results. It may be noted that the table from which the average wage earned in Leeds was obtained corresponds precisely with the latter of these tables.
Reports, &c., pp. 325-6 -	„ -	Ireland - -	11 1	In one factory in the south wages were said to vary from 5s. to 16s. (piece), or an average of 10s. 6d. In another factory in the south ordinary workers were stated to earn a wage varying from 10s. to 14s. (*i.e.*, an average of 12s.). In a third factory in the south machinists were stated to earn from 10s. to 12s. (*i.e.*, an average of 11s.), and hand-sewers from 7s. to 12s. (*i.e.*, an average of 9s. 6d.). The average obtained by machinists and hand-sewers together is therefore 10s. 3d. In a factory in Dublin machinists earned from 3s. 9d. to 19s. (*i.e.*, an average of 11s. 4½d.), hand-sewers from 9s. to 15s. (*i.e.*, an average of 12s.), finishers from 5s. to 12s. (*i.e.*, an average of 8s. 6d.). The average for this factory as a whole is thus estimated at 10s. 7½d. In a fifth factory wages were said to vary from 4s. to 20s. (*i.e.*, an average of 12s.). The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of these five averages.
Reports, &c., p. 348 -	„ -	„ -	10 11	This is determined from six different averages varying from 10s. to 12s. In two instances the averages were given as such; in two others the average for the workers as a whole, and for ordinary workers respectively, was stated to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken as the average. In the other two factories the wages were given for machinists, waistcoat hands, coat hands, and finishers, and for machinists and hand-sewers respectively, and the arithmetic mean of the averages for each class separately has been taken as the average for the whole factory.
Reports, &c., p. 76 -	„ -	Manchester -	10 6	25·5 per cent. of the women and girls earn under 6s.; 10·8 per cent. from 6s. to 8s.; 20·6 per cent. from 8s. to 10s.; 9·8 per cent. from 10s. to 12s.; 9·8 per cent. from 12s. to 15s.; 9·8 per cent. from 15s. to 18s.; and 13·7 per cent. 18s. and upwards. To obtain the average wage the sum total obtained by multiplying 25·5 by 6, 10·8 by 7, &c., and adding the results, was divided by 100.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 405.	„ -	Perth - -	9 0	The wages paid by Messrs. Jamieson, manufacturing clothiers, Perth, were stated to be 13s. for women and 5s. for young persons. The arithmetic mean is given in the table.
Reports, &c., p. 60 -	„ -	Dudley - -	8 11	In an ordinary week 44·5 per cent. earn wages not exceeding 6s.; 10·4 per cent. earn wages varying from 6s. to 8s.; 8·4 per cent. from 8s. to 10s.; 13·8 per cent. from 10s. to 12s.; 15·4 per cent. from 12s. to 15s.; 7·5 per cent. from 15s. to 18s. To obtain the average the sum total obtained by multiplying 44·5 by 6, 10·4 by 7, &c., and adding the results, was divided by 100.

(*b*) TABLE of WAGES EARNED by WOMEN in the HOSIERY and BOOT and SHOE INDUSTRIES, 1891–2.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 404.	Hosiers - -	Hawick, N.B. -	18 0	It was stated by Messrs. J. Henderson & Co. that the wages of women varied from 13s. to 23s. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Inskip, 16,086.	Boots and shoes -	Leicester (Co-operative Society).	17 6	——
Reports, &c., p. 160 - -	Hosiers - -	Leicester -	15 11	The wages of seamers ranged from 11s. to 16s. (average 13s. 6d.); of machinists from 14s. to 27s. (average 20s. 6d.); of winders from 12s. to 20s. (average 16s.); of linkers from 15s. to 22s. (average 18s. 6d.); of knitters from 10s. to 28s. (average 19s.); of cutters from 4s. to 14s. (average 9s.); of finishers 12s. to 18s. (average 15s.). The arithmetic mean of these seven rates has been given in the table. It may be noted that the wages paid are lower in some of the outlying districts, and employment is more uncertain.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Salter, 14,936-7; Midgley, 15,668.	Boots and shoes -	Leeds and Pudsey.	14 6	It was stated by Mr. Salter that the wages varied from 13s. to 16s. (*i.e.*, average 14s. 6d.). It may be noted in corroboration of this estimate that Mr. Midgley stated that the correct average for machinists (women) was 14s. 7d.

[§ 711 (b.)]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports &c., pp. 159–60 -	Hosiers - -	Nottingham -	13 4	The wages paid for winding are 11*s.*; for turning off, 13*s.* 6*d.*; for mending, 12*s.* 6*d.*; for cutting, 20*s.*; for machining, 18*s.*; for stitching, 13*s.*; for cleaning, welting, and sleeving shirts, 5*s.* 6*d.*; for seaming, 13*s.* The arithmetic mean of these eight rates is given. The wages paid here as in Leicester are lower in some of the outlying districts and employment is more uncertain.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 395.	Boots and shoes -	Northampton -	13 0	Wages were said to vary from 12*s.* to 14*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 351 - -	„ -	Ireland - -	12 9	Wages in two factories averaged 12*s.* 6*d.* and 13*s.* respectively. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 35 -	„ -	Bristol - -	12 5	The wages of 28·6 per cent. of the workers are under 8*s.*; of 21·4 per cent. between 8*s.* and 12*s.*; of 16 per cent. between 12*s.* and 15*s.*; of 16 per cent. between 15*s.* and 18*s.*; of 18 per cent. over 18*s.* The average was obtained by adding the totals got by multiplying 28·6 by 8; 21·4 by 10, &c., and dividing by 100. It may be noted that where the women are paid by time, 11*s.* to 13*s.* was said to represent the ordinary wage.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Tabberer, 13,751, 13,862-3.	Fancy hosiery manufacture.	Leicester -	10 9	It was stated that the wages of women and girls in the factory in almost constant employment vary from 10*s.* to 15*s.* (*i.e.*, average of 12*s.* 6*d.*), and 4*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* (*i.e.*, average 5*s.* 9*d.*). In the warehouse they average 14*s.* The arithmetic mean of these rates has been taken.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Hawley, 13,912.	Dyeing and finishing.	„ -	10 6	The wages of women were stated to average 13*s.*; of girls, 8*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 397.	Boots and shoes -	Carnoustie, N.B.	10 0	It was stated by Mr. J. Winter that the wages of women varied from 5*s.* to 15*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Holmes, 12,877-8.	Hosiery-stitchers	Midland Counties.	9 6	Full time wages were said to average 9*s.* 6*d.* The average throughout the year was said to be 8*s.*

(c) TABLE of WAGES EARNED by WOMEN in MISCELLANEOUS CLOTHING INDUSTRIES, 1891-2.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 854.	Shirt and collar makers.*	London - -	16 0	The rates for day workers were stated to vary from 14*s.* to 15*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 14*s.* 6*d.*), and the rates for piece workers were said to average 17*s.* 6*d.* The arithmetic mean between these two means is given in the table.
Reports, &c., p. 31 -	Straw-hat making	Luton - -	15 7	The wages earned by machinists and finishers respectively were given for two average weeks in two different factories at Luton. In the first factory, in one average week, six machinists were earning under 6*s.*, 14 between 6*s.* and 10*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 8*s.*), 11 between 10*s.* and 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*), 25 between 12*s.* and 15*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*), 11 from 15*s.* to 18*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*), eight between 18*s.* and 21*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 19*s.* 6*d.*), 15 from 21*s.* to 25*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 23*s.*), 11 from 25*s.* to 30*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 27*s.* 6*d.*), three were earning 35*s.*, and one 50*s.* The average wage for machinists in this week was determined by adding the totals obtained by multiplying 6 by 6, 14 by 8, &c., and dividing the sum total by 105 (the total number of machinists employed in the week). This average amounts to 16*s.* 8*d.* The wages similarly obtained for machinists in the second average week amount to 18*s.* 6*d.* The average wages of machinists in this factory have therefore been taken as the mean between 16*s.* 8*d.* and 18*s.* 6*d.*, *i.e.*, 17*s.* 7*d.* Similarly, the average wage for finishers was found to be 11*s.* 4*d.*, and the average for machinists and finishers together is 14*s.* 5½*d.* In the second factory the average wage of straw-hat machinists and finishers together were similarly determined for the average week given, and amounted to 16*s.* 8*d.* The estimate given in the table for the industry as a whole is the arithmetic mean between 16*s.* 8*d.* and 14*s.* 5½*d.*
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Wates, 12,616.	Elastic-web trade	- - -	15 0	Women's wages were said to vary from 10*s.* to 20*s.*, and the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., pp. 93–4 -	Straw-hat making	London - -	13 2	In one factory the wages were given for four different weeks in the year, two of which were said to be "the lowest paid in the year," one was "fairly busy," and the fourth, "one of the busiest in the year." The numbers of women and girls earning wages which lay within certain specified limits were given for each week, and the average for the whole number employed was obtained for each week on the method already explained in the remarks on the wages of the straw-hat makers, Luton. The means thus determined were found to be 10*s.* 4*d.*, 8*s.* 7*d.*, 16*s.* 4*d.*, 17*s.* 4*d.* The wage given in the table is the arithmetic mean of these. The employer from whom these wage-statistics were obtained was employed in making the best class of hats. It may be noted that the manager of a small workshop stated that the average wages throughout the year would be about 10*s.*
Reports, &c., p. 76 -	Apron, pinafore, &c. departments of clothing factories.	Manchester -	13 0	3·3 per cent. of the workers earn under 6*s.*; 3·3 per cent. from 6*s.* to 8*s.*; 13·1 per cent. from 8*s.* to 10*s.*; 24·6 per cent. from 10*s.* to 12*s.*; 21·3 per cent. from 12*s.* to 15*s.*; 24·6 per cent. from 15*s.* to 18*s.*; and 9·8 per cent. from 18*s.* upwards. The average was obtained by adding the totals obtained by multiplying 3·6 by 6, 3·3 by 7, 13·1 by 9, &c., and dividing the result by 100.

* The average wage of the machinists in the shirt factory connected with the Scottish Wholesale Co-operative Society, was stated to be 12*s.*, "some of them running as high as 1*l.* a week for making shirts." (Maxwell, 552. Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole.)

[§ 711 (c.)] [§ 711 (c.)]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., p. 77 -	Umbrella-making	Manchester -	12 3	In the umbrella department in a clothing factory in Manchester throughout the year 1891, one worker earned from 6*s.* to 8*s.*, one from 8*s.* to 10*s.*, seven from 10*s.* to 12*s.*, four from 12*s.* to 15*s.*, three from 15*s.* to 18*s.* The mean for these 16 workers, determined by the method previously adopted, amounted to 12*s.* 3*d.* This was, however, too small a department to be representative of the large umbrella-makers in the town.
Reports, &c., p. 35 -	Corset manufacture.	Bristol - -	12 0	The wages of 20·3 per cent. of the women employed were below 8*s.*; of 31·8 per cent. from 8*s.* to 12*s.*; of 24·6 per cent. from 12*s.* to 15*s.*; of 16·7 per cent. from 15*s.* to 18*s.*; and of 6·6 per cent. were 18*s.* and upwards. The average, which was determined in the manner previously explained, amounted to 12*s.*
Reports, &c., p. 94 -	Flower-making -	London - -	11 8	In a factory in London "cutters" earn from 9*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 10*s.* 6*d.*, and it was also stated that the majority earn 10*s.* 6*d.*), good "shaders" earn from 12*s.* to 16*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 14*s.*), and less experienced "shaders" from 9*s.* to 11*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 10*s.*). The average for "shaders" as a whole is therefore 12*s.* "Black makers" earn from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 9*s.* 9*d.*). "Grasses" earn 11*s.* (*i.e.*, better hands). The majority of "leaf makers" earn 9*s.*, and the wages of "mounters" average 17*s.* 10½*d.* The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 10*s.* 6*d.*, 12*s.*, 9*s.* 9*d.*, 11*s.*, 9*s.*, and 17*s.* 10½*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 76 -	Mantle-making -	Manchester -	11 3	12·2 per cent. of the women employed in these departments of the clothing factories earn less than 6*s.*; 17·1 per cent. earn from 6*s.* to 8*s.*; 19·5 per cent. from 8*s.* to 10*s.*; 15·9 per cent. from 10*s.* to 12*s.*; 17·1 per cent. from 12*s.* to 15*s.*; 10·9 per cent. from 15*s.* to 18*s.*; and 7·3 per cent. earn 18*s.* and upwards. The average, which was determined in the manner previously explained, amounted to 10*s.* 11*d.* In another factory, where the workmanship was higher than in the preceding, the wages, similarly determined, amounted in an ordinary week to an average of 11*s.* 8*d.* The figure in the table is approximately the mean between these two results.
Reports, &c., p. 327 -	Lace-making -	Ireland - -	11 0	The wages of skilled lace-makers were said to vary from 10*s.* to 12*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 76 -	Shirt manufacture	Manchester -	10 9	The wages of 3·1 per cent. of the women employed were under 6*s.*; of 26·2 per cent. from 6*s.* to 8*s.*; of 18·7 per cent. from 8*s.* to 10*s.*; of 17·2 per cent. from 10*s.* to 12*s.*; of 16·4 per cent. from 12*s.* to 15*s.*; of 17·2 per cent. from 15*s.* to 18*s.*; and of 1·2 per cent. were 18*s.* and upwards. The average was determined in the manner previously explained.
Reports, &c., p. 277 -	Umbrella covering	Scotland -	10 0	In the busy season wages in different cases were said to average 12*s.*, 14*s.*, 12*s.* 3*d.* (*i.e.*, 12*s.* to 12*s.* 6*d.*), and 12*s.* The busy season average has therefore been estimated at 12*s.* 7*d.*, the arithmetic mean of these four rates. Similarly, the slack season average was found to be 7*s.* 4½*d.* The figure in the table is the arithmetic mean between these rates. It may be noted that there was no proof that home workers accept work at lower rates than factory workers. One witness stated: "Wages were wages five or six years ago." "I have "known many a worker who could make 20*s.* a week all the year "round."
Reports, &c., p. 49 -	Button-making -	Birmingham	9 7	In a factory where linen buttons were made it was stated that the majority would earn about 10*s.* In a metal and ivory button factory 13·4 per cent. of the women and girls earned under 6*s.*; 18 per cent. between 6*s.* and 8*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 7*s.*); 29·8 per cent. between 8*s.* and 10*s.* (*i.e.*, and average of 9*s.*); 22·4 per cent. between 10*s.* and 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*); and 16·4 per cent. between 12*s.* and 15*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 13*s.* 6*d.* By multiplying 13·4 by 6, 18 by 7, &c., and dividing the total by 100, an average of 9*s.* 2*d.* was obtained; and the estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of the rates in the two factories.
Reports, &c., pp. 169–170 -	Lace-making -	- - -	9 4	This was obtained from six different rates, varying from 8*s.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* In one case the average was given as such; in the others, wages were said to range between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken. It may be noted that in many cases the estimates given by the employers were confirmed by the workers.
Reports, &c., p. 76 -	Corset-making -	Manchester -	8 7	In a corset factory at Manchester 32·3 per cent. of the women and girls were said to earn not more than 6*s.*; 14·5 per cent. from 6*s.* to 8*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 7*s.*); 25·8 per cent. from 8*s.* to 10*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 9*s.*); 18 per cent. from 10*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*); 7·2 per cent. from 12*s.* to 15*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*); 1·6 per cent. from 15*s.* to 18*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*); and 0·7 per cent. 18*s.* and upwards. The average given in the table was obtained by multiplying 32·2 by 6, 14·5 by 7, &c., and dividing the total by 100.
Reports, &c., p. 49 -	Umbrella-making	Birmingham -	7 1	In a factory at Birmingham 40·4 per cent. of the women and girls were said to earn not more than 6*s.* a week; 38·5 from 6*s.* to 8*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 7*s.*); 15·6 per cent. from 8*s.* to 10*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 9*s.*); and 5·5 per cent. from 10*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*). The average given in the table was obtained by multiplying 40·4 by 6, 35·8 by , &c., and dividing the sum of these results by 100.
Reports, &c., p. 328 -	Knitting - -	Donegal -	7 0	It was stated that women earn from 6*s.* to 8*s.* a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 30 -	Straw-plaiting -	Luton - -	4 6	It was stated that straw-plaiters earned generally from ½*d.* to 1*d.* an hour. The arithmetic mean (¾*d.*) was therefore taken as the estimate of hourly earnings. On the assumption that they worked 12 hours a day for six days in the week the average weekly earnings are 4*s.* 6*d.* It may be noted that one witness stated that she could make "from 3*s.* to 4*s.* easy." The maximum hourly earnings in this industry were said to be 1½*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 327 -	Sprigging embroidery.	Donegal -	2 9	An agent who employed "hundreds of people" stated that wages ranged from 2*d.* to 9*d.* a day; and two others employing 600, and from 200 to 300 people respectively, that they varied from 3*d.* to 8*d.* The arithmetic mean of these rates (5¾*d.*) has therefore been taken as the daily earnings, and multiplied by six to give the weekly earnings.

[§ 712.] Wages of shop assistants, barmaids, dressmakers, and milliners.

712. TABLE OF WAGES OF SHOP ASSISTANTS, BARMAIDS, DRESSMAKERS, AND MILLINERS,* 1891–2.

[§ 712

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. *d.*	
Report, &c., pp. 4–5, 8–9	Shop assistants	London	21 6	This is the arithmetic mean of four different averages obtained for North London, South London, East London, and for London as a whole. These averages were taken to include board and lodging, and premiums, as far as it was possible to take these into account. The average salary earned by 69 shop assistants in North London, in addition to board and lodging, was stated to be 42*l.* with premiums. On the supposition that holidays amount to 14 days in the year, and Bank Holidays (*i.e.*, about three weeks per annum), the monetary value of the board and lodging amounts to 17*l.* 3*s.* The average yearly wages in North London therefore amounts to 59*l.* 3*s.*, or an average weekly wage of 24*s.* 2*d.* (49 weeks). The salaries and commission of 97 shop assistants were given for South London, 95 of whom received board and lodging in addition (*i.e.*, 17*l.* 3*s.* per annum), and two, board only (*i.e.*, 12*l.* 5*s.* per annum). The average wages were then determined as follows:—Wages were in each case said to vary between certain specified limits. The arithmetic mean of these rates was then multiplied by the total number in receipt of such salaries. The aggregate wages of the whole number of shop assistants was thus determined and divided by the number of assistants. The monetary value of the board in the one case, and board and lodging in the other, was then added to the averages thus obtained, and the mean of these results, when found, gave an average wage for South London of 25*s.* 10*d.* The average wage was similarly determined for East London, and was found to be 18*s.* 11*d.*, including board and lodging. The average wage for London as a whole was determined from the Table on pp. 8, 9. Where the premium was said to vary between certain specified limits per week, the arithmetic mean has been taken, multiplied by 49 (number of weeks at work), and added to the yearly wages to obtain the yearly average, including premiums. The arithmetic mean has then been taken of the 11 averages thus obtained (where sufficient details were not given to determine the average, the statement was omitted), an estimate was allowed for the monetary value of the board and lodging, and the wage in London as a whole was estimated at 17*s.* 10*d.* The estimate given in the table for London as a whole is the arithmetic mean of these results, *i.e.*, North London, 24*s.* 2*d.*; South London, 25*s.* 10*d.*; East London, 18*s.* 11*d.*; London (as a whole), 17*s.* 10*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 86	"	Provincial towns	20 8	The salaries of 14 shop assistants in provincial towns at the present time, and details as to whether board and lodging, board only, or neither were granted in addition, were given in a table in Miss Collet's Report on the Conditions of Employment of Shop Assistants, &c. To some extent the salaries vary according to the length of time during which the assistant has been employed. This period varies from 4 to 16 years in the shop assistants under consideration. Board for the year has, as before, been estimated at 12*l.* 5*s.*, and board and lodging at 17*s.* 3*d.* To determine the average in the table the monetary value of the board or lodging, as the case might be, was added to the yearly salary. The arithmetic mean of the results so obtained was then found and divided by 49 to find the approximate weekly mean. It is not stated whether the given salaries include premiums.
Reports, &c., pp. 330–6	"	Ireland	20 2	This average is the arithmetic mean of 18 different averages obtained from Ireland as a whole, omitting salaries earned by the heads of departments. They are estimated so as to include board and lodging and commissions (as far as it was possible to take these into account), where these were granted in addition to wages. With one exception, where it was definitely stated that no holidays were granted, the weekly wages have been obtained from the yearly wages on the supposition that holidays amount to 14 days in the year and Bank Holidays, *i.e.*, about three weeks per annum. The monetary value for board and lodging during this period amounts to 17*l.* 3*s.*; of board alone, 12*l.* 5*s.*; of dinner alone, 4*l.* 18*s.* In 15 instances the average yearly salaries were thus obtained. Having taken as the average the arithmetic mean where the salaries were stated to range between certain specified limits, in the one instance where no holidays were given the average weekly salary for the 52 weeks was determined and the result multiplied by 49 in order that the salary in this case might be on the same basis as the other salaries. In two cases where the weekly wages were given the averages were multiplied by 49 and the yearly salaries thus obtained. The arithmetic mean of these 18 averages was then found to be 49*l.* 6*s.* 1*d.*, which gave a weekly estimate of 20*s.* 2*d.*
Reports, &c., pp. 10–12	Milliners	London	18 2	From Table III., on pp. 11, 12, it was estimated that the average wages of "second hands," "ordinary hands," and "first hands" were 19*s.* 6*d.*, 13*s.* 10*d.*, and 20*s.* respectively. These averages were obtained from other averages, which were in some instances given as such; in others the arithmetic mean was taken of the limits between which wages were said to vary. Where dinner and tea were given in addition to wages, the sum of 3*s.* 6*d.* per week was added to the wage given, before the average was found. The average wage of London milliners, according to this table, was then taken to be the mean of 19*s.* 6*d.*, 13*s.* 10*d.*, and 20*s.*, *i.e.*, 17*s.* 9*d.* In another table, on p. 10, the wages of five milliners in West London were said to be 80*l.*, 60*l.*, 40*l.*, 25*l.*, and 20*l.* respectively, in addition to board and lodging (*i.e.*, 17*l.* 3*s.* per annum), and six were said to be paid 8*s.* a week with board only (*i.e.* 8*s.* + 5*s.* = 13*s.* a week). Estimating the number of weeks at 49, the yearly wages of these six milliners average 31*l.* 17*s.* The average yearly wages of the 11 milliners were then found to be 45*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.*, *i.e.*, an average weekly wage of 18*s.* 8*d.* Similarly, the average yearly wages of 11 milliners in North London were found to be 32*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* in addition to board. The weekly average, including the monetary value of the board, is thus estimated (for 49 weeks) at 18*s.* 1*d.* The estimate given in this table is the arithmetic mean of 17*s.* 9*d.* (*i.e.*, London as a whole), 18*s.* 8*d.* (West London), and 18*s.* 1*d.* (North London).

* The following assumptions have been used in calculating the wages in the above table:—
(i.) The monetary value of board and lodging = 7*s.* a week; of board only = 5*s.* a week; of lodging only = 3*s.* a week (*see* Report on the Conditions of Work in Wales, p. 5); of dinner and tea only = 3*s.* 6*d.* a week; of tea only = 1*s.* 6*d.* a week.
(ii.) The number of weeks worked during the year is, on an average, 49. It appeared from the table (pp. 6, 7, Lady Assistant-Commissioners Reports) that 14 days and Bank Holidays were frequently granted as holidays.

It may be noted that in the evidence before the Commission, Mr. Davis stated that employers calculate board and lodging as equal to 10*s.*, but he himself asserted that 4*s.* 6*d.* would be a more accurate estimate. The mean between 4*s.* 6*d.* and 10*s.* is 7*s.* 3*d.*, which differs but slightly from the estimate given. (Digest Group C., Vol. III., p. 91; Davis, 30,778.)

[§ 712.] [§ 712.]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. *d.*	
Reports, &c., p. 235 - -	Shop assistants -	Wales - -	17 0	This average does not include any premiums. Three shop assistants in Wales were said to earn a salary not exceeding 10*l.* a year, 51 a salary between 10*l.* and 15*l.*, 101 between 15*l.* and 20*l.*, 165 between 20*l.* and 30*l.*, 120 between 30*l.* and 40*l.*, and three earned salaries exceeding 40*l.* The approximate aggregate amount earned was obtained by multiplying the mean between the rates given by the number of assistants whose salaries fell between those limits, and adding the totals thus obtained. This sum was then divided by the total number of assistants (*i.e.*, 443), and then divided by 49 (*i.e.*, the number of weeks supposed at work throughout the year). This gave an average of 10*s.* in addition to board and lodging, or an average of 17*s.* inclusive of the monetary value of board and lodging.
Reports, &c., p. 292 - -	Dressmakers	Scotland - -	14 1	It was stated that skirt-makers are usually paid about 10*s.*, 12*s.*, or 14*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 12*s.*). Bodice-makers are paid about the same rate. Girls' wages ran from 10*s.* to 14*s.* a week (*i.e.*, an average of 12*s.*), and "second hands" are paid about 50*l.* a year (*i.e.*, 20*s.* 5*d.* a week for 49 weeks). The arithmetic mean of these rates $\left(\frac{3 \times 12s. + 20s. 5d.}{4}\right)$ has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 204 - - Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Shortt, 8719; Walker, 15,724-6.	Barmaids, waitresses, bookkeepers in hotels, and manageresses.	- - -	13 8	In addition to board and lodging, 102 women earn wages not exceeding 8*s.* a week, 182 earn an average of 9*s.*, 33 earn an average of 12*s.* 6*d.*, 11 earn an average of 17*s.* 6*d.*, and five earn wages exceeding 20*s.* a week. Proceeding on the method already adopted, the average wages were estimated to be 9*s.* 6*d.* with board and lodging, or a total approximate wage of 16*s.* 6*d.* With partial board or none, and without lodging, 26 women earn an average not exceeding 8*s.* a week, 30 earn an average of 9*s.* a week, 24 an average of 12*s.* 6*d.* a week, and 14 an average of 17*s.* 6*d.* a week. One earns a wage exceeding 20*s.* a week. The mean for the whole of these 95 women was found to be 10*s.* 10*d.* The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean between 16*s.* 6*d.* and 10*s.* 10*d.* It would appear that this is probably somewhat too low, as no account has been taken of those receiving partial board in the latter group. It may be noted in corroboration of the first average that Mr. Shortt, in the evidence given before the Commission, stated that the wages of a good barmaid averaged 10*s.* a week with board and lodging. The wages of barwomen, Mr. Walker stated, averaged 10*s.* a week, rising to 18*s.* or 21*s.*, in addition to board and lodging. This may also serve to corroborate the above figures, where 182 women were said to earn from 8*s.* to 10*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 9*s.*) a week, and 11 earn an average of 17*s.* 6*d.*, and the wages of five exceed 20*s.*
Reports, &c., pp. 336-40 -	Dressmakers, milliners, and mantle-makers.	Ireland -	12 11	This is determined from 20 different averages, which vary from 9*s.* to 16*s.* Wages in the different firms were, generally speaking, stated to vary between certain specified limits, the lower of which would probably only be given to beginners. Thus in one instance where wages were stated to range from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* it was added that the latter sum was reached after a number of years; and in another firm where wages were said to range from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.* it was stated that the latter sum was reached in from three to seven years. In determining the mean the latter sum has therefore in each case been taken to represent the average of skilled workers.
Reports, &c. p. 14 - -	Dressmakers -	London (West and North).	12 6	Details were given with regard to the wages of 82 dressmakers in West London and 36 dressmakers in North London. In West London 24 dressmakers earn under 8*s.* a week, 12 earn under 10*s.*, seven earn under 12*s.*, 14 earn under 14*s.*, 13 earn under 16*s.*, 11 earn under 18*s.*, one earns under 20*s.* The aggregate amount of wages was roughly determined as the sum total of (24 × 8*s.*) (12 × 10*s.*), &c. This was divided by 82, and the weekly mean was thus estimated at 12*s.* 5*d.* Similarly, in North London, the mean was estimated to be 12*s.* 8*d.* The arithmetic mean of these rates is given in the table. It may be noted in corroboration of this estimate that an employer in South London, employing 120 dressmakers, said that their wages (excluding first hands) ranged from 6*s.* to 16*s.* or 17*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.* 3*d.*). Excluding, in West London, the 11 dressmakers who earn under 18*s.*, and the dressmaker earning under 20*s.*, the average wage is 18*s.* 5*d.* a week; and in North London, excluding the four dressmakers earning over 16*s.* (*i.e.*, two earning 20*s.*, one earning 23*s.*, and one earning 25*s.*), the average wage is 11*s.* 6*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 89 - -	„ -	Provincial towns	10 8	This is the arithmetic mean of nine different averages for "best hands," skirt and bodice machinists, bodice hands, skirt hands, and assistants. Where meals are allowed in addition, 5*s.* has been added to the weekly wages given; where tea is given, 1*s.* 6*d.* has been similarly added.
Reports, &c., p. 312 - - Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Milligan, 30 929-30,949.	Shop assistants -	Scotland - -	10 7	This estimate is the mean of 12 different "general averages" of female assistants considered qualified from 18 years of age upwards. It may be noted in corroboration of this result that the wages of girl shop assistants in Scotland were stated by Mr. Milligan, in his evidence before the Commission, to range from 12*s.* to 15*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*), and the wages of apprentices were said to range from 4*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 8*s.*). The arithmetic mean between 13*s.* 6*d.* and 8*s.* is 10*s.* 9*d.*, which is in almost exact agreement with the estimate given in the table.
Reports, &c., p. 236 -	Dressmakers and milliners.	Wales - -	9 4	63 women were said to earn a weekly wage not exceeding 5*s.* The wages per week of 135 lie between 5*s.* and 7*s.* 6*d.*; of 237 between 7*s.* 6*d.* and 10*s.*; of 89 between 10*s.* and 12*s.* 6*d.*; of 63 between 12*s.* 6*d.* and 15*s.*; of 33 between 15*s.* and 20*s.*; and the wages of 11 exceed 20*s.* The aggregate amount of wages earned was taken as the sum total of (63*s.* × 5*s.*) (135*s.* × 6*s.* 3*d.*) (237*s.* × 8*s.* 9*d.*), &c. The sum total thus obtained was divided by 631, the total number of women employed, and the average wage thus obtained was 9*s.* 4*d.*

713. TABLE OF WAGES EARNED BY WOMEN IN PRINTING AND COGNATE TRADES, 1891-2. [§ 713.]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected, (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., p. 93 -	Compositors -	London - -	20 4	The wages of the women employed in one factory were as follows:—One earned 28*s.*, one earned 27*s.* 6*d.*, five earned from 23*s.* to 24*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 23*s.* 6*d.*), two earned from 22*s.* to 23*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 22*s.* 6*d.*), one earned 21*s.* 4*d.*, one earned 19*s.* 3½*d.*, two earned from 17*s.* to 18*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 17*s.* 6*d.*), one earned 15*s.* 7½*d.*, and two apprentices in their third and second year respectively earned 7*s.* and 5*s.* a week. The mean wage of these 16 workers was found to be 20*s.* 1*d.* At the Women's Printing Society of five apprentices, two average 12*s.* and 18*s.*, and the remaining three 24*s.*, and three others average 22*s.* 8*d.*, 21*s.* 5*d.*, and 19*s.* respectively. The mean wage in this instance is therefore 27*s.* 7½*d.* The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 20*s.* 7½*d.* and 20*s.* 1*d.*
Reports, &c., pp. 90–1 -	Printers -	Scotland -	15 4	On the "'stab." or time wage a girl may start at 4*s.* a week and rise to 9*s.*, 12*s.*, 15*s.* It does not appear whether or not the wage of 15*s.* is the average after a few years' apprenticeship. In one factory, however, it was definitely stated that a "'stab." wage of 15*s.* was paid. The supposition has therefore been made that this is the average wage for skilled workers. In another factory the girls are put on piece work at the end of three years; the wages then are:—minimum, 7*s.* 8*d.*; average, 13*s.* 8*d.*; maximum, 19*s.* 2*d.* In another firm beginners start on a time wage of 3*s.* 6*d.*, and after three years are put on piece work. By the fifth or sixth year the average wage of 18*s.* is earned. At type setting the wage varies from 13*s.* to 16*s.* per week (*i.e.*, an average of 14*s.* 6*d.*). In the setting of tables the girls were stated to make 15*s.* 4*d.* a week. The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 15*s.*, 13*s.* 8*d.*, 18*s.*, 14*s.* 6*d.*, 15*s.* 4*d.* This estimate refers to experienced workers it appears, however, from the wages given at the Women's Printing Society, London, and the other London firm mentioned above, that the largest proportion of the workers employed are of this nature.
Reports, &c., p. 293 -	Map - printing factory.	Scotland (Edinburgh).	12 4	In the printing room workers earn a fixed wage of 10*s.* after four or five years. In the colour or stone room girls are paid a time wage of 7*s.*, 13*s.*, or 15*s.*, according to experience and ability. In three or four years the worker becomes proficient. It is therefore estimated that at the end of this period wages would vary from 13*s.* to 15*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 14*s.*). In the mounting room the girls earn wages varying from 5*s.* to 13*s.*, according to their skill and the time engaged on the work. The average wage of an experienced worker has been estimated at 13*s.*, and the figure in the table is the arithmetic mean of 10*s.*, 14*s.*, and 13*s.*
Reports, &c., p. 293 - Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 88.	Publishing and book-binding (binding and folding department).	„ -	11 6	At the end of three years women are put on piece work and earn from 10*s.* to 13*s.* a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken. The Book-binders' and Machine Rulers' Consolidated Union (Edinburgh and Leith) stated that women's wages varied from 10*s.* to 12*s.* This average differs but slightly from that given in the table.
Reports, &c., p. 89 -	Stationers, envelope-makers, and paper-bag departments.	Liverpool -	11 0	In the paper-bag making department girls begin at 2*s.* 6*d.* a week, and reach a maximum of 10*s.* This has therefore been taken as the average for experienced workers. Similarly, at a firm of stationers and envelope makers, the maximum wage was 12*s.* The estimate in the table is the arithmetic mean between 10*s.* and 12*s.*
Reports, &c., p. 294 -	Stationery and envelope factory.	Scotland -	10 8	The wages in the envelope department were said to vary from 10*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*), and for machine workers 10*s.* In the stamping department they vary from 10*s.* to 11*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 10*s.* 6*d.*); in the black-bordering department from 10*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*); and in the folding and stitching departments from 10*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*). The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of the averages in the different departments.
Reports, &c., p. 35 -	Paper bags -	Bristol - -	10 8	30·3 per cent. were stated to earn wages not exceeding 8*s.*; 40·9 per cent. earn an average of 10*s.*; 21·3 per cent. earn an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*; 0·9 per cent. earn an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*; and 6·6 per cent. earn 18*s.* a week and over. The average in the table was determined by multiplying 30·3 by 8, 40·9 by 10, &c., adding the results, and dividing by 100.
Reports, &c., p. 295 -	Paper mills - -	Scotland -	10 1	Wages in the finishing and examining department vary from 12*s.* to 14*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 13*s.*); in the glazing room they vary from 10*s.* to 11*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 10*s.* 6*d.*); in the cutting department the women start at 4*s.*, rise 1*s.* a year for three years, and are then promoted. Wages therefore vary from 4*s.* to 7*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 5*s.* 6*d.*). The wages of women employed in picking and sorting rags vary from 11*s.* to 12*s.* a week (*i.e.*, from 1*s.* 10*d.* to 2*s.* a day). The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 13*s.*, 10*s.* 6*d.*, 5*s.* 6*d.*, and 11*s.* 6*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 69 - Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 858.	Book - folding, book - binding, and book-sewing.	Liverpool and Birkenhead.	10 0	The Book Folders and Sewers' Union (Liverpool and Birkenhead) stated that wages averaged 1*s.* 8*d.* a day (*i.e.*, an average of 10*s.* a week, on the basis of six days' work). At a book-binding firm in Liverpool, wages of full workers were said to average 10*s.* a week.
Reports, &c., p. 326 -	Folding, stamping, book-binding, &c.	Ireland - -	9 6	Wages were said to vary from 5*s.* to 14*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 240 -	Book - binding, book - folding, and bag-making.	Wales - -	9 4	Out of 94 women engaged in these industries, 23 earn wages not exceeding 7*s.* a week; 54 earn wages between 7*s.* and 10*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 8*s.* 6*d.*); 17 earn wages between 10*s.* and 20*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 15*s.*). The average given in the table was obtained by adding the results obtained by multiplying 23 by 7, 54 by 8½, 17 by 15, and dividing the total by 94.
Reports, &c., p. 326 -	Paper mills - -	Ireland - -	7 3	Wages were said to vary from 4*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.

[§ 714.] Wages in general metal, chemical, and cognate trades.

714. TABLE OF WAGES EARNED BY WOMEN IN GENERAL METAL, CHEMICAL, AND COGNATE TRADES, 1891–2.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., . 147 -	Watch manufacture.	- - -	14 3	Wages in the lower classes of work were said to vary from 10s. to 12s. (*i.e.*, a mean of 11s.), and in the higher classes of work from 15s. to 20s. (*i.e.*, a mean of 17s. 6d.). The estimate in the table is the arithmetic mean of 11s. and 17s. 6d. It may be noted that women are employed to a slight extent only upon skilled work, and, except in certain departments, attempts to promote them to such work have failed. This estimate is, therefore, probably too high.
Reports, &c., p. 49 -	Metallic bedstead manufacture.	Birmingham -	14 0	In one bedstead factory in Birmingham seven "lacquerers" earn wages varying from 8s. to 13s., three "varnishers," from 12s. to 15s., three "blackers" from 17s. 6d. to 18s. 11d., and eight "transferrers" from 8s. to 18s. Omitting the wages earned by one "blacker," who paid a certain sum (which is not given) to an assistant, the mean of the above rates was found to be 13s. The Secretary of the Bedstead Makers' Association stated that wages averaged 15s. a week in most cases. The figure in the table in the arithmetic mean between 13s. and 15s.
Reports, &c., p. 237 -	Tinplate, iron, tin-stamping, and enamel and slate enamel works, at the pit brow and in brickyards.	Wales - -	11 5	Out of a total of 653 women, 49 earn a weekly wage not exceeding 4s. 6d.; 81 between 4s. 6d. and 7s. 6d. (*i.e.*, an average of 6s.); 193 between 7s. 6d. and 10s. 6d. (*i.e.*, a mean of 9s.); and 330 between 10s. 6d. and 20s. (*i.e.*, a mean of 15s. 3d.). To obtain the average the sum total obtained by multiplying 4s. 6d. by 49, 6s. by 81, 9s. by 193, and 15s. 3d. by 330, and adding the results, was divided by 653.
Reports, &c., p. 49 -	Iron enamel works	Birmingham -	11 4	In an iron enamel works at Birmingham three females earn from 6s. to 8s., 13 from 8s. to 10s., nine from 10s. to 12s., seven from 12s. to 15s., six from 15s. to 17s. 6d. Taking the arithmetic mean when wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, the wage was estimated, in the ordinary manner, at 11s. 4d.
Reports, &c., pp. 154–5 - Digest, Group C., Vol. III., p. 22.	White lead industry.	- - -	10 8	The average wages for workers in blue beds is 2s. a day, in white beds 2s. a day, and for stovewomen 2s. 5d. a day. This last is the mean of six different averages varying from 2s. to 3s. In the evidence given before the Commission with reference to the chemical industry it was stated by one witness that women were given 1s. a week in addition to the ordinary wages if they worked five days in any one week. It has therefore been assumed that five days constitute a full week's work. The wages earned by the various classes in any one week would therefore be 10s., 10s., 12s. 1d. The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of these rates.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group A., p. 12.	Mining - -	Blainscough Hall Colliery Company, Coppull, Lancashire.	10 6	The wages paid to women and girls were stated to average 1s. 9d. per day. The weekly wages have been estimated at the rate of six days' work a week. (This has in every case been the basis adopted in these tables unless any evidence tended to show that any other estimate was more correct.)
Reports, &c., p. 143 -	Cycle manufacture	- - -	10 5	"Ball-grinders" were stated to earn on an average wages varying from 10s. to 14s. (*i.e.*, an average of 12s.); "screw-turners" from 6s. 6d. to 9s. (*i.e.*, an average of 7s. 9d.); "screw-makers" from 9s. to 14s. (*i.e.*, an average of 11s. 6d.). The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 12s., 7s. 9d., 11s. 6d.
Reports, &c., pp. 278–9 -	Sewing machine manufacture.	Scotland -	10 3	Wages in the "japanning" department average 8s. a week. In the polishing, varnishing, and French polishing department they average 8s. 4½d. (*i.e.*, 9s. to 10s., less by 9d. to 1s. 6d. for oils, &c.); 7s. 6d. (beginning on a time wage of 6s. and receiving an increase of 1s. per week per annum till the maximum of 9s. is earned); 10s. 6d. (*i.e.*, 10s. to 11s.). In the shuttle-making department five-sixths of the workers earn 8s., 12s., and 17s., and the rest are time-workers paid wages varying from 6s. to 11s. (*i.e.*, an average of 11s. 8d.). In the needle-making department wages vary from 10s. to 14s. (*i.e.*, an average of 12s.). The average earned in the nickel-plating department is 13s. 9d., one estimate of wages being 14s., another 12s. to 16s. (*i.e.*, an average of 14s.), less 6d. for brushes. The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of the averages in the japanning, shuttle-making, needle-making, and nickel-plating departments and the four averages in the polishing, &c. department.
Reports, &c., p. 284 -	Lead works -	,, -	10 3	This is the arithmetic mean between the mean obtained from the employers and employed respectively. The former (*i.e.*, 10s. 6d.) is the mean of six different averages varying from 9s. 2d. to 14s. 5d. The latter (*i.e.*, 10s.) is the mean between four different averages varying from 9s. to 11s.
Reports, &c., p. 49 -	Jewellery trade -	Birmingham -	10 2	In a factory in Birmingham in an ordinary week one woman was earning under 6s.; four from 6s. to 8s. (*i.e.*, an average of 7s.); one from 8s. to 10s. (*i.e.*, an average of 9s.); four from 10s. to 12s. (*i.e.*, an average of 11s.); and three were earning over 15s. From these the average was estimated to be 10s. 2d. It may be noted that the secretary of the Jewellers' Trade Union stated that average girls earned from 8s. to 11s.; polishers (if skilled) might earn as much as 15s.
Digest, Group A., Vol. III., p. 18.	Hand-nail makers	Bromsgrove and Catshill.	10 0	Married women were stated to earn 9s. 8d. on an average, and unmarried women 10s. 5d. The arithmetic mean of these rates is given in the table.
Reports, &c., p. 284 -	Colour works -	Scotland -	10 0	Wages were said to vary from 8s. to 12s. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group A., p. 12.	File-cutters -	Sheffield -	9 6	Wages were said to vary from 7s. to 12s. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 349 -	Match-makers -	Ireland -	6 6	The greater number were stated to earn from 6s. to 7s. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Digest, Group A., Vol. II., p. 56, Price, 17,635.	Spike-nail makers	Halesowen District, Worcestershire.	4 6	Wages were said to vary from 4s. to 5s. a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken.

[§ 715.] ages in ades anected th the nufac- re of food.

715. TABLE OF WAGES EARNED BY WOMEN IN TRADES CONNECTED WITH THE MANUFACTURE OF FOOD, 1891–2.

[§ 715.]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., p. 35	Cocoa factories	Bristol	11 0	21·8 per cent. earn a wage not exceeding 8*s.* a week; 37·3 per cent. earn wages varying from 8*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 10*s.*); 36·9 per cent. earn wages varying from 12*s.* to 15*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*); 3·6 per cent. earn wages varying from 15*s.* to 18*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*); and 0·4 per cent. earn wages above 18*s.* The average wage has been determined by adding the totals obtained by multiplying 21·8 by 8, 37·3 by 10, 36·9 by 13½, 3·6 by 16½, and 0·4 by 18, and dividing the result by 100.
Reports, &c., pp. 240–1	Mineral waters, jam factories, wholesale grocers, and confectioners.	Wales	9 3	Five women employed in mineral water and jam factories and by wholesale grocers and confectioners earned weekly wages not exceeding 7*s.* The wages of 20 varied from 7*s.* to 8*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 7*s.* 6*d.*); the wages of 36 varied from 8*s.* to 10*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 9*s.*); the wages of 12 from 10*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*); the wages of eight from 12*s.* to 14*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 13*s.*); and the wages of two exceeded 14*s.* The figure given in the table was obtained by multiplying 5 by 7, 20 by 7½, &c., adding the results so obtained, and dividing the total by 83.
Reports, &c., p. 95	Mineral waters	South London	9 0	The wages of bottlers in South London were stated to vary from 8*s.* to 10*s.*, although a few earned 12*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 349	Bacon-curing	Ireland	8 2	This is the arithmetic mean of five different averages ranging from 7*s.* to 10*s.* In a few cases the average was given as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean was taken. In one instance the wages of "cleaners" were said to average 8*s.*, and those of sausage-makers to vary from 8*s.* to 9*s.* The figure in this case was taken as the mean between 8*s.* and 8*s.* 6*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 159	Confectionery trade.		8 0	The average wage in the confectionery trade as a whole was stated to be 8*s.*
Reports, &c., p. 85	„	Bristol	8 0	95·8 per cent. of the women and girls employed were stated to earn wages not exceeding 8*s.* a week; the wages of 4·2 per cent. vary from 8*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 10*s.*). To find the average in the table, 95·8 was multiplied by 8 and 4·2 by 10, the results were added and divided by 100.
Reports, &c., p. 326	Biscuit-making, sweet, &c. factories.	Ireland	7 2	This is determined from six different averages, which range from 4*s.* 3*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* In some cases the average was given as such, but where wages were said to range between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean was taken.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Miss James, 8413, 8427–28, 8513.	Confectionery trade.	London	7 0	Wages were stated to vary from 5*s.* to 9*s.* The arithmetic mean has been given in the table. Miss James stated that "the wages are declining and getting lower and lower." It may be noted that the mean between the average wage in London and Bristol, viz., 7*s.* 4*d.*, differs but slightly from the average given for the trade as a whole.

Wages in the sack-making, rope-making, and rag-picking trades.

716. TABLE OF WAGES EARNED BY WOMEN IN THE SACK-MAKING, ROPE-MAKING, AND RAG-PICKING INDUSTRIES, 1891–2.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Walker, 10,764.	Sack-making	Dundee	15 6	In one factory wages were said to vary from 15*s.* to 18*s.* (*i.e.*, average 16*s.* 6*d.*). In another factory the "worst" were paid 12*s.* to 14*s.*; the "best" 14*s.* to 18*s.* The mean for this factory is therefore 14*s.* 6*d.* The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 16*s.* 6*d.* and 14*s.* 6*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 296	Rag-pickers	Scotland	10 6	It was stated that 75 per cent. (employed on piecework) are paid from 9*s.* to 13*s.*; 25 per cent. receive from 8*s* to 11*s.* as a time wage.
Reports, &c., p. 242	Sack-sewing	Wales	10 0	This was stated to be the average wage for regular work.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Mrs. Hicks, 8275.	Rope-workers	East London	9 0	Wages of ordinary workers (not long in the trade) were stated to average 7*s.* 6*d.*; of skilled workers, 10*s.* 6*d.* The arithmetic mean has been taken. Mrs. Hicks stated that during the last four years wages in this trade have gone down "perhaps not more than 1*s.* a week, taking it all round."
Reports, &c., p. 351	Rope-making	Ireland	7 0	Wages were said to range from 5*s.* to 9*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 189	Sack-making	Greenock	6 9	The wages of darners (casual workers) were said to range from 7*s.* to 8*s.* a week; 4*d.* a dozen was paid for sack-sewing, and three dozen were said to constitute a hard day's work. The average for a week's work would therefore be 6*s.* The arithmetic mean of 7*s.* 6*d.* and 6*s.* has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 67	Sack-mending	Liverpool	6 8	Nineteen women were stated to earn a weekly wage not exceeding 4*s.*; the wages of 17 were stated to vary from 4*s.* to 6*s.*; of 15 from 6*s.* to 8*s.*; of 20 from 8*s.* to 10*s.*; and the wages of nine exceeded 10*s.* The average given in the table was obtained by multiplying 19 by 4, 17 by 5, 15 by 7, 20 by 9, and 9 by 10, adding the totals, and dividing the whole by 80. It may be noted that the minimum wage paid to the best and regular workers was stated to be 9*s.* a week (six days). The rest are on piece work and irregular.
Reports, &c., p. 242	Rag-pickers	Wales	6 0	The wages of rag-pickers were stated to average 1*s.* a day. The figure given in the table has been calculated on the basis of six days' work a week.

[§ 716.] [§ 716.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. *d.*	
Reports, &c., p. 327 - -	Rag-sorting - -	Ireland - -	5 0	Wages were stated to vary from 3*s.* to 7*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Mrs. Hicks, 8336–9, 8353–60; Walker, 10769–70.	Sack-making -	East London -	4 9	1*s.* 7*d.* was stated to be paid for two days' work. On the assumption of a full week's work the weekly wage would therefore be 4*s.* 9*d.* It may be noted, in corroboration of this estimate, that while Mr. Walker stated that sacks which were sewn in London for 1¼*d.* each would be paid ½*d.* in Dundee; the average weekly wage given in the table for Dundee is almost exactly three times the average given for London.
Reports, &c., p. 297 -	Rope-teasing -	Arbroath - -	4 3	In one case the average wage was stated to be 3*s.* 6*d.*; in another to range from 4*s.* to 6*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 5*s.*). The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean between 3*s.* 6*d.* and 5*s.*
Reports, &c., p. 297 -	Rope-teasing and sack-sewing.	Scotland -	3 10	The average wages for rope-teasing and sack-sewing were stated to be 3*s.* 6*d.*, 5*s.*, and 3*s.*. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 297 -	Sack-sewing -	Arbroath -	3 0	

Wages in certain miscellaneou industries.

717. TABLE OF WAGES EARNED BY WOMEN IN MISCELLANEOUS INDUSTRIES, 1891–92.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. *d.*	
Reports, &c., pp. 18–21 -	Laundresses	London - -	15 8	In one steam laundry the wage was estimated as the arithmetic mean between the average wage for ironers, girls in the drying rooms, day and piece workers in the machine room, packers, and washers. In some cases the average was given as such. Where it was said to vary between certain specified limits the arithmetic mean was taken as the average. The average wage of all women employed in this laundry was thus found to be 15*s.* 4*d.* In a second laundry the daily wages were given for washers, ironers, finery ironers and for girls at polishing machines. In one instance the average was given as such. In the others wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken. Weekly wages were given for preparers and packers, and their daily wages were calculated on the basis of six days' work a week. The average daily wage of the workers in this factory was then found to be 2*s.* 9*d.* (*i.e.*, an average weekly wage of 16*s.* 6*d.*). Similarly, the average wage in a third steam laundry, determined from the average given for washers, markers (children), forewomen, girls, beginners, ironers, packers, and others, was found to be 1*s.* 11½*d.* a day (*i.e.*, 11*s.* 9*d.* a week). In another laundry it appeared from the wages book that one woman earned 25*s.*; five an average of 22*s.* 6*d.*; two an average of 19*s.*; 12 an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*; 13 an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*; six an average of 11*s.*; 11 an average of 9*s.*; seven an average of 7*s.*; and six under 6*s.* The total average, determined by the method which has been previously explained, was found to be 12*s.* 8*d.* In another laundry the average daily wages were given for sorters, packers, washers, ironers, shirt ironers, collar ironers, collar machinists, and folders. In some cases beer and tea were allowed in addition. The monetary value of tea has been taken to be 1*s.* 6*d.* a week as before. Where the quantity of beer allowed was not stated, it has been supposed that half a pint (at 2*d.* a pint) is allowed each day. In calculating the wages these allowances have been taken into account. The average daily wage was thus found to be 2*s.* 9½*d.*, or 16*s.* 8*d.* a week on the basis of six days' work. In the last steam laundry, which has been taken into account in determining the average, the daily averages were obtained or given for sorters, packers, washers, ironers, "takers out," the feeders of the machines, the head drier, and finery and shirt ironers. The average of these was found to be 2*s.* 2*d.* a day (*i.e.*, 13*s.* a week on the basis of six days a week). The arithmetic mean of the six different averages in steam laundries was thus found to be 14*s.* 4*d.* a week. Similarly, estimating the monetary value of beer and tea as before stated, the average wages earned in hand laundries were found to be 17*s.* The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of the wages for steam and hand laundries.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 853. Minutes of Evidence, Group C., Miss Mears, 8049, 8099, 8102–3.	Upholsteresses -	London - -	15 0	In the Answers to the Schedules of Questions addressed to the Upholsteresses' Society (West End, Westminster and City) it was stated that the average wage of adults was 15*s.* This was corroborated by a statement given by Miss Mears to the effect that wages average 15*s.* in some houses and 17*s.* 4*d.* in others. The average wage she stated to be 15*s.* It may be noted that the same witness gave 15*s.* as the average wage 10 years ago.
Reports, &c., p. 241 -	Unloading boats (potatoes).	Cardiff - -	14 3	The rates in one case varied from 2*s.* to 3*s.* a day (*i.e.*, mean of 2*s.* 6*d.*). In another case they varied from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* (*i.e.*, mean of 2*s.* 3*d.*). The weekly wage in the table was obtained on the basis of six days' work a week.
Reports, &c., p. 96 - -	India-rubber works.	London -	13 9	For "sundries" 10·2 per cent. earn a wage not exceeding 6*s.*; 5·1 per cent. earn an average of 7*s.* (*i.e.*, 6*s.* to 8*s.*); 10·2 per cent. earn an average of 9*s.*; 20·4 per cent. earn an average of 11*s.*; 27·1 per cent. earn an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*; 15·2 per cent. earn an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*; 11·8 per cent. earn an average of 19*s.* 6*d.* By multiplying 10·2 by 6, 5·1 by 7, &c., adding the results, and dividing the whole by 100, the average wage was found to be 12*s.* 6*d.* For coats, 1·8 per cent. earn wages not exceeding 6*s.*; 9·3 per cent. earn an average of 7*s.*; 13 per cent. earn an average of 9*s.*; 9·3 per cent. earn an average of 11*s.*; 14·8 per cent. earn an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*; 24 per cent. earn an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*; 13 per cent. earn an average of 19*s.* 6*d.*; 7·4 per cent. earn an average of 23*s.* 6*d.*; and the wages of 7·4 per cent. exceed 25*s.* By multiplying 1·8 by 6, 9·3 by 7, &c., adding the results, and dividing the whole by 100, the average wage was found to be 15*s.* The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 12*s.* 6*d.* and 15*s.*

[§ 717.] [§ 717.]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Returns collected. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Reports, &c., pp. 295–6 -	Rubber and vulcanite works.	Scotland - -	12 0	In one case the wages in vulcanite works were stated to vary from 8*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 10*s.*). In another case the average wages were given for pasters and machinists, and for workers in the shoe and packing departments. The mean wage of these four classes was found to be 14*s.* The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 14*s.* and 10*s.* It may be noted in the first case that the wages of men were stated to be 50 per cent. higher than those of women.
Reports, &c., p. 275 - -	Brush-making -	Glasgow - -	11 11	In shop 139 wages were said to vary from 10*s.* to 13*s.*, and 11*s.* 6*d.* has been taken as the average. In the Scottish Co-operative Works, Shieldhall, wages were said to vary from 8*s.* 6*d.* to 20*s.* 6*d.*, and 14*s.* 6*d.* has been taken as the average. A third estimate was determined from 14 different averages given by various workers, which varied from 8*s.* 6*d.* to 18*s.* In some instances they gave the average as such. Where wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, or where the average was given separately for busy and slack times, the arithmetic mean has been taken. This third estimate was thus found to be 9*s.* 11*d.*, and the figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 11*s.* 6*d.*, 14*s.* 6*d.*, and 9*s.* 11*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 35 -	Laundresses -	Bristol - -	11 5	16·6 per cent. of the women were stated to earn a wage not exceeding 8*s.*; 47·6 per cent. earned an average of 10*s.*; 20·2 per cent. an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*; 13·1 per cent. an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*; and the wages of 2·5 per cent. exceeded 18*s.* The average obtained by multiplying 16·6 by 8, 47·6 by 10, &c., adding the results, and dividing by 100, was found to be 11*s.* 5*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 69 - -	Soap factory -	Liverpool -	11 0	It was stated that wages varied from 10*s.* to 12*s.* for "a girl who knew her business." The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 69 -	Box-makers -	„ -	11 0	The wages of average girls was stated to vary from 10*s.* to 12*s.*, and the arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group B., p. 13.	Dock, wharf, and riverside labour.	Bermondsey, Rotherhithe, Deptford, and Wapping.	10 6	The wages of women and girls were stated to range from 3*s.* to 18*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Reports, &c., p. 286 -	Tobacco factories	Scotland - -	10 6	The average for "spreaders" was determined from seven different averages varying from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.*, and was found to be 6*s.* 8*d.* The average for "strippers" (10*s.* 4½*d.*) was determined from eight different averages varying from 9*s.* 6*d.* to 11*s.* 6*d.* The average for "plaiters" and "spinners" (14*s.* 8*d.*) was determined from eight different averages varying from 13*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.* 6*d.* The estimate in the table is the arithmetic mean of 6*s.* 8*d.*, 14*s.* 8*d.*, and 10*s.* 4½*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 58 -	Saddlery and harness.	Walsall - -	10 4	In the first factory 19·2 per cent. earn wages not exceeding 6*s.*; 11·5 per cent. earn an average of 7*s.*; 17·3 per cent. earn an average of 8*s.*; 27 per cent. earn an average of 11*s.*; and the wages of 25 per cent. were between 12*s.* and 18*s.* By multiplying 19·2 by 6, 11·5 by 7, &c., adding the results, and dividing by 100, the average was found to be 10*s.* 2*d.* In a second factory 9·5 per cent. earn wages not exceeding 6*s.*; 14·6 per cent. earn an average of 7*s.*; 19 per cent. earn an average of 9*s.*; 33 per cent. earn an average of 11*s.*; and 23·9 per cent. earn an average of 15*s.* By multiplying 9·5 by 6, 14·6 by 7, &c., adding the results, and dividing by 100, the average was found to be 10*s.* 6*d.* The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean between 10*s.* 2*d.* and 10*s.* 6*d.*
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., pp. 856–7.	Laundresses -	Kensal Green, Hackney, Wandsworth and Battersea, Marylebone, North and South Fulham.	9 10	This is the arithmetic mean of the averages given for ironers, washers, folders, sorters, and packers. The averages were stated to vary between certain limits, and the arithmetic mean was in each case taken. In the case of folders the daily wage was given, and the weekly wage was calculated on the basis of six days' work.
Reports, &c., p. 63 -	Potteries -	Staffordshire -	9 6	16·3 per cent. earn under 6*s.*; 15·9 per cent. earn an average of 7*s.*; 25·2 per cent. earn an average of 9*s.*; 28·3 per cent. earn an average of 11*s.*; 10·2 per cent. earn an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*; 2·7 per cent. earn an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*; 1·4 per cent. earn 18*s.* and upwards. By multiplying 16·3 by 6, 15·9 by 7, &c., adding the results, and dividing by 100, the average was found to be 9*s.* 6*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 281 -	Pipe factories and potteries.	Scotland -	9 4	In the pipe factories wages were in one instance said to vary from 7*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 9*s.* 6*d.*), and in another case to average 8*s.*, full time. In two cases "household cleaning" was said to receive wages varying from 5*s.* to 8*s.*; in another case wages were said to range from 4*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* Piece-workers on "monkey and jolly machines" average 11*s.* In the dressing department of pottery work the average is 8*s.*; in the transferring department, 12*s.* or 12*s.* 6*d.*; in the decorative department, 12*s.* 8*d.*; in the clay department, 8*s.* 6*d.*; for kneading clay and turning lathes for the men, 10*s.* 4*d.*; and other women were stated to earn an average of 9*s.* The mean of all these different rates was found to be 9*s.* 4*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 239 -	Steam laundries and dyeworks.	Wales - -	9 2	Sixty-three women earn a wage not exceeding 8*s.*; 71 earn wages varying from 8*s.* to 10*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 9*s.*); 44 earn wages varying from 10*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*); and two earn wages varying from 12*s.* to 20*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 16*s.*). By multiplying 63 by 8, 71 by 9, &c., and dividing the whole by 180, the average was found to be 9*s.* 2*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 68 -	Cigar and tobacco factories.	Liverpool -	8 9	38·8 per cent. earn under 6*s.*; 19 per cent. an average of 7*s.*; 15·1 per cent. an average of 9*s.*; 13·5 per cent. an average of 11*s.*; 7·1 per cent. an average of 13*s.* 6*d.*; 3·3 per cent. an average of 16*s.* 6*d.*; 2 per cent. an average of 19*s.* 6*d.*; 1·2 per cent. an average of 28*s.* 6*d.* By the ordinary method the average was calculated to be 8*s.* 9*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 241 -	Tobacco, pipe, and fuse factories.	Wales - -	7 7	160 women earn wages not exceeding 7*s.*; 60 earn an average wage of 7*s.* 6*d.*; 52 earn an average wage of 9*s.*; and six earn wages exceeding 10*s.* By multiplying 160 by 7, 60 by 7½, &c., adding the results, and dividing by 278, the average wage was found to be 7*s.* 5*d.*
Reports, &c., p. 327 -	Potteries - -	Ireland - -	7 6	Wages were said to vary from 3*s.* to 12*s.* The arithmetic mean has been taken.
Answers to Schedules of Questions, Group C., p. 67.	Cocoa fibre matmakers.	England -	7 0	

[§ 718.] Wages in the so-called "sweated" trades.

718. TABLE OF WAGES OF WOMEN, OBTAINED FROM REPORTS OF THE SELECT COMMITTEE OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS ON THE SWEATING SYSTEM. [§ 718.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Statements of Wages made. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Burnett, statement in Report to Board of Trade on Sweating System at East End of London. Moses. 8648-9, 8653. 8830, 8847-8. 8911-2.	Button-hole workers.	London - -	22 6	In Mr. Burnett's report he stated that he was informed that button-holers in Mr. Moses's shop earned as a rule 3s. 6d. a day, and on very good days 4s. Mr. Moses stated that his button-holers earned from 3s. 6d. to 5s. a day, and on an average 3s. 9d., after deducting for sewing materials. The weekly average has been estimated on the basis of six days' work a week.
Fourth Report. Platt, 31,112-3, 31,116-8, 31,121-2; Gaddis, 31,155-82, 31,186-92, 31,214-6.	Waterproof trade	Manchester -	19 7	Girls and women employed by the middlemen (Jews), earn by piece-work during the six months of the busy season from 18s. to 20s. a week (that is, an average of 19s.). Miss Gaddis stated that at present (in the busy season), she earns by piece-work from 17s. to 23s. or 24s. a week (*i.e.*, an average of 20s. 3d.). The arithmetic mean of these averages is given in this table.
First and Second Reports. G. D. Ramsay, C.B.; 10,860-1, 10,872-4, 10,877-9, 11,068-71, 11,133-5, 11,190-2, 11,213-22.	Government contracts. (Army and Militia clothing).	Pimlico factory	19 2	The average weekly wage (including holidays) of indoor piece-workers for the year ending March, 1888, was 22s. 11¾d. for machinists, and 14s. 3d. for sewers. For the week ending November 7th, 1888, it was 24s. 3d. for the first class, and 15s. 3d. for the second class. The estimate given in the table was the arithmetic mean of the averages similarly obtained for machinists and sewers separately.
Fourth Report. Oppenheim, 29,230-43, 29,255-6; Burman, 29,471, 29,476-86.	Tailoring - -	Manchester -	18 7	Wages of machinists in one case were said to vary from 15s. (for sleeve-making) to 42s. (*i.e.*, an average of 28s. 6d.). The lowest wage paid by Mr. Burman to fellers was 10s. a week not working full time, and up to 22s. when working a full week. The arithmetic mean has been taken as the average (*i.e.*, 16s.). One witness, who worked with her sister and a stranger upon piece-work for a middleman, stated that they shared their earnings, which in the busy times amounted to as much as 50s. and 55s. per week. Her own share of this was 25s., she was the quickest worker of the three. In the slack time she had from 6s. to 10s. a week for herself. Calculating therefore upon the ratio of witness's earnings to the aggregate earnings of the three women, the earnings in slack times would be 16s. 9½d.; the average given is therefore the mean of 16s. 9½d. and 52s. 6d. divided by 3 (*i.e.*, 11s. 6d.). The final estimate given in this table is the arithmetic mean of 28s. 6d., 16s., and 11s. 6d.
Fourth Report. Mitchinson, 29,947-8, 29,953-62, 29,969-72; Sweeney, 30,213, 30,234, 30,244-7; Joseph, 30,626-30; Denton, 30,703-6.	„ - -	Leeds - -	17 10	This estimate refers to fellers, machinists, and finishers. In three instances the daily averages only were given, and the weekly averages have been calculated on the basis of six days' work a week. One witness (a feller) earned from 14s. to 16s. a week all the year round; she worked on piece-work for a middleman. These wages she considered to be about the same as those earned by other women on "order" work, the best paid class of work. There were however, many who could not earn as much. The arithmetic mean has been taken as the average. Mr. Joseph stated that the average wages of machinists varied from 15s. to 32s. all the year round. The arithmetic mean has been taken (*i.e.*, 23s. 6d.). Mr. Denton stated that the last weekly average for machinists in his firm was 21s. 8d. The actual last weekly average for finishers was 24s. 2d., but in some cases the finishers paid away 5s. a week to girls under them. The average net wages after paying for sewings, &c., were 21s. Mr. Sweeney gave the average daily wages of machinists, fellers, and finishers as 3s. 6d., 1s. 6d., and 2s. 3d. respectively. The average is in each case the arithmetic mean of the maximum and minimum rate given. The final estimate is the arithmetic mean of the seven weekly averages thus obtained.
Fourth Report. Goodman, 27,680-2, 27,699, 27,720-1, 27,724-5; Block, 27,850, 27,855-9, 27,870-4, 27,877-81, 27,885-96; Balsam, 27,991-5, 28,003-12; Bernstein, 28,055-64.	„ - -	Liverpool -	17 1	The estimate given is determined from seven different averages, four of which were daily (and varied from 1s. 3d. to 4s. 3d.), and the remainder weekly (and varied from 16s. 6d. to 30s.). The averages referred to machinists, button-holers and binders, and fellers. The daily average for machinists was obtained by taking the arithmetic mean of specified averages, which were based upon the investigations of Mr. Goodman and another member of the Liverpool Operative Tailors' Society, who were appointed to enquire into sweating and to report to the branch committee. Where the weekly averages were given, they have been taken to be the arithmetic mean of the highest and lowest rates given multiplied by 4½, since it was stated that in very many cases the master-sweater does not, except in the busiest season, employ his hands on Mondays and Tuesdays. It has therefore been assumed, that on an average, the women work 4½ days a week.
Appendix H., Minutes of Evidence given before the House of Lords Committee on the Sweating System, Vol. II. Burnett, 17,242.	„ -	London - -	15 0	This estimate includes the averages obtained for basters, button-hole workers, fellers, machinists, assistants (girls) and apprentices in the tailoring trade, and for machinists and trouser-makers in the trouser-making trade. In some instances both piece and time wages were given in the Appendix, and the arithmetic mean was taken. Where different time wages were given, the arithmetic mean was again taken. In each case the arithmetic mean was also taken between the average given by Mr. Burnett and that obtained from Appendix H. It may be noted that the averages given by Mr. Burnett were obtained from schedules distributed and corrected and in part filled up after personal communication with employers by the Labour Correspondent of the Board of Trade. The mean given in this table was the arithmetic mean of the averages finally obtained for the different classes of labour specified.
Fourth Report. Abrahams, 27,180, 27,186, 27,196-212; Rosenberg, 27,414-8, 27,421, 27,442, 27,461-3, 27,522-6.	„ -	Birmingham -	14 5	In one case wages were stated to vary from 12s. to 20s., and the arithmetic mean has been taken. Apprentices in about two years can earn as much as 12s. a week. The second estimate obtained (12s. 11d.) is the arithmetic mean of the average of the highest and lowest earnings during four weeks of each hand in the witness's employ. The earnings were as follows:—

	Lowest.	Highest.
Machinists:	s. d.	s. d.
Coat	8 10	25 1
Trouser	5 1	23 7
Vest	9 0	22 6
Juvenile coat	7 2	20 8
Juvenile knickers	10 3	14 10
Finishers:		
Coat	6 8	15 11
Trouser	3 6½	21 6
Juvenile vest and coat	6 1	17 0
Juvenile knickers	5 1	10 4

[§ 718.] [§ 718.]

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Statements of Wages made. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Fourth Report. Abrahams, &c.—*cont.*	- - -	- - -	—	The trouser-finisher hand, earning 21*s.* 6*d.* a week, paid a learner 4*s.* a week. This, however, has not been taken into account in calculating the mean, since the witness states that "Virtually "speaking, we engage them for three months for nothing, but "invariably we find that these machinists, out of their own "generosity, give them 1*s.* to 3*s.* a week as they advance." The witness also stated that it was exceptional for the earnings to be so small as the lowest rates given, and that the earnings of the finishers were attributable to the necessary absence of machinery, and therefore to comparative slowness in the rate of working. The arithmetic mean between 16*s.* and 12*s.* 11*d.* has been taken.
Fourth Report. Letham, 25,828-32, 25,835-7; Carey, 25,879-93; Samuel, 25,984-99; Pinto, 26,085-7, 26,095, 26,099-108; Sedgwick, 26,452.	Tailoring - -	Glasgow -	13 9	This figure refers to practical sewers, button-holers, machinists, fellers, basters, sewing-women, and tailoresses. It is the arithmetic mean of nine different averages varying from 8*s.* 6*d.* to 20*s.* a week, and 5*s.* a day. In some instances the average was given as such, where wages were said to range between certain specified limits, the arithmetic mean has been taken. Weekly wages were obtained from the daily wages on the assumption that six days' work was done in one week. Where, however, the number of days worked on an average was given, the weekly wage was determined from the given data. It may be noted that Mr. Pinto stated that the increase in wages since 1880 was attributable to the greater demand for skilled labour, especially in the ready-made trade.
First Report. Rev. J. Munro, 1378, 1385-7, 1394, 1411; Walker, 31,529-32.	Tailoresses	Working Women's Co-operative Association.	13 0	The Association pays machinists 16*s.* to 18*s.* a week (*i.e.*, an average of 17*s.*), basters 12*s.*, women pressers 12*s.*, and finishers 10*s.* to 12*s.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*s.*). The indoor women have their "trimmings" provided for them; the sewing machines are also let on much easier terms than by the dealers. It was stated that these prices are 25 per cent. more than those paid by the sweaters.
Fourth Report. Shannon, 26,887-9, 26,893-5, 26,897-915, 26,942; Davis, 27,327-9, 27,344, 27,348.	Tailoring - -	Walsall - -	12 7	The net average wages of 2 machinists for three years were given as follows:— 1886 - (No. 1) 12*s.* 5*d.* (No. 2) 10*s.* 9*d.* (Average) 11*s.* 7*d.* 1887 - (No. 1) 16*s.* 0*d.* (No. 2) 13*s.* 4½*d.* (Average) 14*s.* 8½*d.* 1888 - (No. 1) 17*s.* 8½*d.* (No. 2) 14*s.* 8½*d.* (Average) 16*s.* 2½*d.* Some averaged higher than this. The women found their own trimmings. The wage has been taken to be the mean of 11*s.* 7*d.* 14*s.* 8½*d.*, and 16*s.* 2½*d.* (*i.e.*, 14*s.* 2*d.*). The amount of deductions depends upon the class of work. It may be noted that when machinists have learners under them, they have to pay, out of their wage, a wage to the learner in proportion to their own earnings. Mr. Davis stated that wages in the tailoring trade varied from 6*s.* (not including learners) to 16*s.* The figure given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 14*s.* 2*d.* and 11*s.*
Fourth Report. Smith, 26,811-6, 26,838-42, 26,850.	„ - -	Dudley - -	12 6	Last weekly average (for indoor work) of 48 girls who are employed at one of the firm's branch factories, and who do the smaller work—boys' suits and trousers.
Fourth Report. Gall, 28,455-61, 28,487-8; Freeman, 28,635-8, 28,646, 28,661-3; Ososki, 28,697-712.	„ - -	Sheffield - -	12 0	Mr. Gall stated that the wages of machinists varied from 10*s.* to 18*s.* (*i.e.*, a mean of 14*s.*). Wages paid by Mr. Freeman to the four women employed by him were as follows:—14*s.*, 10*s.*, 9*s.*, 7*s.*, and witness considered this wage the average wage of women who had been with him for three years. Finally Mr. Ososki stated that the rates paid to the women in his employ were 20*s.*, 13*s.*, 12*s.*, 10*s.*, 9*s.*, 8*s.*, 5*s.*, 4*s.*, and 3*s.* 6*d.* The last three rates were the wages paid to learners. In calculating the mean (*i.e.*, 12*s.*), these rates have therefore been omitted. The figure given in this table is the arithmetic mean of the three estimates, viz., 14*s.*, 10*s.*, and 12*s.*
Third Report. Booth, 23,468, 23,472-3; Tomlin, 24,099-104; Woodcock, 24,302-16, 24,319; Leckie, 24,428-31, 24,436-43, 24,453 Mason, 24,542.	Military harness and accoutrements industry.	- - -	9 10	This was determined from nine different averages, varying from 5*s.* 4½*d.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* In some instances the average was given as such, but, generally speaking, wages were said to vary between certain specified limits, and the arithmetic mean was taken.
First Report. Rev. J. Munro, 1373, 1385-7, 1394, 1411; Walker, 31,529-82.	Shirt trade - -	Working Women's Co-operative Association.	8 0	The earnings of finishers in the shirt trade amount to about 1*s.* 1*d.* and 1*s.* 7½*d.* a day (*i.e.*, an average of about 1*s.* 4*d.*). On the assumption of six days' work a week, the weekly wage would amount to 8*s.*
First Report. Rev. W. Adamson, 2580, 2684; Simmons, 56364-3, 5669-72.	Dress trimming industry.	- - -	7 9	Rev. W. Adamson stated that the daily wages were said to vary from 8*d.* to 1*s.* 2*d.* (*i.e.*, an average of 11*d.*), or a weekly average, on the assumption of six days' work a week, of 5*s.* 6*d.* The average earnings of a good hand throughout the year were estimated by Mr. Simmons at 10*s.* Besides this, a woman can make more by taking work home. The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean of 5*s.* 6*d.* and 10*s.*
Third Report. Juggins, 17,861, 17,870, 18,096-104; Rev. H. Rylett, 18,504. Addleton, 18,785-7, 18,808; Parish, 18,831-7, 18,843-5; Wright, 18,925-8, 18,930-1, 18,950-2; Tibbetts, 19,055-7, 19,066-74; Parsons, 19,180, 19,182, 19,193-4, 19,199-203, 19,243-6, 19,252-5; Green, 21,117 (*see* Appendix F.), 21,150; Hoare, 23,128-30, 23,086; Walker, 21,288-90; Bassano, 22,808-12; Green, 21,151.	Chainmaking industry.	- - -	6 8	This was determined from 14 different averages varying from 3*s.* 8*d.* to 11*s.* 8*d.* Generally speaking, to determine these separate averages, the arithmetic mean was taken between the maximum and minimum rates specified. Where the gross wage was given, the net wages were determined by deducting the amount due to firing cartage, stall, repairing tools, &c.
First Report. Casey, 1620-31, 1649-51; Liddle, 1671-88; Attewell, 1692, 1708-13, 1725.	Shirt trade - -	- - -	5 7	This wage has not taken into account the cost of hiring a machine. In one instance, the witness (making plain run-ups) earned 1*s.* 2*d.* a day, being paid at the rate of 4*d.* a dozen. She pays about 1*s.* to 1*s.* 3*d.* a week for cotton, &c., and has 7*s.* left. Some women earn more than she does. Another witness gave her gross weekly earnings as varying from 5*s.* to 7*s.*, out of which (excluding the machine) she had to pay 9*d.* for trimmings. The net earnings of another witness were 4*s.* 6*d.* If she can earn 5*s.* it costs her 6*d.* for cotton, if 7*s.* 6*d.*, 9*d.*

[§ 718.] [§ 718.

Reference.	Class of Work.	District.	Mean of Statements of Wages made. (Weekly Wages.)	REMARKS.
			s. d.	
Third Report. Hackett, 20,283-314; Brettle, 20,500, 20,511-9; Green, 20,994 (Appendix F.); Reay, 21,410-2; Spany, 21,520, 21,525, 21,527, 21,541; Cole, 22,090-3, Hoare, 23,089-92; Cox, 20,471-2; Smith, 20,590-1.	Nail trade - -	- - -	5 6	This wage is determined from 10 different averages varying from 3s. 6d. to 11s. 9d. Deductions for "breeze," "carriage," &c., have in all cases been taken into account. The averages include those earned at common nailmaking, hurdle or gate nailmaking, spike nail making, &c.
Third Report. Juggins, 20,712-5, 20,757.	Gun-lock filing -	Darlaston - -	5 0	5s. a week was stated to be the net earnings of good workers. 2s. for tools, files, pins, and shop rent deducted. Only three or four women are employed in this trade, but they are paid at the same price as the men.
First Report. Rev. W. Adamson, 2568, 2593-9, 2623.	Matchbox making trade.	- - -	4 6	The matchbox firms employ a certain number of people, and these sublet the work to women who make the boxes at 1½d. and 1¾d. a gross, finding their own paste. A woman, if she works all day long, day after day, and employs her children when they are away from school will be able to earn from 4s. to 4s. 6d. and sometimes 5s. a week. The arithmetic mean has been taken.
First Report. Reubenson, 5282-3, 5292; Lakeman, 16,675.	Fur-making trade	- -	4 4	One large firm in Commercial Street, employing 100 hands, male and female, pays from 2s. 6d. to 5s. a week to the females, who work sometimes from 7 a.m. to 12 p.m., and perhaps all night on Thursdays. Mr. Lakeman stated that 5s. a week is paid to the women for 12 hours work a day. The estimate given in the table is the arithmetic mean between 5s. and 3s. 9d., (*i.e.*, 4s. 4d.).
	Mean of estimates given above	-	s. d.* 12 0	This is obtained by finding the arithmetic mean of the above estimates.

* For further information with regard to this table *see* footnote (1) to page 477, *supra*.

2. HOURS.

STATEMENT OF HOURS.

Difficulty of subject.

719. Many difficulties peculiar to the employment of women combine to make a tabular statement of the hours of labour impossible. A consideration of the various returns furnished to the Commission showed that to draw the hard-and-fast line necessary for any tabular statement would be misleading. In the first place, there are two large classes respecting which little or no information has been obtained. These are domestic servants and women employed in home industries. For obvious reasons it is quite impossible to gauge the hours of labour of domestic servants. With regard to the second class, one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners writes, that "the difficulty of "estimating the hours worked by home workers is "insuperable."(1) Even when the nominal hours of work are stated, many deductions must be made for the numerous interruptions to which women, especially when married, are subject in their own homes. Most of the statements on this head were too vague for insertion in a table. In the case of those industries which are regulated by the Factory Acts, a further difficulty arises. Many statements, especially in the written evidence, are of a very indefinite character, and do not mention whether the hours given are inclusive or exclusive of meal times. The intervals allowed for meals also vary in different cases to such an extent that, even when it is clear that the hours given must include meal times, as otherwise the Factory Acts would be habitually infringed, it is impossible to ascertain the length of time that must be deducted. In the Answers to the Schedules of Questions, it frequently happens that where men and women are working together at the same or different employments, one statement of hours alone is given, whereas in many cases it is improbable that they are employed for the same length of time. Some of the evidence, moreover, collected by the Lady Sub-Commissioners referred to a state of things which existed some years ago. Again, sometimes the daily and in other cases the weekly average is given, and a comparison of the various returns is thus made still more difficult. This is especially remarkable with regard to the information collected by the Lady Sub-Commissioners as to the hours worked by laundresses in the neighbourhood of London and in Wales. The weekly average rarely exceeds the limits allowed by law in non-textile factories, but, as laundries are often not worked more than four or five days in the week, the daily average generally exceeds these limits. A further difficulty is raised by the conflicting statements of various witnesses, both employers and employed. The hours of labour in many industries also vary considerably in different parts of the country, owing to local causes. In several cases the information obtained is far from being representative, but relates to only one or two localities; consequently the average throughout the whole industry cannot be ascertained. Many of the trades in which women are employed are also largely seasonal, and the statements given thus apply to only part of the year, while the slack periods in different industries vary to a very great extent. For the reasons given above, it appears impossible to attempt anything beyond a very general statement as to the hours usually worked in industries in which women are employed.

(1) p. 37.

Daily and weekly average.

720. The hours of labour for women and girls employed above ground in connection with collieries are restricted by the Coal Mines Regulation Act of 1887 to 10 a day or 54 a week. At Blantyre the hours are eight for five days in the week, exclusive of meal times.(1) All other industries in which women are engaged to any great extent may be classed under two heads: those which are regulated by the Factory and Workshop Acts, and those which are not so regulated. The first group includes the subdivisions of textile and non-textile factories, where mechanical power is used, and workshops, where it is not used. Under the second head the numerous class of shop assistants, waitresses, laundresses, and all persons engaged in home industries are grouped, whose labour is not yet protected by legislation.

(a.) Industries under Factory Acts.

(i.) Textile factories.

(*a.*) The hours of labour in textile factories must not exceed 10 a day or 56½ a week, exclusive of meal-times. It appears from the information furnished to the Commission and to the Lady Sub-Commissioners that, with a few exceptions, the full hours allowed by the Factory Acts are worked in the manufacture of cotton, wool, silk, linen, flax, jute, and hemp. In Coventry the standard hours for throwers and preparers in the silk trade are only 46½.(2) A nine-and-a-half hours' day has been instituted in a linen factory at Dunfermline. The general opinion of both employers and employed with regard to the new system was expressed by one worker: "it's fine i' the noo, if it only lasts."(3) In the hosiery trade the average hours worked appeared to be rather below those allowed by the Factory Acts; one return mentions a day of eight hours.(4) Work may be legally carried on for 10½ hours a day or 60 a week in non-textile factories and workshops, but in most cases, as with the textile industries, it appears that the full legal time is not actually worked. A close examination of the numerous returns furnished to the Commission and the Lady Sub-Commissioners leads to the conclusion that in many establishments the normal working day is even shorter than that fixed for textile factories. "In hardly a single case in my inquiries," writes one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, "have I "come across one in which over 55 hours are worked, "50 to 54 hours being the rule."(5) The standard hours for tailoresses, corset, boot and shoe makers, upholstresses, bedstead-makers, tobacco-workers, and women employed

(ii.) Non-textile factories and workshops.

(1) p. 186. (2) p. 136. (3) p. 188. (4) Group C., Digest, Vol. II., p. 16; Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 49, 50. (5) p. 85.

[§ 720(a).] in confectionery and dye-works appear to be less than 56, generally speaking. About 54 hours are the average in the printing trades. The hours of paper-makers, hat-makers, and rope-makers range for the most part between 56 and 60. In pottery and brick-making the hours of actual labour vary from 8 to 10½ a day. Lead workers are employed nine hours a day.(1) Women and girls engaged in chain and nail making rarely work in factories, but usually in small domestic workshops. Unless they are working only with the members of their own family, their labour is restricted by the Factory and Workshop Acts. A large number, however, work in their own homes, and are thus to a great extent outside the scope of these Acts, which in the case of domestic workshops only apply to children and girls under 18.(2)

(b.) *Industries not under Factory Acts.* (i.) *Shops and restaurants.*

(b.) With the exception of the Shops Hours' Act, which only applies to girls under 18, the employment of shop assistants and barmaids is not legally restricted in any way. This Act limits the hours of labour of young persons to 74 a week, including meal-times. The hours worked by shop assistants vary to an enormous extent in different establishments and localities. The secretary of the National Union of Shop Assistants, which includes both men and women, stated that the average in retail shops throughout the country was from 80 to 84 a week. This statement was subsequently denied by another witness; and it would appear to be hardly borne out as far as women are concerned by the evidence collected by the Lady Sub-Commissioners on the subject. The principal shops in large towns generally work far shorter hours, but "the further you get away from the "centre of the city the smaller the shops will be, and the "longer the hours will be."(3) In Wales, which was called "the best part of the kingdom with regard to "closing," the average is 54, exclusive of meal-times, while in Scotland 65 hours were said to be the minimum. (4) It is exceedingly difficult to ascertain the average hours worked by barmaids and waitresses in restaurants, but in most cases they apparently range between 60 and 80 a week, after the time allowed for meals, dressing, and rest has been deducted. It appears from evidence collected by the Lady Sub-Commissioners, that "most of the "contractors are aiming at a standard of 10 hours a day, "and something less on Sunday." In temperance refreshment rooms the hours per week are generally shorter, as there is no Sunday work. The Aërated Bread Company is attempting to reduce the hours of the waitresses to 56, including meal-times, and the Cork Refreshment Company has a uniform standard of 58 hours, including meals. It is stated that those working more than 60 hours in these rooms are generally older women who superintend the girls. In a few cases the hours worked in the Aërated Bread Company's depôts are as low as 46½.(5) Neither steam nor hand laundries are regulated by any legal restrictions with regard to hours. It appeared from the information collected by the Lady Sub-Commissioners, as regards the laundries visited in England, Wales, and Ireland, that the normal hours worked per week do not, as a rule, exceed those allowed by the Factory Acts. But laundries are rarely worked six days in the week, and it was found that in almost all those cases the hours worked per day were in excess of the limit established by law in protected industries.(6) On the other hand it would seem, from a report recently published by the Council of the Women's Protective and Provident League of Glasgow, that the laundries in Glasgow are usually worked six days a week, and that the total number of weekly hours is in most cases very much in excess of 60. It is impossible to make an even approximate statement of the hours of home workers, as has already been shown, owing to the numerous interruptions to which they are liable, and the difficulty of obtaining reliable information.

(ii.) *Laundries.*

(iii.) *Home industries.*

GRIEVANCES CONNECTED WITH HOURS.

Excessive hours of women not under Factory Acts.

721. From the general statements given above, it is clear that there is a marked distinction between the average hours worked in industries regulated by the Factory Acts and those worked in other employments. For example, it appears from the information obtained that the hours of shop assistants have, generally speaking, been reduced in recent years, but in spite of this they have been shown to be far in excess of the limits set by the Factory Acts. Individual instances were brought under the notice of the Lady Sub-Commissioners of waitresses in restaurants working 90 and 93 hours per week, and "it was further stated by "the secretary of the Shopkeepers' and Assistants' Union, "that in restaurants where smoking concerts and public "suppers are held the hours may rise during some weeks "to 96, 99, and 102 in the winter season." The Union recently investigated a case where a girl under 18 worked 110 hours in seven days in a confectioner's shop.(1) Laundresses, also, in many cases work excessive hours, and, could the hours of home-workers be ascertained, they would probably be found in many cases to be in excess of any of those above mentioned. Several circumstances contribute towards the excessive hours worked in these industries. One cause is the general absence of organisation among women. This question is further dealt with below under the head of "Organisations." Another cause is the enormous amount of competition in most industries where women are largely employed. The consideration that their place will be immediately supplied by another makes the women afraid to complain of excessive hours. The working of overtime, again, is largely due both to the absence of organisation and to the low rate of wages prevalent in most trades where only women are engaged; thus the workers are glad to earn all they can by working excessively long hours. In many industries, also, times of great pressure are often followed by periods of depression and scarcity of employment, so that overtime in busy seasons is a matter of necessity, in order to gain a living. This last cause is especially apparent in the case of home-work, called by one witness "slavery in summer "and starvation in winter." The president of the Luton Chamber of Commerce stated that straw-hat makers sometimes worked from 4 a.m. until midnight.(2) Many other instances of excessive hours worked by women in the employment of sweaters and middlemen might be cited. In the written Answers to the Schedules of Questions, the Tailoresses' Trade Union states that the hours for out-workers and sweaters are from 12 to 18 in the season.(3) In the evidence taken before the Select Committee on the Sweating System, many cases of very long hours worked by women in their own homes were brought forward; for example, a trouser-finisher in the East End said that she worked from 6 a.m. until 8 p.m. (4) [§ 721.]

Overtime. (i.) *Legal.*

722. Overtime until 10 p.m. for not more than 48 days in the year is permitted by law in some non-textile factories and workshops, on due notice being given. Dressmakers, milliners, and others engaged in the manufacture of articles of wearing apparel are the classes which chiefly avail themselves of this permission. The workers do not always appear to object to working overtime when it is really necessary. A striking illustration of this submission to the inevitable was afforded by one girl, who, speaking very warmly in favour of her employers, said that, "it was "quite true that they worked them overtime in the season, "but they were compelled to do so by the Factory Act."(5) But numerous complaints of illegal overtime were made. In textile factories no overtime is allowed by the Acts, but it is stated that in the cotton industry the system of "cribbing" time, *i.e.*, beginning a few minutes before and ending a few minutes after the fixed hours, is practised to such an extent that "when it comes to be put together it "comes to fully 2½ per cent. upon the total number of "hours."(6) The Yorkshire woollen weavers are said to sometimes work two hours' overtime.(7) It was stated before the Commission that in a rope factory in the East End, overtime was worked "a short time ago" until 10.30 p.m.(8) The worst complaints of overtime, however, refer to workshops, especially those where wearing apparel is manufactured. Overtime on the short day is said by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners to be "almost the rule in "dressmakers' workshops."(9) H.M. Inspector for Devon and Cornwall estimated that nine-tenths of the complaints with regard to overtime came from dress, millinery, and mantle-making establishments. He added that before a naval ball in Plymouth every establishment in the town worked overtime. One girl, who was receiving 4*s.* 6*d.* a week as an apprentice, with 1*d.* an hour for overtime, was kept at work until 10.30 p.m., thus spending 12½ hours in actual work, after meal-times had been deducted.(10) Numerous other instances might be given of illegal overtime worked by women and girls in almost all industries. The moral, physical, and mental evils caused by this practice of overtime were dwelt upon by the witnesses, almost without exception, and cannot be exaggerated. This question is further dealt with below under other headings. A further grievance is that even when the hours allowed by the Acts are not exceeded, work is continued through the time nominally set apart for meals. It was stated that "it is quite common for a

(ii.) *Illega*

(1) Group C., Digest, Vol. III., p. 22. (2) Group A., Digest, Vol. II., p. 55. (3) Group C., Digest, Vol. III., p. 90; Minutes, Vol. III., Johnson, 30,753; Langford, 32,775. (4) Group C., Digest, Vol. III., p. 90; Minutes, Vol. III., Milligan, 30,938. (5) p. 201, 203. (6) pp. 17, 19, 246, 248.

(1) pp. 286, 311. (2) pp. 30, 273. (3) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 854. (4) Report, Sweating System, Killick, 1530. (5) p. 13. (6) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 11; Minutes, Vol. I., Birtwistle, 1296. (7) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 19. (8) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Hicks, 8213. (9) p. 89. (10) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 39; Minutes, Bignold, 10,145–7.

[§ 722.] "woman to be working through the meal hours" at Dundee.(1) Complaints are made that the Glasgow cotton weavers working by the piece sometimes take advantage of the dinner hour to "pick" the cloth or clean their looms. The workers maintain that they are obliged to do this, as they are not allowed to stop the looms during working hours. It is also urged that, owing to the low rate of wages, they cannot afford to lose any of their working time in cleaning and "picking," but that extra time and pay should be allowed, or that "loom service" should be supplied by the employer, as at Dunfermline, and as is the case in America. In this respect, also, dressmakers and milliners appear to be the worst offenders, and the provision that, when overtime is worked, half an hour shall be allowed for supper time is constantly evaded.( ) It is stated, however, that in some cases this practice is preferred by the workers. In some large tin-works in Wales, where there are no proper arrangements for meals, the girls prefer to work "through the dinner-hour, so as to get "home early in the afternoon."(2)

(iii.) *Work taken home to finish.*

In the tailoring trade it appears that direct breaches of the Acts are not frequent, but, on the other hand, there is "abundant testimony "pointing to the almost universal evasion of the benefit of "the Act through the custom of women taking work "home to finish after shop hours." Out of twenty shops in Glasgow about which information was collected, this custom prevailed in all but three, and one witness believed "overtime in shops was now stopped, or nearly so, but the "girls took the work home instead," adding that she "never knew of a shop that did not give work home to "finish." It seems, however, that this practice is often allowed by the employers rather than insisted upon. Thus, although in some cases the women are "obliged" to take work home, in others they declare that they are "glad to "get it," owing to the low rate of wages, and the long slack seasons in this trade. An employer in Wales thought, too, that they were "jealous of out-workers getting it," and another employer, while admitting that work was taken home from his shop, said that he "strongly dis-"couraged" the practice. In the umbrella trade it is stated to be customary for girls to "take work home during the "busy season, and to sit up half the night over it."(3)

(iv.) *Overtime not paid for.*

An additional grievance with regard to overtime was mentioned by several witnesses, who complained that they were obliged to work overtime either without being paid for it at all or for a very low rate of payment. One witness, a dressmaker, stated that she "worked overtime three nights "a week in the season, and received no pay for it, during "the slack time she was obliged to take one or two days' "holiday a week without pay." Another said that she received no pay for overtime unless she asked for it, which she disliked doing, adding that "occasionally, after work-"ing overtime, the employées were told not to come next "morning, and the half morning's pay was deducted."(4)

Grievances in connection with holidays.

723. Holidays form a subject of complaint in many cases. The Factory Acts require that in addition to the Saturday half-holiday, Christmas Day, and Good Friday, eight half-holidays or four whole holidays shall be granted in the year. Infringements of the law with regard to the Saturday half-holiday have been shown to be not infrequent, especially in the clothing trades. Shop assistants, although not under the Acts, are generally allowed an evening off once in a week, except in small shops, where only one or two persons are employed, but they complain that the so-called half-holiday is often much curtailed by putting away goods, and tidying the shop after the nominal closing time.(5) The extra holidays allowed vary greatly in different industries and different localities. A week's holiday, with pay, appears to be usual for barmaids, waitresses, and shop assistants in the North of England and in Scotland. It is stated that London shop assistants have a fortnight, with pay, in most cases. Shop assistants in Ireland usually have the bank holidays and a fortnight in summer, in addition to several religious festivals. This was stated to be a reason for the low rate of wages prevalent in the South of Ireland. Pay is allowed after a specified term of service; in one shop a month's holiday is given, but a fortnight's salary is granted only after 10 years' service.(7) From four to seven days, with pay, are allowed by some establishments in the printing, tobacco, and clothing trades. The written evidence of the Dressmakers', Milliners', and Mantle-makers' Society mentions a firm which "stands out as an example to the "West End firms in general. It pays for all bank "holidays and summer holidays, not less than two weeks "to all assistants." But, generally speaking, no pay is allowed for holidays in most industries, except to the forewomen, and bitter complaints are made on this score. The Society of Women employed in the Upholstery Trade

(1) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 33; Minutes, Reid, 11,223. (2) pp. 13, 89, 175. (3) p. 288. (4) pp. 237, 271, 277. (5) p. 13. (6) p. 4. *Cf.*, p. 311. (7) pp. 87, 205, 322.

[§ 723.] states in the written evidence that "a few shops give the "bank holidays, but only in nine cases out of ten; the "women lose their time although the shop is closed."(1) Various customs, however, prevail in different parts of the country. The manager of a large textile factory in Wales stated that when any of the staff died, all the hands had a holiday to attend the funeral, adding "and there are many "other treats from time to time for them to look forward "to." In other Welsh textile factories the girls are frequently allowed to take an afternoon off for "chapel "teas." A mineral water firm was not so liberal, and required the girls to work on bank holiday. They struck in consequence, and "the manager has never proposed "such a thing since."(2) It appears that, except in very small establishments, a holiday without payment can generally be obtained, but where only two or three girls are employed it is sometimes difficult for them to get a free time at regular intervals. One witness stated that in a small shop where she was employed, she had no holidays during three years, except the afternoons of bank holidays. On Sunday she had to clean the shop and dress the window for Monday.(3) On the other hand, it is stated, especially by dressmakers, milliners, and shop assistants, that they are sometimes obliged to take a holiday, with loss of salary, whether they wish it or not. One witness stated that, in a large establishment, mantle and dress makers would often be compelled to take from two to three months' holiday. Another girl, earning 7*s.* a week, said that she had 15 weeks' compulsory holiday during the previous year.(4)

Grievances connected with length of notice.

724. The period of notice on the termination of an engagement is generally a week or a fortnight, but varies greatly in different localities. It frequently depends upon the terms of engagement. When the salary is paid weekly or fortnightly a week's or a fortnight's notice is given.(5) In some cases three months' notice is given in the textile trade. Piece-workers in many industries do not give or receive any formal notice. One great grievance in connection with this point is that in some cases while the person employed is obliged to "give notice," the employer is at liberty to dismiss her summarily. It is urged that this custom places the workpeople in the power of foremen and overlookers, who are usually entrusted with their engagement and dismissal, and that "a week's notice would "give them opportunity for approaching the heads "of the firm on the subject, should they think they have "been unfairly treated." The reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners show that shop assistants in England and Scotland are liable to be dismissed at a moment's notice, with no extra wages as compensation, "and the only "provision to secure that they shall not be absolutely "penniless when they leave, is the retention by the em-"ployer of the first week or fortnight's wages, which are "paid to them on dismissal." One case was mentioned in which even this was refused. Six girls were dismissed on Christmas Eve from one shop, without extra pay, and no reason for the dismissal was given. Another girl, who lived at a great distance from the place where she was engaged, was dismissed immediately after her return from a holiday.(6) Many other instances of summary dismissal might be given, where only the most trivial reasons were assigned. It is stated that firms frequently have private rules, with which they do not acquaint the workpeople on engaging them. An instance is mentioned of a mill-hand who gave a week's notice, but "on going to get her wages "she was told she had forfeited it, as a month's notice "was required by the private rules of the firm, a copy of "which was shown her for the first time, ... and "it was not until the case had been taken to court that "the wages claimed were paid."(7)

Irregularity of employment in certain trades.

725. Scarcity of work was one of the chief complaints brought forward in many districts, and in various trades. Sometimes, and this is largely the case in Wales, this appeared to be due to general depression in trade, and sometimes to seasonal causes.(8) Many of the industries in which women are engaged to any great extent are emphatically "seasonal" in character, and periods of great pressure alternate with long intervals of slackness, when little or no work can be obtained. These dull periods are due to several causes, varying with the industry and the locality. The seasons of the year and changes in fashion combine to bring about great irregularity of employment in the clothing and textile trades. These and most other industries are also much affected by foreign and home competition. In many cases the women complain that after working overtime during the busy season they are dismissed as soon as employment becomes slack. Others, even though they may not be dismissed, are often without work for several weeks at a time. Mention has

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 353. (2) pp. 239, 240. (3) p. 85. (4) pp. 90–1. (5) p. 205. (6) pp. 87, 88, 304. (7) p. 304. (8) p. 242.

[§ 725.] already been made of compulsory holidays, which are due to the same cause. An employer in the tailoring trade, which is one of the most irregular, said that the girls could "only count on six months of good work during the "year." Another witness stated that workers in this trade frequently have only one-and-a-half day's employment a week during the slack season. In the slop factories and low class shops the work is said to be more continuous, generally speaking, than in those of a higher grade, as the former, not having any "customer" trade, are not so dependent upon changes in fashion, and often make articles for export, when there is little or no demand at home.(1) Dressmakers, milliners, and mantle-makers suffer from seasonal causes in the same way as tailors. It was stated by one witness that, in addition to three weeks compulsory holiday without pay in summer, they generally had five or six weeks' slack time, when many girls were glad to get work to do for their neighbours.(1) Laundresses, umbrella-makers, silk-trimmers, brush-makers, boot and shoe makers, pottery and pipe makers, and workers in some of the textile trades are also very liable to slack times at certain seasons. The tobacco trade offers a notable exception to many industries in which women are engaged, as it affords regular employment throughout the year.(2) At the time of the inquiry instituted by the Lady Sub-Commissioners, the Nottingham lace and hosiery trades were undergoing a period of depression, and only very few workers were in regular employment.(3) [§ 725.]

3. EMPLOYMENT OF MARRIED WOMEN.

Extent and causes.

726. It is impossible to get any accurate figures as to the actual extent of the employment of married women. The number varies widely in different districts, and in different industries. In all the districts and industries, however, in which women are extensively employed, there is a certain proportion of married workers. This is more especially the case in the textile industries of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Married women are also constantly found in the more unskilled and miscellaneous trades, while a very large number are engaged in home industries of all kinds, especially in the clothing trades. In Wales their employment is exceptional, and there appeared to be a strong feeling against it.(2) The reason which was almost universally given to account for the employment of married women was that they were obliged to find some work either to increase the husband's earnings or to keep up the home if he were ill or temporarily out of work. Thus, several male representatives of the textile industry in Yorkshire, though they deplored the practice, stated that the prevalent low rate of pay made it necessary in many cases that the wife should go into the mill, and supplement her husband's wages.(3) Similar evidence was given by a male cotton operative in Lancashire,(4) though in that district the dislike to the employment of married women, and to their competition with male labour, did not appear so marked. The wife of the cotton operative has, as a rule, less necessity to work than the wife of the woollen operative, and about half the number of married women working in the Lancashire mills are the wives of colliers and other workmen.(5) At Oldham it was stated "out-door workmen, "such as masons, navvies, bricklayers, labourers, and "such like persons," were not able to work more than 30 weeks in the year, and in these cases the wives had "to go to the mill to help earn a livelihood."(6) There is a very large class of casual female labour in such towns as Liverpool, Leith, and Dundee, where the women whose husbands are sailors, dock labourers, or irregularly employed, "pick up a livelihood by odd jobs" in rough or unskilled work, such as rag and cotton picking, sack-mending, paper-sorting, and rope-making, or in west Scotland in the preparing departments of the jute mills.(7) In London and other large towns also, a certain number of married women are engaged in various miscellaneous industries, of which the clothing trade is the chief. Thus, in Manchester, many married women are employed in shirt-making. In Bristol a number of the less well-to-do married women, belonging to the labouring class, work in clothing factories. As the factories there are uncomfortable, the better-class married women usually work at home.(8) A very large proportion of the laundresses appear to be married women of the class whose husbands are constantly out of work, especially in the winter. It is, however, urged by various witnesses that the employment of married women has, in some cases, an exceedingly bad effect upon their husbands, as it encourages them to rely on their wives' earnings and to be idle themselves. It was stated that the assistance of the wives and children on canal boats enabled the boatmen to spend their earnings in drink.(9) A laundry proprietor made a somewhat sweeping assertion to the effect that "in Acton the women "drank, but they worked, and the men drank "but did not work." His wife referred to a married laundress whose husband was always out of work until she died, when he appeared to find it quite easy to get employment.(4) Similar evidence was given in Scotland with regard to the tailoring trade. As an argument against the employment of married women a tailoress remarked that "in many instances "tailors marry women engaged in their trade, and "after marriage take advantage of the wives' labour "to live in idleness."(5) A male representative of the chain and nail trade, who was strongly opposed to the employment of married women, stated from his personal knowledge that they were driven to work by their husbands, who sometimes used physical force.(6) But the Lady Sub-Commissioner who subsequently spent three days in a personal investigation of this industry, found no evidence of any such pressure, as the married women she saw were working to make up a minimum for bare subsistence. The cry was rather that neither they nor the men had enough to do.(7) Quite a different explanation was given of the employment in factories and workshops in Birmingham of so many married women, whose husbands were well able to support them. The fact was noted as "one of the worst features of the industrial life," and the reason given was not, as in the case of the textile industries, that it was necessary for the wife to supplement her husband's earnings, but that home life was found dull and purposeless.(8) This prevalent opinion is largely accounted for by the character of the work to which the women have been accustomed from their youth. It consists chiefly in purely mechanical processes, such as are necessary in the chief Birmingham industries in which girls take part, which are absolutely useless to them afterwards in domestic life. After marriage they not only miss the steady work to which they have been accustomed, but also the cheerful society of their fellow-workers, and for both reasons many of them persist in going to the factory.(9)

Necessity for supplementing the family income.

Dislike of some women to domestic life.

727. There appeared to be a good deal of difference of opinion both as regards the general attitude towards the employment of married women and the character of their work. Certain employers saw no objection to the practice, and one added "it is stated "that married women are the steadiest and amongst "the best workers, and have a good influence over the "rest."(10) On the other hand, complaints were made, especially from the Staffordshire potteries, as to the coarse conversation they indulged in.(11) Their irregularity and unpunctuality also were complained of by various employers, *e.g.*, a wholesale clothier, a partner in a saddlery firm, a jute-mill manager, and a laundry proprietor. In one case the employer was replacing the women by boys,—"a boy does not stay away because it is washing day."(12) "Married women," said another employer, "always wanted to come late and "go away early in the middle of the day, and often "they would not come at all on Saturdays."(13) Various employers in the textile industry gave evidence before the Commission and to the Lady Sub-Commissioner, to the effect that they discouraged the employment of married women as far as possible, and the general opinion appeared to be that the practice was on the decrease. This was especially the case in Scotland. The chairman of the Scottish Co-operative Wholesale Society stated that the employment of married women was "discouraged" as far as possible

Character of the work of married women and attitude of employers, men, and unmarried women towards it.

(1) pp. 271-3. (2) p. 239. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Drew, 5442-48; Shaftoe, 6125-6. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mullins, 317-47; Birtwistle, 1494-1512. (5) p. 118. (6) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Silk, 605-11. (7) pp. 296, 306. (8) pp. 35, 78. (9) Digest, Vol. II., Group B., p. 60, Fawcett; Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Day, 18,305-14.

(1) p. 91. (2) pp. 275, 277, 283, 285. (3) pp. 159, 161. (4) p. 22. (5) pp. 269, 294. (6) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Juggins, 17,870-77. (7) App., Minutes, Group A., Vol. II., p. 575. (8) p. 53. (9) pp. 54, 58. (10) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 32. (11) p. 63. *See* also Miss Collet's Paper in "Life and Labour of the People," p. 463. (12) p. 301. (13) p. 59.

[§ 727.] in the factory, and that no home work of any kind was given out. On the other hand, the secretary of the Kettering Co-operative Boot and Shoe Manufacturing Society stated that all the "female portion of the work," *e.g.*, the upper parts of boots, was done by women in their own homes, and that he preferred it being thus given out.(1) In some cases married women are allowed to work in the factory for six months or until the birth of the first child. This is the usual custom in Lancashire.(2) The objections of the men with regard to the employment of married women were mainly based on social and domestic grounds. But in certain cases where similar work was done by both sexes, as in the nut and bolt and chain and nail trades, and especially in some parts of the textile industries in Yorkshire, it was stated that the increased pressure of competition between male and female workers caused by the employment of married as well as single women had already become a "very sore question." "My opinion," said a male weaver from Huddersfield, "on the question of married women labour is that "she should be at home. In some cases the woman "who takes children out . . . in all kinds of weather ". . . is compelled to go to work, and the husband and "weaver cannot at the same time get employment."(3) A Bradford employer, however, thought this point was exaggerated.(4) It was noted that at Birmingham, where the women are not usually engaged on work which would otherwise be done by men, there seems remarkably little opposition to married women labour.(5) The tendency of the competition of married women to lower wages was a grievance which was also brought forward by the unmarried female workers, with whom the employment of the former, both in factories and in home work, was very unpopular.(6) The whole question in its economical aspect is dealt with under the head of wages.

Effect on Health and Home of employment of married women in factories and workshops. (*a.*) *Effect on young children.*

728. (*a.*) In Belfast and other districts, where a large number of married women are employed in factories, a good deal of evidence was taken on the question of the effect that was thus produced on the children. Although the young married women are unwilling to admit of any evil result from this cause, the older women stated their belief that their children had suffered in health from the careless nursing and injudicious treatment of those with whom they were "put out." This opinion is corroborated by the medical officers of the district, who state that the youth, ignorance, and inexperience of those to whose charge the infants are consigned has disastrous consequences. The children, they say, suffer from the use of sleeping draughts, accidents, and exposure to all kinds of weather. The doctor and the matron of the Royal Hospital at Belfast observed that a great many children are brought into the hospital shortly after meal hours suffering from burns or scalds. The accidents were apparently caused by the practice of leaving the children to prepare the food at an age when they were too young to be even left alone.(7) Some of the men complained bitterly of the injury suffered by young children by the absence of the mother at work. "It is a disgrace to humanity," said a Yorkshire weaver, "to see married women pulling their "children out of bed in the morning, wrapping them "in shawls, and taking them in all kinds of weather "to nurse, so that they can go into the mill. . . . I "think we should have better children, stronger, and "more healthy, and . . . not so many cripples if "they would stop at home and look after their own "children, instead of allowing these baby-farmers to "look after them."(8) A male weaver further stated that as his wife's weekly wage averaged 9*s.*, and she had to pay 5*s.* for "putting out" her child, this method, in his opinion, "does not pay. But if a woman makes "2*s.* out of it she considers she is in pocket by the "process, forgetful of all the disadvantages."(9) Similar complaints were made by representatives of the nut and chain and nail industries.(10) Very strong evidence on the effect upon infant mortality of the employment of young married women in factories was given by Dr. John Tatham, Medical Officer of Health for Manchester, who for many years has made a "careful study" of the "terrible question." "The highest rate of infant "mortality was found in factory towns such as Salford, "Blackburn, and Preston, where married women were "constantly employed." The average rate in 18 of the largest towns was 162 per 1,000 children, but in the case of the town of Preston the rate rose as high as 220. Dr. Ogle stated that in this last town insurance societies refused to take infant lives at all. He attributed this excessive rate of infant mortality partly to the fact that the employment of married women in factories often caused premature confinement.(1) The Lady Sub-Commissioner who visited Birmingham remarked that the rate of infant mortality then was very high. Were it possible, she added, to obtain particulars of the occupations of the mothers of the infants who have died under the age of five years, medical testimony points to the probability that an abnormal proportion of them would be found in workshops and factories.(2) The opinion of Dr. Tatham as to the cause of this state of things fully corroborated that of the Belfast doctors. "As the result of my "inquiry," he stated, "I was convinced that very "much of that excessive mortality was due to infant "neglect consequent on the withdrawal of maternal "care within a few weeks of the birth of the children." [§ 728(*a.*)]

Question of extension of legal period of suspension from work after childbirth.

It was urged by various medical men that the present period of suspension from work after childbirth should be considerably extended. In the opinion of two doctors from Belfast, if the legal period of one month were extended to three, this would be sufficient.(3) Dr. Tatham, however, considered that the interests of the child demanded a period of at least six months, in which it should be nurtured and cared for by its mother.(4) It was remarked that any extension of the period of suspension from work would be probably objected to by the mothers, to whom the wages earned at the factories are of paramount importance.(2) So loth were they to leave their work and lose their wages, it was stated, that they would sometimes continue their work at the factory right up to the time of childbirth,(5) and return long before the specified time was up, if they could evade detection. Dr. Tatham had no doubt that under the present system the health of the mothers, as well as of the infants, was injured. A miserable picture of domestic discomfort—doubtless typical of many others—was given by a laundress, which incidentally illustrates some of the worst effects upon the health and home of the employment of married women. The witness had been a tailoress before marriage, and had earned from 19*s.* to 23*s.* a week. She afterwards married a shoemaker, whose health and sight gradually failed. She was then obliged to take to laundry work to support the family. Her husband looked after the children, and her eldest child nursed the baby. Up to within a few days of her last confinement she had been at work, and both she and the baby had been ill ever since. The children were left in charge of someone, and were often brought up to the laundry at dinner-time to be suckled, though the mothers were tired out with their morning's work. The laundresses often cut the dinner for the children in the morning before they went to work, and the children eat it in the streets.(6)

(*b.*) *Effect on the health of married women of especially heavy or dangerous employments.*

(*b.*) The question of the effect upon the health of heavy or dangerous work such as that carried on by married women in the nail and chain making district, or in the chemical and white lead industries, is treated under the heading Health, and it is only necessary here to summarise the main conclusions arrived at with regard to married women. It is, however, obvious that whatever objections are raised with regard to the employment of women in general in unhealthy industries apply with redoubled force if the women are married. This point was emphasised by a representative of the chain and nail trade who gave evidence before the Commission.(7) The evil effects complained of were attributed to the heavy and unsuitable character of the work. He states that he knew cases when women who were expecting their confinement had died in consequence of continuing this laborious work. The Lady Sub-Commissioner, however, in her report on the industry, stated that she only met with one instance of injury received from the use of the "oliver." Married women told her that they took reasonable rest after their confinements, but, she added, persons with local knowledge assured her that the women often return to the shop a very few days after the birth of a child. The health of the mothers she found to be fairly good, and much better

In the Nail and Chain industry.

(1) Reports, pp. 173–192, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Thomson, 7146; Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., Ballard, 14,483–91; Minutes of Evidence given before Commission Sitting as a Whole, Maxwell, 554–6, 600–2. (2) Reports, p. 102; Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 7146–60. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Gee, 4999–5006. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Arnold Forster, 9681–84. (5) p. 54. (6) pp. 269, 277. (7) pp. 329; 58. (8) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Gee, 4999. (9) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Drew. (10) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., 17,867.

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Tatham, 1822–41. Digest of Evidence taken before Commission Sitting as a Whole, p. 38. (3) p. 54. (2) p. 329. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Tatham, 8122–75. (5) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Appendix, p. 571, Miss Orme. (6) p. 23. (7) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Price, 17,606.

[§ 728 (b.)] than in districts where the women have no work and little food. The high rate of infant mortality seemed to be the result rather of the carelessness with which they are brought up than of the health of the mother. The evidence of the medical men of the district on the subject differed considerably.(1)

In White-lead works. The employment of married women in white lead works has especial dangers owing to the character of the material used. Dr. Oliver, physician to the Royal Infirmary at Newcastle-on-Tyne, who investigated the condition of this industry, expressed a strong opinion that not only that women were peculiarly susceptible to lead poisoning, but that the most evil effects were produced on the offspring of female lead workers. It was stated that the poison in the mother's system is inherited by the children, many of whom die at their birth. In other cases the children develop paralysis at an early age and are affected for life. In consequence of these facts, the Manager of the Mersey White Lead Manufacturing Company had ceased to employ women in the dangerous part of the work.(2) At Glasgow however, the medical officer for the lead works denied that the same state of things described at Newcastle existed in his district. He makes no particular reference to the case of married women.(3) It appears that about 30·2 per cent. of the women employed in 13 of the factories in the Staffordshire potteries are married. A "woman attendant" is often employed in various processes by the men, and wives act in this capacity to their husbands. The work there includes

In Potteries. such processes as "towing," "glazing," and "painting," all of which are unhealthy, on account of the lead used. But no special mention was made as to the effect on the health of the married women in the Lady Sub-Commissioners' reports.(4) A male representative of the Pottery industry who gave evidence before the Commission stated, however, that owing to the dust resulting from the "towing" process, married women's lives had been shortened, and their children had "died through it after they were born." He quoted the opinion of Dr. Arlidge, physician to the infirmary in the district, that the child of a woman who followed one of these dusty employments could not live, because its breathing organs were affected by it.(5)

(c.) Effect on the home life. (c.) The wretched condition of the homes of those who left them to go to work was borne witness to by many. Various male representatives of the textile industries expressed great dislike on domestic grounds to the employment of married women in factories. But perhaps the strongest indirect evidence as to the disastrous effects on home life thus produced, is the rule—afterwards modified—of a certain firm, to the effect that any women who married must at once leave the mill. One of the founders of the firm, who had worked his way up from the rank of a workman, had introduced it because he believed that "a great "deal of the unhappiness and drunkenness in working "families arose from the wives being in the mills, and "the consequent dirtiness and untidiness of their "homes.(6) At Birmingham, where so many married women are employed in factories, it was remarked by a doctor that "a comfortable home was the exception."(7) The secretary of a girls' club in Wales considered that factory girls made wretched house-keepers, as they spoiled the food by bad cooking and did not know how to keep the place tidy.(8) The same objection to the employment of married women was brought forward by some representatives of the nut and bolt and nail and chain industry. "I believe that all married "women ought to be in their own homes minding their "own domestic affairs," said one of them. "The women "should be at home economising her time and making "the best of her home, instead of neglecting it and "having to pay girls to look after it while she is getting "a few shillings in the shop," said another. The result of the work of married women, said a third, is that "everything is being neglected at home, and "when a man goes in to his little place, his little castle "as it should be, there is nothing clean or tidy. It "drives him to the public-house and all that kind "of thing."(9) The state to which domestic life in the nail and chain making district is reduced is best seen by the description of the Lady Sub-Commissioner. "With very few exceptions, the homes I saw belonging "to women who work either in factories or workshops "are very nearly desolate. The meals consist of bread "and butter and tea with a little cold bacon for dinner. [§ 728 (c.)] "The tea is made from a kettle heated at the forge, "and thus the cares of housekeeping are reduced to a "minimum . . . there is no knowledge of cooking, "and therefore no variety of diet. The children troop "into the workshop when they come home from school, "and there is no home life at all. The condition of the "children of these working mothers is deplorable. "Either they are 'minded' by little girls at 2*s.* a week "or else they are perched on a warm heap of fuel or "dangled in an egg-box from the shop-ceiling. When "they are old enough to walk they play in the gutter "and thrust their arms into the holes which ventilate "the drains . . . there does not appear to be "crèches, playrooms, or any of the philanthropic insti-"tutions which in other places supply to some extent "the blessings of a comfortable home."(1)

Effect on Health and Home of employment of married women in Home Industries. 729. The effect produced upon the health and homes of the married women who are engaged in home industries is a far-reaching and difficult question. The term home industry is used in connection with two different classes of persons, those who work in domestic workshops in towns such as Luton and Bristol, and those who take in work at home in most large towns. A great deal of home work is done by women in the clothing, brushmaking, and in certain parts of the cabinet-making trades.(2) No summary on the subject could be adequate unless the whole ground occupied by the recent inquiry of the Committee of the Lords on the Sweating System were to be retraversed, as well as the reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners. An enormous number of visits were made by the Lady Sub-Commissioners to home workers in various industries, amongst whom were a great quantity of married women. Results of the most diverse kind were recorded, which it is very hard to classify. The detailed tables of these visits which are appended to the reports show that in certain instances a quite satisfactory state of things was found, but that more often the conditions of labour in domestic industries were seen at their worst. In reference to this point the opinion of the Honorary Secretary of the Master Tailors' Association may be quoted, "I think it very necessary that these homes "should be inspected, and if it can be done by the "local sanitary officers, all the better. I certainly "think some satisfaction should be given to the public "that home work is carried on under proper healthy "conditions." . . . He further suggested that a certificate from a doctor to this effect would meet the needs of the case.(3) The most pressing grievance which, however, is dealt with under the head of Wages, was the very low rate of remuneration that is constantly obtained in these industries, especially by the isolated home worker, who is usually "sweated." When the rate of wages was very low the standard of comfort corresponded with it, the homes were miserable and the physique of the women bad. Hence it was noted that apart from the economic question, one great objection to home work was that late and irregular hours and insanitary conditions were usually its accompaniment. A tendency, which was attributed to the employment of married women, to withdraw work from the factories to the homes, where it was likely to be carried on under unhealthy conditions, was observed in the tailoring trade in Scotland.(4) Therefore, from the point of view of the health of the married women, work in a factory or in a workshop which is under inspection, and in which the number of hours is limited, is probably better in most cases than work at home. But on the domestic side the case is different. If a married woman is for any reason obliged to work, an employment which does not necessitate her leaving home, and therefore "putting out" the children, has obvious advantages over one that takes her away all day.(5) It is at any rate the lesser of two evils. But as Miss Collet pointed out in her paper on West End tailoring, in "Labour and Life of the People," "the conditions of labour vary with each individual family." Hence the difficulty of safe generalisation.

Home industries Luton and Bristol. Home industries, such as the straw-plaiting and hat-making carried on at Luton and Bristol, are of a different character, and a good deal of information was collected about them. The conditions of home work in that district, it was remarked, were not unfavourable, and in no case in Bristol was anyone found working in a bedroom. While the factories may be equally uncomfortable in London and Bristol, in London it was observed the home is frequently worse than the

(1) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Appendix, p. 574, Miss Orme. (2) p. 152-5. (3) p. 285. (4) pp. 62-3. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. III., Owen, 30,500. (6) p. 102. (7) p. 54. (8) p. 23. (9) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Juggins, 17,714; Price, 17,862; Homer, 17, 114-7.

(1) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Appendix, p. 574. Miss Orme. (2) Group C., Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. xv. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., Gordon, 15,409-13. (4) p. 269. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., Tabberer, 13,867.

[§ 729.] factory, while in Bristol it is better on the whole.(1) This opinion is supported by the accounts of visits paid to the homes of the workers and to the domestic workshops at Luton, which, in the opinion of the Lady Sub-Commissioner, were neither so wretched or so neglected as the statements of the manufacturers would have led her to suppose. "All such statements are necessarily "relative and dependent on some undefined standard "of the speaker. To anyone accustomed to a district "in which the majority of working-class families are "content to live in two rooms, the four or five roomed "houses in Luton seem spacious, even though hats "may be drying in front of the kitchen fire and lying "about on the sitting-room tables and chairs. The "house-keeping and the care of the younger children "in several cases seemed undertaken by a girl of 13 or "14, but the supervision, exercised by the mistress, "free to leave her machining or finishing at any "moment, is, of course, much greater than would be "possible in the case of a married woman working in a "factory. In one case, probably typical of many, the "wife told me that she paid to have the washing done "away from home, as she was at her machine all day; "it may be reasonably doubted whether the household "is any the worse off for this; nor, disagreeable as it "may be to have hats drying in one's kitchen or being "blocked in an out-house or scullery, did I see any- [§ 729.]
"thing which for discomfort and unhealthiness could "equal the condition which obtain in every small house "on washing days."(1) Of the alleged late hours of work for children and young persons, no proof was found. It must, however, be remembered that domestic workshops such as here described differ fundamentally from the numerous small workshops such as are found in the tailoring or umbrella trade or nail and chain industries. In the first case the married women work in their own homes with the help of two or three others, members of their own family. In the second case they work perhaps in the home of a Jewish sweater or in the chain and nail trade in a so-called "domestic workshop," which is necessarily apart from the dwelling-house. In these last two instances, while the sanitary conditions under which the married women work are no better and probably a great deal worse than the domestic workshops at Luton, the other evil of the enforced absence from home, with its unfortunate results in domestic life, is as great as in the case of factory workers. But in treating the question of home work generally, it must be borne in mind that it would be difficult to exaggerate the insanitary, dirty, depressing and miserable conditions under which it is constantly carried on—conditions of which the detailed reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners and the evidence given before the Lords' Committee on Sweating give abundant proof.(2)

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4. SANITATION AND HEALTH.

I. SANITATION.

A. SANITARY ACCOMMODATION.

Defects in sanitary accommodation.

730. The sanitary accommodation provided in many cases for the use of women workers was found by the Lady Sub-Commissioners to be "disgraceful." This was especially the case in certain industries and certain localities. The worst complaints came from the textile industries and from shop assistants. In England, Scotland, and Ireland the sanitary accommodation provided for female textile operatives is, with certain exceptions, distinctly bad, and that provided for shop assistants is in many cases miserably insufficient. In Wales, however, the provision in this respect was "throughout decent."(2) The complaints on this subject may be divided into two classes—those in which the accommodation provided was objected to on grounds of decency, and those in which the existing arrangements were regarded as insanitary. Thus numerous complaints have been received with respect to sanitary accommodation, that (*a*) it is common to both sexes, and has an undesirable publicity; (*b*) it is non-existent, insufficient, ill-situated, ill-ventilated, constructed on a bad system, and uncleanly. All the grievances come under one or other of these various heads, though in treating of them it has not been found possible to take them in this exact order, or to keep them absolutely apart, because in some cases they overlap. Some idea of the generally defective state of the sanitary accommodation in workshops of different kinds can be obtained from the analysis made by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners of a report on the state of 193 workshops, in which women and girls were employed in a certain district of Birmingham. It was found that "82 were in a satisfactory condition, 49 only "needed lime-washing, 37 were without separate privy "accommodation for the sexes, and 25 needed con- "siderable improvement."(3) The complaint of the total absence of sanitary accommodation comes chiefly from shops or establishments of any sort, in which only one or two women are employed, and from a few miscellaneous factories. Scotland appears to be especially deficient in this respect. "A grievance," says one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, "which extends "over the majority of the small shops, and even in "those where servant girls are employed, is the "absence of sanitary accommodation. I have been "urgently requested by numerous employées, and by "several medical men, to direct attention to this defect "and its grave results on the health of the workers. "In many cases girls are confined in the shop from "the opening to the closing hour, and have not per- "mission to leave on any pretext. As will be seen "from the evidence of witnesses and the tables of hours, "this may include a very long stretch of time, and "frequent cases of illness have been reported as arising "from close confinement, long hours, and insanitary "condition. In an arcade, 48 shops were found all "employing one, and in most cases several, girls, "where there was no sanitary accommodation attached "to the shops, the only provision being a lavatory for "the use of all the tenants, and common to both sexes, "and which the employees could not use."(3) Evidence was given by various witnesses with regard to this "serious evil," amongst others by a saleswoman and manager in a confectioner's shop at Glasgow. There was no lavatory accommodation in the shop in which the witness was engaged, and she said she knew of many others which were equally defective. A temperance restaurant was found in the same condition. A case is reported of a shop girl having died from illness brought on by these conditions.(4) A similar complaint made with reference to a London shop was ascertained by the medical officer of health to be correct. "Evidence "was also given of the hardships to which girls acting "as cashiers where only men were employed were "subjected through the thoughtlessness and in- "humanity of their employers."(5) The same grievance was reported at a pottery and pipe and at a brush factory in Glasgow, and in "first-class" tailors' shops where only one or two women were employed. Serious illness was said to be the result in some cases.(6) It was stated by Mrs. Hicks that in one of the departments in a large firm at Stratford the workshop is in the midst of the stable, and there are no lavatory arrangements at all. She further stated that "at a "well-known mineral water maker's they have one "lavatory, but the women are not able to leave their "work during work hours on pain of dismissal. At "another place, where there are over 100 women "employed, there are two small lavatories. These are "kept locked, and the women have to go to the office "and apply for the key, so that they may not waste "their time without its being known."(7) In the nail and chain industry, in the Black Country, complaints were made that in many factories sanitary accommodation was totally wanting, and, where it was provided, great cruelty was shown in refusing to allow the women to leave their work for hours together.(8) The home workers at Bristol—some of whom come from long distances—stated that they were kept waiting for hours standing in the passages or waiting rooms at the warehouses, when they fetch or bring back work. Great inconvenience, they complained, was caused by the absence of any sanitary accommodation.(9) Other cases of insufficient accommodation were mentioned. At a linen mill in North Scotland only two lavatories were provided for 300 women, both of which were in a shocking condition, and at a pottery factory in Glasgow only one was provided for 100 girls, which was very unsuitably placed.(10) At a tailor's workshop in Ireland one dirty dark lavatory was found

Insufficient.

Common to both sexes.

(1) p. 33. (2) p. 239. (3) p. 50.

(1) p. 30. (2) First Report, Sweating System, Adamson, 2581–8; Billings, 5048, 7914–16; Munro, 1367. (3) pp. 287–9. (4) pp. 288-9, 297. (5) p. 96. (6) pp. 283, 276, 264. (7) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8208–10. (8) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Miss Orme, p. 574. (9) p. 38. (10) pp. 309, 283.

[§ 730.] for both men and women in the basement, and at a shirt and collar factory "the men and women's lavatories were placed together in a dark cellar."(1) No separate accommodation was provided at a hosiery and at a lace factory in Nottingham, and at three brush factories at Glasgow and at a restaurant.(2) This objection was brought forward by the men before the Commission. A Yorkshire weaver said, "The sanitary "arrangements in many of our mills are not so com- "plete as they ought to be. For instance, men and "women have to use the same sanitary accommodation "as boys and girls. Now this, I consider, to be "extremely injudicious, and often tends to immo- "rality."(3) Another complaint that was made was that the lavatories were often unsuitably situated. "I find that in the majority of the factories that I visited," writes the Lady Sub-Commissioner who visited Scotland, "the sanitary accommodation is "within the workrooms and has an undesirable pub- "licity, and with this arrangement it is difficult to "prevent discomfort, even when the ventilation and "appointments are excellent."(4) Thus at one of the Glasgow potteries the lavatory is placed at the gate by which all the workers enter, and the women greatly object to the publicity of the situation. In a brickyard in Wales it was placed in an "unsightly position," in a lace factory at Nottingham "by the hoist and over- looker's desk."(5) The grievance that the lavatories are often placed in the workrooms, which is often the case in the textile industries, though not confined to them, comes chiefly under the head of ventilation. Thus "serious defects in the sanitary accommodation in the "workshops attached to the fashionable shops in "Liverpool" were noted. In many cases the lavatories ventilated into the workshops.(6) Mention was made of "frequent instances of lavatories being provided "with no outlet for ventilation or with outlets that "were quite inadequate. A highly objectionable "arrangement is to allow them to ventilate freely into "the weaving flats where the workers are employed. "This occurs where the lavatories are within the room "and are not roofed in."(4) In a calico-weaving factory at Kilmarnock and a net factory at Lanark, while the other arrangements were satisfactory, no provision was made for ventilating the lavatories.(7) In a factory at Dunfermline the workers complained that the lavatories, which are not sufficient in number, nor satisfactorily ventilated, open into the dining-room and thus allow effluvia to come in. In other cases the lavatories open into the weaving sheds and the effluvia was most offensive.(8) In a textile mill at Port Glasgow frequent cases of illness are said to result from the women working in the vicinity of the lavatories.(9) "In the north of Ireland the lavatories are, in many "cases, in a neglected condition, emitting much "effluvia, and being sometimes too near the looms. . . . "Speaking generally, in the south of Ireland they are "good in large new mills, but deficient and dirty in "the majority of cases where any old buildings have "been utilised and capital is wanted for structural "improvements."(10) A disgraceful state of things was described by the officers of the Bradford and District Machine Wool Combers' Association. They stated that in a certain mill the lavatories for the men and women, though separate, were all in the same shed, where the heat was from 90 to 100 degrees, and actually close to the workers. The effluvia can be smelt "within "twenty-five yards . . . there is no outlet, and it is "allowed sometimes to stay for 24 hours." The same complaint was made by women working in a wool- combing factory in Bradford.(11) In the Yorkshire mills generally it was stated that "the accommodation "provided is seldom sufficient for the number of "women employed; the closets are in a dirty and "offensive condition, owing to an imperfect system of "drainage, and frequently the only ventilation is from "the workrooms."(12) All these evils were complained of in Lancashire, where the sanitary accommodation was found to be "more universally bad than in mills of a similar class in Yorkshire." This was attributed to the greater heat used in the manufacture of cotton, which tends to increase the effluvia. In one mill a piece of the lavatory door had been removed in order to enable it to close over a spinning frame.(13) The tables of reference give ample evidence of the neglected, filthy, and insanitary condition of the greater number of the lavatories in textile factories.(14) The defects in cleanliness and ventilation, though in some cases clearly due to simple neglect, are often closely bound up with the question of the system on which the sanitary accommodation is worked. The "tub system" appeared the one in most general use in Yorkshire, both inside and outside the mills. "When situated in "the mill yard, and having free ventilation, it is often "unobjectionable, but in those mills where the "accommodation is inside the women raise great "objections to it, and complain that owing to neglect "the closets are sometimes unfit to use, and that the "effluvia from the rooms is actually injurious to "health." "In Yorkshire the common practice is to "take away the tubs from the outside, but in Lanca- "shire they are carried through the rooms. This is "done during working hours about twice a week, and "on each occasion the air of the room is vitiated." "Another system which I have found objectionable is "the 'bog system.' Pipes connected with the lava- "tories pass through every story of the mill, and "at the bottom end in a cesspool, described as a "'bog.' This cesspool remains untouched, always "for a considerable time, and sometimes for as long "as 12 months. The effluvia is generally extremely "bad, and, as a rule, worst in the lowest room. No "water is used, and the pipes become stopped, which "causes the lavatories to get into a filthy condition." This system seemed common in Lancashire. "There "is a third system, in which no water is laid on, but "provision is made for flushing with water, which in "some places is done once a day. If, however, the "flushing is not carefully carried out, but neglected "for several days, the women complain that the places "become unfit for use."(1) Again, it was stated that "much discomfort was caused by the absence of or "defects in the flushing apparatus. Frequently, "when flushing appliances are provided, they are not "under the control of the workers, but of officials, "who may put them into use at stated intervals, or "may neglect to do so. In some factories the supply "of water for this purpose is entirely dependent on "the needs of the engine or the will of the foreman. "Again, an automatic arrangement is sometimes met "with where mechanical flushing is applied once every "hour. But instances are too frequent of no water "supply whatever being provided, while cleaning "operations are often performed at unsuitable times "(such as during work hours), and at unduly long "intervals."(2) Where the sanitary accommodation is provided outside the mills, as is the case in the cloth industry in the West of England, these evils are greatly mitigated. Thus it was noted that in those districts, though the sanitary accommodation was usually bad, it was less injurious on the whole than either Yorkshire or Lancashire, as the effluvia seldom reached the women while at work.(3) In the woollen industry in the South of Scotland, "an entire absence of anything objection- able" in this respect was observed. The lavatories were all outside, and were constructed of iron.(4) "In "a number of mills in Lancashire the lavatories have "been closed inside, and fresh ones built outside. The "managers in these mills state that unless water is "used, it is impossible, even with the greatest care, to "keep the lavatories free from effluvia, which is "certainly injurious to the workers' health.(5) Both "in Yorkshire and in Lancashire in a certain number "of cases the water-closet system with the regular "supply of water was in use, and when this was so, "the accommodation was otherwise good and clean, "and none of the abuses consequent on the other "systems appear."(6) It seems, therefore, that this system is the one to be desired, where it is practicable.

Unsuitably situated.

Ill-ventilated.

Constructed on a bad system and uncleanly.

Three recommendations on sanitary accommodation of one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners may be here quoted: (1.) "That every lavatory be provided with "flushing appliances or a continuous supply of water; "that these be under the direct control of the worker, "or when automatic flushing is preferred, it be applied "not less frequently than every 30 minutes." (2.) "That all lavatories be supplied with sufficient means "for ventilation, and that in no case should a lavatory "be allowed to ventilate into the rooms where the "workers are." (3.) "That where structural arrange- "ments permit, lavatories should be apart from the "working room, and when this is not possible, the "entrances to the former should be screened off."(7)

Recommendations.

731. (*a.*) The scandalous state of things detailed may be briefly ascribed to two causes—the inadequacy of the present system of inspection and the ignorance and indifference of the employers. Although the

Causes of existing defects in sanitary accommodation.

(1) pp. 348, 345. (2) pp. 160-1, 276, 206. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Drew, 5446. (4) p. 177. (5) pp. 283, 238, 161. (6) p. 72. (7) p. 191. (8) p. 187. (9) p. 193. (10) p. 324. (11) Reports, p. 101, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Heptonstall and Marran, 224-5, 243; Miss James, 8478. (12) p. 100. (13) p. 117. (14) pp. 103-12, 119-29.

(1) pp. 101, 116-7. (2) p. 177. (3) p. 145. (4) p. 298. (5) p. 101 116. (6) p. 117.

[§ 731 (a.)] *(a.) Inadequacy of present system of inspection.*

former may be partly due to defects in the Factory and Workshops Acts themselves, it can hardly be contended in the face of the forgoing facts, that the first clause of section 3, part I., in the Factory Act which decrees, "that a factory shall be kept in a cleanly state and free "from effluvia arising from any drain, privy, or other "nuisance," nor the similar clause relating to workshops in the amended Act of 1891, has been effectively carried out. This is presumably due to the insufficiency of the present staff of inspectors. One of the Lady Sub-Commissioners states, "With regard to the prevalence "of sanitary defects and their continuance, I find the "reason usually ascribed for this by the workers, is "the insufficient number of inspectors appointed to "carry out the provisions of the Act."(1) She adds in another report, "I found that the western district of "Scotland affords a striking instance of the large area "and great number of factories and workshops lying "within the boundaries, which are under the inspection "of two or three officials. My attention has frequently "been called to this point as an explanation of "the necessarily inadequate execution of the "duties imposed."(2) The same reason was given to account for the insanitary conditions prevailing in the textile industries of England.(3) The deficient sanitary accommodation provided in shops, &c., is partially explained by the fact that they are not yet under sanitary inspection of any kind. Another contributing cause to the continuance of sanitary abuses is the dislike of women to bring them to the notice of the inspector. "It is a general complaint "amongst the women," said the secretary to the women's Confectioners' Trade Union, "that they do "not see the inspectors . . . . One girl who has "worked in a factory for 13 years says she has never "seen an inspector inside the factory . . . They "think it is most necessary that there should be women "inspectors. The girls cannot talk to men as they "would to women."(4) Again, it is said that in Scotch factories, where the labour is chiefly supplied by women, great discomfort is caused by the continuance of insanitary conditions, which is "often due to the difficulty "women workers have in approaching the factory "inspector or male overseers on these matters." "I "am frequently met by urgent requests from workers "that I should bring grievances in connection with "sanitation before employers and managers. In many "cases the women tell me that they have long suffered "serious discomfort, but have found it impossible to "appeal to those in authority to have the grievance "removed."(2) Some women working in a brush factory heard their employer inform the factory inspector that sufficient sanitary accommodation was provided for his women workers, and they had not liked to draw the attention of the inspector to the fact of its objectionable situation and that it was common to both sexes.(5) Whether it was the usual practice of the inspector to accept statements of that sort from the employers without making personal investigation did not appear. It is further stated that the evasion of the law with regard to sanitary matters is largely due to the "divided responsibility which now exists between "the factory inspector and the sanitary authorities "under the Act of 1891. The matter is looked upon "as nobody's business and is consequently neglected."(6) This is especially the case with reference to the sanitation of workshops. In towns like Liverpool, Birmingham, and Nottingham prompt action has been taken by the local sanitary authorities, in other places little or nothing has been done.(7) This and other questions relating to the subject of inspection and the Factory Acts are dealt with later in greater detail. The question of the system on which the sanitary arrangements are based has already been discussed. One great difficulty in the way of the introduction of modern and improved systems is the necessary structural alteration that would be involved. When the buildings are old or where large private houses and other buildings have been adapted to the purposes of workshops, as is the case at Bristol, South Ireland, country districts in Scotland, &c., this is especially noticeable.(8) In many cases the employers refused to make the necessary alterations on grounds of expense, and the difficulty of getting a water supply for cleaning purposes is frequently brought forward. Factory inspectors, however, are powerless to enforce structural alterations. The point then arises, whether since decent and healthy sanitary conditions are lacking, it should be permissible to use such places for the employment of women and young persons.

(1) p. 307. (2) p. 177. (3) p. 102. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8477, 8508. (5) p. 276. (6) pp. 116, 161. (7) pp. 50, 72, 161, 307. (8) pp. 24, 324, 176.

[§ 731 (a.)] "I venture to think it desirable," says one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, "that a higher standard in "ventilation and sanitation be required in mills and "factories, with power on the part of factory inspectors "to enforce it within a reasonable time."(1)

(b.) Ignorance and indifference of employers as to sanitary conditions.

(b.) The good which thorough inspection can do in these matters, even if unaccompanied by any penal powers, can be seen by the salutary effects produced in certain instances by the visits of the Lady Sub-Commissioners. In some cases the continuance of the evils complained of was explained, though hardly justified, by the ignorance of the employers as to the conditions under which their operatives worked. In other cases, in consequence of the pressure brought to bear upon the managers or employers, greatly needed reforms were promised, "apparently in anticipation of a visit by an Assistant "Commissioner being repeated." Thus complaints were made with regard to a very objectionable practice in use in mills in North Scotland, of supplying water for drinking purposes by means of a pitcher to which is attached a tube that is used as a general mouthpiece. The women operatives objected to this strongly, not only on account of the uncleanliness, but because, as they assert, disease has often been transmitted by this means. "In several cases the employers have ex- "pressed their readiness to make arrangements for "supplying water by taps or fountains in the work- "rooms, and stated they would have done so before had "the matter been brought to their notice."(2) One of the Lady Sub Commissioners stated that she had always met with great readiness on the part of employers and managers to consider suggestions on sanitary points, and various instances are mentioned in which sanitary reforms in Scotland "have been or will be shortly carried out."(1) In one case a mill at Port Glasgow was visited in which the sanitary arrangements were in a "scandalous condition." The attention of the manager was called to the matter, and a promise was received from him that he would lay the matter before the firm. It has been since ascertained "that the owners of that "mill have given instructions to one of the leading sani- "tary engineers to have plans prepared for a complete "system of drainage, and have asked him to put in the "best appliances at whatever cost, so as to ensure that "their employées may work under the most favour- "able sanitary conditions."(3) Another manufacturer complained of the disadvantage under which country firms laboured in their remoteness from large industrial centres where modern sanitary appliances could be seen. He added that the jealousy of manufacturers prevented their comparing notes on these matters. He further suggested that "if the Labour Commission could "see its way to collecting information on various systems "of ventilation, drainage, &c., and would distribute this "in a printed form among country firms, it would be "very helpful to the latter."(1) But the excuse of ignorance, insufficient as it is, cannot always be pleaded. In many cases it was stated that complaints had constantly been made, but that nothing had been done. The foreman in a pottery factory at Glasgow, where no sanitary accommodation was provided for the women, stated that he had frequently brought the matter before the firm, but that all his efforts to have the grievance remedied had been in vain. In a brush-making factory in the same town, the Lady Sub-Commissioner inquired if sanitary accommodation were provided for the seven women workers, and was told by the employer that he "did not think it was necessary."(4) For such cases the extreme rigour of the law appears to be the only resource. The excuses given by certain employers for defective sanitary arrangements were often of the most flimsy character. The owner of a Lancashire mill remarked that the local sanitary inspector had drawn his attention to a sanitary defect, but he did not intend to remedy it, as he believed that the inspector "was in the pay of the plumbers."(5) In other cases in Yorkshire the firms endeavoured to shift the responsibility on to the landlord from whom they rent the building,(6) in spite of the fact that by the Factory Act the occupier is responsible for employing women and children in an unhealthy building. "Numerous employers" alleged that their only objection to improving their sanitary accommodation was the certainty of its being damaged by the operatives. A similar excuse was made by some of the Scotch employers with regard to the absence of taps or fountains for drinking purposes. On the other hand, an "important statement" was made by the manager of a Preston mill where the sanitary accommodation was on the water system and extremely good, to the effect that in his experience of

(1) p. 177. (2) p. 306. (3) p. 193. (4) pp. 283, 276. (5) p. 117. (6) p. 101.

[§ 731 (b.)] four years no trouble had been given in consequence of the carelessness of the operatives. It was also noted that in those mills where water taps were in use, no traces of carelessness on the part of the workers were discovered, nor were any such complaints brought forward by the mill officials.(1) A vivid picture is given by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners of the difficulties experienced by the local sanitary authorities in Liverpool in their endeavour to force the employers and managers in workshops to comply with the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act of 1891.(2)

B. VENTILATION.

Extent and causes of present defects.

732. Complaints on the subject of defective ventilation, arising as it does from various causes, are very common in all centres of the textile industries where the conditions of work make the question a peculiarly difficult one. They are also brought forward by laundresses, shop assistants, and dressmakers, by those who work in small workshops which are apt to escape inspection, and by those who work in factories in which dust, &c., is generated from the materials in the process of manufacture. The general question only of defective ventilation will be here treated. The special cases of injury to health arising from particularly unhealthy processes, partially owing to the absence or defective state of the appliances necessary to mitigate the evils complained of, will be treated separately. From the reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners it appears that ventilation is imperfectly understood as a science, and still more imperfectly carried out as an art. In many cases this appears to be due to want of the knowledge of sanitary principles on the part of the foremen, managers, or employers; in many others to the prejudices of the workers. Again, difficulties of structure with regard to the buildings and the want of modern ventilating appliances accounted for many deficiences. The only other cause to which the continuance of these defects in sanitation can be ascribed, appears to be, in some instances, the absence of legal power to remedy them, and in others, the inadequacy of the present system of inspection.

In England, Scotland, and Ireland, with certain exceptions, the ventilation in textile factories is bad.

(a.) Cotton industry in Lancashire.

(*a.*) In Lancashire it is stated that "the ventilation "in the majority of mills is inadequate, and the venti- "lators are frequently sealed. In the Nelson district "many of the mills are without ventilation in any "form, and one manager admitted that it is a common "occurrence for weavers to faint in hot weather. "Several cases of fainting were reported to me by the "operatives, especially from those mills where, in "addition to bad ventilation, heavy steaming prevails. "The use of fans in card-rooms was exceptional, even "in the mills which were pointed out as the best. I "seldom found good window ventilation, and even if "the windows could open, little use was made of the "opportunity. I was always told by the manager that "the control of the windows is left to the operatives, "but from the operatives I received a wholly different "statement. Another point is, that the windows are "mostly constructed so that when open a draught "falls upon the frames, and blowing down the 'ends' "injures the work. In these rooms the atmosphere is "almost always hot and close."(3) In Yorkshire the abuses of ventilation appear to come rather under the further head of "special cases." One mill, however, is mentioned where the effect of the already offensive atmosphere was heightened by the crowding of machinery, the looms were so close together that it was difficult to pass through the shed.(4)

(b.) Silk industry.

(*b.*) Very similar complaints are brought forward in those places in which the silk industry is carried on. In 44 out of the 51 of the mills visited the ventilation is described as "bad." "The windows are expected to "serve as ventilators, yet they are seldom opened in "summer and never in winter. It is in winter that, "owing to the general use of gas, good ventilation is "most essential. In one mill in Derby most of the "rooms are crowded by heavy machinery, which ex- "tends from floor to ceiling and shuts out all the "daylight. Gas is burned all the day and the "atmosphere is similar to that of a gassing-room. "There is no scientific system of ventilation, and the "operatives cannot remember the windows having ever "been opened. In throwing mills an unpleasant smell "arising from the soap used in the steeping of silk "makes the absence of ventilation more disagreeable "than elsewhere."(5)

(1) pp. 116, 306. (2) p. 72. (3) pp. 117, 129. (4) pp. 100–112. (5) p. 186.

[§ 732 (c.)] (c.) Cloth industry in West of England.

(*c.*) In the cloth mills in the West of England ventilation is "generally bad. Fans are almost untried and windows are seldom opened." In one mill in Trowbridge the menders and spilers' room, which had no ventilation, was connected with another room in which the wool was scoured. The effluvia which escapes so affects the eyes that anyone who is unaccustomed to it cannot keep them open.(1)

(d.) Textile industries in Scotland.

(*d.*) The high temperature and very defective ventilation in the textile trade in the North of Ireland is treated in the next section. In Scotland the same defects are noted, and especially the absence of any method of ensuring good ventilation without exposing the workers to cold or draught. An arrangement commonly met with is that of a "shutter or skylight "in the roof under the control of the worker directly "below it. The looms rise to some height on both "sides of the worker, and she believes the effect to be "to draw down a current of air, which either causes "colds or other evils, or induces her to close the "ventilator to the discomfort of her neighbours. It is "quite common to find the ventilators stuffed with "paper or otherwise closed up, at the instigation of "the women in the immediate vicinity. Frequently, "too, the weaving sheds are ventilated by opening "windows on opposite sides, so that the workers "standing between are exposed to strong currents of "air. There is no doubt that the home training and "personal habits of many of the women help much to "prejudice them against sufficient ventilation, and it "is often difficult to get them to distinguish between "fresh air and a draught; at the same time, it must "be remembered that the nature of their work renders "them extremely sensitive to the latter."(2) In reference to the ill-constructed factories in Bristol, it is stated that "in most cases the only means of "ventilation is by open windows at the side of the "workrooms, and it is not surprising that the ill-clad "women prefer a close atmosphere and warmth to "toothache, stiff neck, and rheumatism, brought on by "exposure to draughts." In reference to this point the president of the Amalgamated Society of Card and Blowing-room Operatives, stated that the workers closed the ventilators themselves, "not because of the fresh air coming in, but because it is so ill-directed."(3) In some cases in Scotland the bad atmosphere is attributed to the rooms being over-crowded with machinery.(2) In the woollen industry in South Scotland, however, the sanitary arrangements are unusually good, though even here the atmosphere was sometimes rather close owing to the windows and ventilators being closed. In the north, the absence of appliances for keeping down the dust in the preparing departments of the flax and jute mills was complained of.(4)

(e.) Laundries.

(*e.*) The high temperature which prevails in laundries is largely due to the conditions of the work, and cannot, therefore, be wholly avoided. From the evidence, however, it appears that it can be greatly mitigated if certain precautions are taken. Air propellers can do a great deal to moderate the excessive heat. Two laundries were visited, in one of which the temperature at the hottest place was 86°, while in the other, where air propellers were used, the highest temperature was 71°. The heat is most severe in the ironing and calendering rooms, where the thermometer frequently registered from 77° to 84°, and in Glasgow in one case even 88°. In one calendering room which contained two calendars (*i.e.*, hot presses), where the temperature was very high, it was found that the "drying horses "had been rolled out of the drying closets, which were "open, and thus overheated the place." A laundress stated that this was a frequent occurrence, and that working under these conditions she had suffered severely in health. Another room was close and hot because it contained collar machines heated with gas, which gave off fumes into the room; it was, moreover, over-crowded with ironers.(5) Such causes would appear preventible. It was recently reported by the Women's Industrial Defence Committee that the London and Provincial Steam Laundry Company manage their laundries "admirably," and "fulfil all the con- "ditions which would be imposed by the most exacting "factory inspector in the matter of sanitation, venti- "lation, and fencing of machinery."(6) In a recent report of an inquiry conducted for the council of the Women's Protective and Provident League of Glasgow, by Miss Irwin, into the conditions of women's work in

(1) p. 145. (2) p. 177. (3) Reports, p. 34; Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Silk 70. (4) pp. 298, 307. (5) pp. 17–18. (6) Report of an Inquiry into the Conditions of Women's Work in Laundries conducted for the Women's Industrial Defence Committee, November 1893, p. 12.

[§ 732 (e.)] laundries, the question of sanitation was especially noted. She attributed the great heat usually found in the ironing rooms to "the almost universal plan of "having the stove for heating irons in the centre of "the room where the workers are. A great degree of "heat is thus radiated throughout the workroom." In larger laundries this can be obviated by placing the stove in an enclosure partitioned off from the workroom. It was noted that this made "a marked difference in the temperature and comfort of the workers." Two large steam laundries were visited on the same day which had equal facilities for separate stove accommodation. In the first, where the stove was in a separate chamber, the highest temperature was 70°, while in the second, where the stove was in the centre of the workroom, the temperature at any point within 12 or 13 yards of it was 86°. In smaller laundries, Miss Irwin stated, it was almost impossible to partition off the stove owing to want of space and structural difficulties. In these cases they were very often over-crowded and badly ventilated also. The same description was given of certain small or cottage hand laundries at Acton and London, which, in addition to their other defects, were often wet and dirty. One grievance that was met with in a steam and in a cottage laundry was that the damp clothes were hung to dry over the heads of the workers, and the water dripped down upon them.(1) In Glasgow "nothing objectionable in the way of dirt or disorder" was observable. "In many of the washing houses," Miss Irwin added, "I have "found arrangements for protecting the feet of the "workers from the sloppy floors, and it seems desirable "that provision in this way should be made in all "cases. In one or two washing houses, where the "floors were of concrete, I met with an excellent "arrangement by which a sloping floor with small "runnels in it prevented the water from collecting." The ventilation in the steam laundries visited in Wales and in the convent laundries in Ireland was found to be "excellent."(2) That in the steam laundries visited in London was described as "sufficient to secure fresh air," except in one place which was "unduly over-crowded." In one workroom it was remarked that the machines were abnormally and dangerously crowded together.(3) As in the case of shop assistants and milliners, the long hours worked make the whole question of sanitation especially important. It may be noted that laundries are only under the Factory Acts in one particular. By a clause in the Act of 1891, factory inspectors are empowered to inspect the sanitary arrangements "upon information received." This clause, it was observed, "does not seem to be known."(4) Strong recommendations are made in the report on the Glasgow laundries for the inclusion of laundries under the Factory and Workshop Acts. This point is, however, dealt with under another head.

(f.) Shops and work-rooms for the making of wearing apparel.

(*f.*) Confinement in a close atmosphere, and in rooms with defective ventilation, is a grievance mentioned with regard to shop assistants, who are under no protection of the law in these matters. This grievance is still more prominent in the case of dressmakers, who constantly work in close, crowded, or cold rooms. In both instances the long hours worked make the question of sanitation especially important. It is not uncommon to find dressmakers working in mid-winter in rooms without any fire or any heating apparatus. In one case the extreme cold brought on erysipelas.(5) Sometimes the rooms were only warmed by the objectionable methods of over-crowding and gas jets. One witness stated that she frequently worked in her jacket until the room became hot from those unwholesome causes. In reference to the sanitation of these workrooms H.M. Inspector for Bristol remarks that "it is a "difficult problem how to secure proper ventilation "and *warming*, both very necessary in a sedentary "occupation in which long hours are commonly pre-"valent."(6) In a detailed report on the conditions of labour of dressmakers, H.M. Inspector for the Southampton district expresses his opinion "that the "certifying surgeon should certify that the factories "and workshops, when overtime is to be made, are fit "for such work. It should always be borne in mind "that in the majority of cases the work is especially "trying, the rooms stuffy and ill-ventilated, and the "air rendered very impure by the large quantity of "gas required to be burned."(7) "The provisions as to over-crowding," said one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, "seem to need more stringent enforcement."(8)

(1) pp. 18–21. (2) pp. 239, 3, 28. (3) p. 17. (4) p. 18. (5) pp. 89, 13, 91. (6) Chief Factory Inspector's Report for 1891, p. 11, Mr. Johnston. (7) Chief Factory Inspector's Report for 1892, p. 90, Mr. Bowling. (8) p. 13.

[§ 732 (g.)] (*g.*) Details are given in the reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners and the appended tables of reference of the very unsatisfactory sanitary condition of a large number of small workshops in great towns such as Birmingham, Liverpool, Manchester, and Glasgow. They appeared only too often to be ill-ventilated, ill-warmed, over-crowded and dirty.(1) In Glasgow especially many of the tailors' workshops were noted as particularly defective. "As a rule they are either "'attic' or what the workers term 'pit' shops. In "the former case they usually consist of long low "garrets, with a 'lean-to' roof, and are reached, it may "be, by five or six flights of close, filthy, evil-smelling "stairs . . . By an almost universal and highly "objectionable arrangement, the tap that supplies the "water for drinking purposes is also to be found in "the limited enclosure of the lavatory. In summer "the heat in these attic workshops is intolerable, "owing to their nearness to the roof and the skylight "windows by which they are lighted, while the slope "in the wall and the ceiling cuts off a large proportion "of the cubic feet of air. In the winter the workers "suffer equally from the cold . . . In the 'pit' "shops there is sometimes an entire absence of "daylight, when the gas is kept burning from morning "till night. These shops, which are practically cellars, "are usually reached by trap-stairs, unlighted and "dangerous of descent to those not familiar with "them. These frequently terminate in close, dark "passages that serve to further cut off the work-"rooms from the outside air. The atmosphere is "usually heavy with the fumes of gas. . . . I have "not found that the fact of a shop being a first-class "one ensures that the accommodation provided for "the workers is superior to that of the lower grade "shops, or that the place a shop occupies in the "trade classification can be taken as any indication of "its sanitary condition and appointments. I have "found clothing factories, slop shops, and Jewish "workshops, though rarely the last-named, in which "the lighting, ventilation, and sanitary accommodation "were admirable, while first-class employers might "be found who lodge their workers in attics or cellars, "where arrangements for health and decency are alike "disregarded."(2)

(g.) Workshops.

733. From the foregoing evidence it appears that the sanitation in these places and industries is greatly in need of improvement. The reiteration of the same complaints of impure atmosphere, closeness, cold, over-crowding of machinery and of workers, the ignorance of or indifference to sanitary principles on the part of many employers, managers, foremen, and also of the workers themselves, the absence of necessary sanitary appliances such as ventilators, air propellers, &c., is very striking. Putting aside the special cases in the textile industries in which the process performed is inherently unhealthy, there appeared to be no reason why the abuses detailed above should not be remedied to a very large extent. The fact that in not a few instances, mills in all districts of the textile trade, workshops, laundries, shops and dressmaking establishments were found, in which the sanitation and general arrangements were on all points overything that could be desired, supports this view. What appears to be necessary is the promulgation and enforcement of some "system of ventilation which will give a sufficient "supply of fresh air, without causing bad draughts."(3) This would overcome the very natural objections of the women workers. No doubt difficulty and expense would be entailed in many cases, more especially where the workshops and factories are unsuitably constructed. But further administrative steps would seem to be required in order to fulfil the clause in the Factory Act which decrees that factories and workshops shall be kept in a "cleanly state," not "over-crowded" and "well ventilated." One of the Lady Sub-Commissioners suggests that "at the very least "some rule might be made and insisted on that "all appliances for ventilation should be put into use "during meal hours."(4) She further advocates "the "simple and effective method of raising the window "some 10 or 12 inches and introducing a board to fit "this aperture, while a supply of fresh air is allowed "to escape upwards between the open halves of the "window." When this was explained it was usually "welcomed as an easy and inexpensive form of "ventilation." "Tobin's ventilators" have been introduced in some of the newer factories with great success. "Excellent ventilation" was provided in several flax and jute mills in the West of Scotland by

Question how far these defects are preventible.

(1) pp. 50, 72, 75–8, 269–70. (2) p. 269. (3) p. 176. (4) p. 298.

[§ 733.] means of "circular fans" and "patent air exhausters." In one case where electric light had been substituted for gas, the employer had noted "a marked improvement in the health of the workers."(1) This improvement had also been effected in two silk mills.(2) Another most necessary step appears to be the inclusion of some provision for warmth in the requirements for the sanitary condition of workshops and factories.(3) The recently appointed local sanitary inspector in Nottingham, Miss Hawkesley, asked one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners to report the fact that she has "found many workshops and factories in- "sufficiently warmed, and that the desire to secure "warmth is constantly the cause of the absence of "ventilation for which insufficiently warmed rooms are "remarkable."(4)

II. HEALTH.

A. ESPECIALLY DANGEROUS OR UNHEALTHY PROCESSES IN CERTAIN EMPLOYMENTS.

tton, en, and x indus- es. .) *Lan- shire.*

734. (*a.*) The special processes in cotton, linen, and flax manufacture which cause injury to health are heavy steaming, wet spinning, sizing and carding. In some cases the danger lies in the high temperature, in others in the dust necessitated by the particular process. "Sizing," said a cotton manufacturer, "is absolutely necessary to make the yarn weave at all." In order to make the atmosphere damp enough to work upon the cotton yarn, the air has to be "artificially humidified" by means of steam. The greater the amount of size, the greater the amount of steam necessary. Hence arises the grievance of "heavy steaming." Steam is usually injected in jets; sometimes the floor is flooded with water. As the object is to keep the atmosphere very moist, as little ventilation as possible is allowed. This system has very baneful effects on the health of the workers, and it was the grievances on this score that the Cotton Cloth Factory Act of 1889 was designed to meet.(5) By this Act the degree of the temperature and the amount of moisture in the air was regulated. Complaints are, however, made by the Lancashire operatives, that although great improvements have been thus effected, it is impossible for the Act to be thoroughly administered with the present staff of inspectors, and that evasions of the law are of frequent occurrence. Two assistants have recently been appointed to assist Mr. Osborn to whom was given the administration of the Act, which he reports is now better carried out. But Mr. Birtwistle, secretary to the North-east Lancashire Association, and another weaver were of opinion that the work of inspection was "more than half a dozen" could attend to.(6) The Lady Sub-Commissioner who visited Lancashire stated that after her inspection of a certain mill she had "learned "from the operatives that the steam had been turned "off and the thermometer watered immediately before "(she) passed through." She was also informed that this was habitually done twice a day at the time appointed under the Act for registering the temperature. She further adds "Where steam-jets are used they are "frequently within a few inches of the weavers' heads, "and where this is so they complain of severe headache. "Much suffering is also caused by the condition of "the floors, which from condensed steam and frequent "'digging' (*i.e.*, flooding with water) are always damp. "In one mill the weavers state that the water rises "above the top of their clogs, and I have myself found "most of the floors in a very wet and dangerous "condition. When the warps are heavily sized the "steam or water mixes with the size dust and forms a "slippery mixture upon which it is difficult to walk. "Two recent accidents from this cause were reported. "A tackler slipped while carrying a beam and died "from the effect of the fall two days afterwards. A "weaver also fell and, catching his arm in the wheel "of a loom, was seriously injured. Rheumatism is very "common in these mills. . . . All the weavers I "have seen complain of general prostration and of "rheumatic pains. The former they attribute to the "excessive heat of the shed, and the latter to the "sudden change from the hot atmosphere laden with "moisture to the cold outer air in the winter or even "in the summer months. Steam is most heavily used "in the winter, but some continue its use throughout "the year." An important suggestion was made by the manager of a mill in Tyldesley. He stated that he had once held the common opinion that heavy steaming was essential to the manufacture of cotton cloth under the present condition of the trade. But he had now proved that a better quality of cloth could be made from the same quality of cotton, and at the same cost, if the "softening" were introduced into the size while the warp is "slashed" instead of being introduced by the aid of steam whilst it is woven. "His experience had "extended over several years, and he found that the "looms under this system produce the same amount per "week as they did under the old."(1) Complaints were also made both in Ireland and Lancashire with regard to the dangerous effects of dust and fluff generated by certain processes. Thus the salts and China clay used in the size for cotton warps in Lancashire is condemned by the weavers. Several women were noticed whose lips were coated with white size dust, and the medical officers of this district attribute to this cause the various forms of lung disease from which weavers suffer who are employed on heavily-sized warps.(1) The same evil effects were produced from the fine fibrous dust in the cardrooms in Lancashire and in preparing rooms in the flax mills in Ireland. In the former district it was almost always noticed even in lofty rooms where the air was clear. When a poorer quality of cotton is used, there is, in addition to the dust, a considerable quantity of "fluff." In the great majority of cases the condition of the operatives' clothes and hair revealed the fact that dust was being rapidly generated, and demonstrated the need of careful ventilation. The use of fans in card-rooms was, however, exceptional. Examination of the few which existed showed that they "extract" or take away a large quantity of dust.(2) It was stated by the secretary of the Blackburn Weavers' Association that "90 per cent. of the weavers die from chest diseases, pneumonia, bronchitis, and phthisis." He further corroborated Dr. Barwin's opinion that the death-rate amongst ordinary weavers is much greater than that amongst ordinary people, and greater amongst those from 15 to 25 years of age than amongst older people.(3)

[§ 734 (*a*)]

(*b.*) The same terrible effects were ascribed to very much the same causes in Ireland. Not only do the linen operatives suffer from the high temperature as already mentioned, but the health of those employed in the carding and preparing rooms is injured by the flax dust. In a few cases the ventilation was good, but more often it was bad; there were either no fans or not enough of them. The statutory regulations regarding the temperature and moisture in the cotton and flax mills of England and Scotland do not appear to apply to the linen and flax mills in Ireland. In many of the wet spinning rooms the excessive moisture in the air makes the women and children wet through. In only a few cases do the firms supply waterproof aprons to the spinners in the rooms. It may be noted that by clause 37 of the Factory Act, "a child, young person or woman "shall not be employed in any part of a factory "in which wet spinning is carried on, unless "sufficient means be employed and continued for "protecting the workers from being wetted, and, where "hot water is used, for preventing the escape of steam "into the room occupied by the workers." The attempt is only occasionally made to drain the water from the floors and to take preventive measures.(4) In a cotton mill at Johnstone in West Scotland it was observed that care had been taken to prevent the usual discomfort to the workers attendant on "wet spinning." The frames were protected by boards some 8 or 10 inches high, which keep the water from wetting the floor and the clothes of the workers.(5) This appears to be such a simple remedy that its universal application might well be enforced. Medical evidence was given as to the very injurious effects of the high temperature and the moisture in weaving sheds and wet spinning rooms on the health of the worker, and especially upon the children employed.(6) Abundant medical evidence was brought forward on the subject of the injurious effects produced on the health of the operatives of Belfast by the conditions of labour. These, in the opinion of Dr. Purdon, the physician to the Consumptive Hospital at Belfast, were particularly noticeable in the case of children, and various recommendations on this point and on the half-time system were made by him. He further stated that the present high mortality from consumption in the city was principally due to the unhealthiness of the various occupations in linen spinning and weaving mills. It was noted that in the smoothing rooms, when irons were heated by gas, the air was much vitiated and the girls complained of headache and finally of chest affections. Dr. Purdon stated in this connection that he believes "smoothers" to be specially subject to

(b.) Ireland.

(1) pp. 176, 199-3. (2) p. 136. (3) p. 13. (4) p. 162. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Noble, 3175-80; Rawlinson, 2742; Chief Factory Inspector's Report for 1891, p. 7. (6) Reports, p. 117, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Birtwistle, 1306; Barker, 1836.

(1) p. 117. (2) pp. 116-18. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Barker, 1837-42, 1889. (4) pp. 323-4. (5) p. 190. (6) pp. 322-4.

[§ 734 (b.)] phthisis, and that he has noticed frequent cases of pharyngitis amongst them, which he considers is produced by the gas-wasted atmosphere in which they work.(1) Ten persons were visited in the Royal Hospital and in the Workhouse Infirmary at Belfast, of whose illnesses details are given. One woman of 28 was in an advanced stage of phthisis. She attributed it to the high temperature and gassy atmosphere of the smoothing room in which she had worked. Four other women of 25, 26, 33, and 35 were suffering from the same complaint, brought on by work in the preparing rooms of flax mills. In another case bronchitis was produced. Three girls of 14, 16, and 17 who had worked in "spinning rooms" in the moist heat on a wet floor were now suffering from rheumatism. A woman of 28 who had worked in a weaving shed, where she had suffered greatly from the damp and intense heat, had been attacked by both rheumatic fever and bronchitis. It was stated that in the year 1891–2 the Society for providing Nurses for the Sick Poor in Belfast had had 150 deaths from lung disease out of 202. "Out of a total of 804 cases treated during the "year, 460 were different forms of lung disease. The "women suffering from consumption are almost in- "variably mill workers. The nurses constantly find "cases when several members of a family, all of whom "had been healthy, die of consumption induced by their "mill and factory work." The following case was quoted: A man and his wife who were quite healthy, and came, moreover, of healthy families, had seven children, five of whom died of consumption at the respective ages of 16, 17, 18, 19 and 36. The son, who died at the age of 36, had lost two children of the same disease at the ages of 16 and 18. In all these cases, the children had begun to work in a large spinning mill, between the ages of 10 and 11.(1) But the most startling fact of all is supplied by the statistics drawn up for the Belfast Town Council by the medical officer of health. He states that of the 6,537 deaths registered during the last year (1891), 1,017 are attributable to phthisis, whilst 1,784 are due to disease of the respiratory organs. In the preceding year (1890), 2,787 persons had died from "pulmonary affections." He further discusses the causes of this "terrible loss of life." The town though badly situated and damp, is, he remarks, otherwise healthy and not generally overcrowded. "As is well known, "a large proportion of our working-class population "is employed in mills and factories, and I would point "out that the nature of their employment must cause "any of them having a predisposition to chest affec- "tions to be ready sufferers therefrom. Breathing as "they do, a close heated atmosphere, laden with "particles of flax dust, fibrous and other matters "irritating to the lungs; going from thence directly "it may be, into the cold, damp, or frosty air; poor "and lightly clad; often too young (especially the "female workers) to bear the exposure to which they "are subjected, it is hardly to be wondered at that "the mortality from these diseases is as great as it is. "There is little doubt but that any arrangement by "which these changes of temperature could be made "less frequent or less trying would be attended with "considerable benefit to the health of the workers. "Unhealthy occupations principally affect the respira- "tory organs. The dust of the flax in the manufacture "of our staple industry is a serious cause of bronchitis "and phthisis, and should lead if possible to greater "supervision in the ventilation or filtration of the air "in our large spinning mills." He further advocated "an alteration of the hours of labour so as to commence "later in the morning, especially during the winter "months, if practicable.(2) In face of such statistics as those just quoted from the last report of the Belfast medical officer, the importance of regulations concerning temperature can hardly be over-estimated. Regulations concerning the degree of temperature and moisture such as those enforced by the Cotton Cloth Act in the cotton mills in England, are, as before stated, wanting in the case of the linen and flax mills in Ireland. Those concerning ventilation in the Factory and Workshop Act of 1878 apply indifferently to England, Scotland, and Ireland. It is there enacted that factories and workshops should be "ventilated "in such a manner as to render harmless, so far as "practicable, all the gases, vapours, dust, or other "impurities generated in the course of the manufac- "turing process or handicraft carried on therein that "may be injurious to health." If this were thoroughly carried out, it would meet most of the grievances detailed above. For instance, one flax-spinning mill was visited in Johnstone in West Scotland, in which "excellent ventilation" was provided by means of "circular fans and patent air-exhausters."(1) There is however, a provision in the Factory and Workshop Act of 1891 by which the Secretary of State is empowered to step in and make whatever provision he sees fit for the safety or comfort of the workers in any "process" which, in his opinion, is "dangerous or injurious to health." It is under clause 8 of this Act,— "special rules and requirements as to dangerous or "unhealthy incidents of employment"—that any of the unsatisfactory conditions under which the linen and flax industry is carried on could be remedied. [§ 734 (b.)]

(1) p. 324. (2) Appendix, Reports, p. 330.

735. (*a.*) Complaints were received in Yorkshire and other centres of the textile industries with reference to the unhealthiness of various occupations or processes occasioned by the materials used and the imperfect ventilation. In wool combing the temperature was said to be extremely high—towards the end of the week the workers believe it rises as high as 100°. This was corroborated by a member of the Bradford and District Machine Wool Combers' Association, who stated that the dust and heat made that occupation peculiarly unhealthy. The lowest temperature at which they worked was 80°, and the usual temperature was between 90° and 100°. The appliances for ventilation were, he asserted, in a very defective condition.(2) All the women interviewed who worked in wool-combing sheds complained of the effects of the intense heat upon their health; one witness said that she had been ill for seven weeks in consequence.(3) A Bradford employer subsequently stated that in the wool-combing department of his own mills the temperature would not rise above 70°.(4) Other textile industries. (*a.*) *Wool combing.*

(*b.*) The conditions of labour in rag sorting, rag picking, rag weaving, and kindred trades, where the character of the material used presents peculiar difficulties, were also complained of. It was stated that large quantities of the rags are foreign, and arrive in a filthy condition, having been closely packed together, sometimes for over 12 months. These are sorted and picked and carbonised for the manufacture of "shoddy," and in most places where this is done "the atmosphere is foul and loaded with dust." After a visit to one place, where the atmosphere was particularly offensive, the Lady Sub-Commissioner who was investigating this trade was attacked by "shoddy fever," a complaint from which new hands suffer. The injurious effects of the process of carbonising were brought forward by the women workers, and it was noted that the atmosphere was affected by hydrochloric acid gas, which was escaping from imperfect pipes. It appeared, however, that the conditions of labour were capable of a good deal of improvement. In Mr. Mark Oldroyd's shed at Dewsbury certain classes of rags were shaken before being sorted, and both this shed and that of Mr. Eli Townsend at Ossett, who had introduced "fans," "compared favourably with the usual standard in the district."(5) A "model" rag factory was also instanced at Leith. "Every possible means were taken to "minimise the disagreeable features necessarily be- "longing to the work. The rooms are large, and "there is ample floor space, and even in the depart- "ments where the materials dealt with were most "uncleanly, the atmosphere was not unpleasant to any "serious degree."(6) The general conditions in shoddy and flock manufactures in the West of England were better than in Yorkshire. A good deal of the sorting is done after the rags have been washed.(6) In reference to this subject, a representative of the West Riding of Yorkshire Weavers' Association expressed his opinion "that the rag industry, which the heavy "woollen district is much noted for, ought to have "some kind of inspection or examination accorded to "it, on account of the dirty nature of so much of the "material that comes from abroad."(7) Similar defects with regard to dust and ventilation were observed in the rag-weaving sheds in Yorkshire, though in these cases the dust was not of such an objectionable character.(2) (*b.*) *Rag picking and sorting, &c.*

(*c.*) The evils arising from the use of defective appliances where gas is used, as in the case of "calendering," "ironing," "smoothing," "carbonising," &c., have already been incidentally touched upon. In the silk manufacture, "gassing" is considered particularly unhealthy. This process is when the thread is passed rapidly over gas jets to remove the (*c.*) *Gassing.*

(1) p. 190. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Heptonstall, 5907–16. (3) p. 100. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Arnold Forster, 6456–60. (5) p. 296. (6) p. 144. (7) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Turner, 5783.

[§ 735 (c).] loose fibre. Notwithstanding considerable window ventilation, the atmosphere of one mill in Yorkshire was found to be loaded with the products of gas combustion and very much heated. Dr. Bell, of Bradford, it was stated, is strongly of opinion that employment in the gassing room is very injurious to health, and it was noted that the women thus employed looked unhealthy; some extremely so.(1) In the cloth trade in Cheshire and Staffordshire the same process was carried on under the same conditions, and the same complaints as regards the effect upon the health were made. The gassing rooms were, as a rule, ill-ventilated, or, if well-ventilated, structurally unsuitable.(2)

(d.) Fustian and velvet cutting.

(*d.*) Fustian and velvet cutting was mentioned as another unhealthy industry. The woven cloth is soaked in lime before it is placed on the long frames on which it is stretched and cut. The women believe that the lime dust which arises during the last process is injurious to the lungs and the sight. It was observed that no provision was made for extracting this lime dust. Some witnesses complained of prostration and injury to the feet caused by the distance walked daily in the factory in the course of the work. This was estimated by the medical officer of health to be as much as 30 miles. He was of opinion that fustian and velvet cutters suffered especially from "anæmia and affections of the feet."(3)

White lead industry. (a.) Nature and extent of lead poisoning in North of England.

736. (*a*). A special investigation into the conditions of employment of women in the manufacture of white lead was made by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners. She states in her report (December 1892) that in spite of the rules now in force for the protection of operatives, "a "considerable number of women and girls are affected by "lead poisoning after having worked but a few months "or weeks, and some of these die within two or three "days, in a state of coma. Many recover from the "first attack, are suspended from work by the doctor's "order, return after the prescribed period has elapsed, "become poisoned again, and die from the effects of "their work at a later period." As a great many die after they have taken up some other work, and also from diseases indirectly induced by lead poisoning, it is impossible to obtain complete statistics as to the deaths really due to that cause. Within five years 135 cases of lead poisoning were admitted into the Newcastle Infirmary, 94 women and 41 men; eight of the patients died. The inquests held from 1889 to 1892 in the Newcastle district show 23 deaths attributed to lead poisoning; 22 women and one man. The majority of the deaths occur between the ages of 17 and 30, although by the Factory Acts anyone under 18 years old is prohibited from working in the white lead industry. Sixteen persons suffering from lead poisoning were examined and details of their symptoms were obtained, of which the chief were colic, convulsions, "wristdrop," blindness, and paralysis. It was constantly stated that the children of married workers died in convulsions at their birth.(4) Corroborative evidence was also given by male white lead workers before the Commission as to the injurious effects of the occupation on the health of women.(5) Three cases of sudden death from lead poisoning were supplied by Dr. Oliver, Physician to the Royal Infirmary, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

Medical opinion on the subject.

He held very strong opinions as to the special danger of this employment for women, and summarised his opinion and experience thus: (1) "That women suffer much more frequently and severely than men." (2) "That women "suffer at an earlier age than men: that, for example, "of the 135 patients admitted to the Newcastle In-"firmary, whilst up to the age of 23 no men were "affected, 49 women had already suffered." (3) "That "acute lead poisoning attended by cerebral symptoms "is much more fatal amongst women than amongst "men." He further dwelt on the special disabilities of women. "The baths which constitute a necessary "precaution against lead poisoning should be used with-"out intermission by lead-workers. Women at the age "when they are usually employed in the factories are "unable to avail themselves of this precaution from "time to time unless they run very serious risks as "regards their general health." He laid great stress on the injurious results to the children of the women who work in the white lead industry; this is treated under the head "Married Women." The detailed reports of the visits paid to white lead works in Newcastle, and the evidence given by workers themselves amply corroborate his very unfavourable opinion. In the year 1891–2, 29 workers (of whom 27 were women) were suspended at one firm by the doctor's orders out of a working staff of 30 people. At another [§ 736 (a).] firm 111 out of a staff of 154, among whom were very few men, were suspended. At some other works, of which the index number is 493 (not in Newcastle) it was stated that ten women and two men had died from lead poisoning within the last four years. In this case, however, the legal regulations were little attended to, and the conditions under which the work was carried on were peculiarly miserable.(1)

(b.) Evidence from Scotland, and of H.M. Inspectors of Factories.

(*b.*) In other places it would appear that this industry is much less unfavourably regarded and that the effects produced by it are less serious. Some white lead works were visited at Glasgow where "the majority of the women seemed disposed to make light of the danger to health arising from the lead dust. Their immunity, however, appeared to arise chiefly from the intermittent character and short duration of their labour. The manager of the works stated that they reckoned on losing one worker every three months through sickness. Very few cases of lead poisoning were reported from the infirmary, and the medical officer of the lead works stated that no death from lead poisoning had occurred ever since the works were opened about 15 years ago. There was an occasional case of lead colic which caused inability to work for a few days. "This occurs mostly in cases where the "general surroundings are bad, causing impairment of "the general health and thereby predisposing to ill-"ness." "The state of matters," he adds, "which "I see reported from the Newcastle district has no "existence here."(2) The reports of H.M. Superintending Inspector for Scotland and the north of England also give a less grave account of the actual conditions prevailing and the effect of the occupation upon the health of the workers than that given by the Lady Sub-Commissioner. Stress is laid upon the great improvement that has taken place since this industry was brought under the Factory Acts in 1883, which the recent addition of "special rules" has accentuated. With regard to Newcastle it is stated that, in the opinion of two medical officers in charge of three large lead factories, lead poisoning, especially in its more serious forms, is on the decrease. This was especially the case in a white lead factory where the rules are strictly enforced and where a weekly medical examination of all the workpeople has been practised since 1888. In that year half the number of those employed suffered from some form of lead poisoning. In 1892, the number had decreased to one-third.(3) This proportion, however, coming as it does from one of the best conducted factories is sufficiently large to indirectly support the Lady Sub-Commissioner's view of the gravity of the situation. It is stated that the "difficulties in dealing with this particular employment "are materially increased by the carelessness, neglect, "and stupidity of the people themselves." At Newcastle the work is unskilled, heavy, and laborious, but the hours are short and the pay fairly good. Owing to the few openings for women's labour in this district there is keen competition for admission to the white lead works. One woman at Hebburn died, because, as she was the bread-winner of the family, after having felt signs of lead poisoning she went on working instead of reporting herself ill. In other cases women rejected at one factory as "unfit," secure work at another under false names and addresses. Again they misrepresent their age. A girl of 17 recently died who had given her age as 23.(4) It is also stated upon medical authority that it is those "with a family predisposition to lead poisoning" and "the weak, the careless, the ill-cared for, and the dissipated, who suffer chiefly." It is, however, remarked that it would be "a libel" to say that these constituted "the majority of the female workers in white lead factories." "I do not see why," writes the medical officer of some lead works in Scotland where not a single death had occurred from this cause in the last 10 years, "we should not have com "plete immunity from this illness, if the workers "themselves would only avail themselves of the means "which are there provided for their protection."(5)

(c.) Inquiry of Lady Sub-Commissioner into working of "special rules."

(*c.*) But the chief complaint in most of the white lead factories visited by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners in England is that adequate means are not provided for the protection of the workpeople. The working of the "special rules" now in force in this industry was carefully noted, and various suggestions and recommendations were made.(6) It is enacted that "occupiers" shall provide sufficient bath accommo-

(1) p. 100. (2) p. 136. (3) p. 141. (4) pp. 151-5. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. III., Grieg, 21, 802-5.

(1) pp. 151-5. (2) p. 285. (3) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, p. 16. (4) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, pp. 14, 17, 19. (5) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, pp. 15, 19. (6) pp. 152-3.

[§ 736 (c.)] dation for all men and women employed. In many cases that provided was found to be insufficient. In one factory there was only one bath for all workpeople, both men and women. Occupiers must, by the special rules, further arrange for a weekly visit by a doctor, who shall examine every worker individually. In one factory it was stated that the doctor has only paid one visit during the last few years, and in another, that though he paid a weekly visit he did not examine the patients individually, but only called out their names. Superintendents and persons in charge of departments are required "to cause each man or woman to take a bath at least once a week." Besides the difficulty that is occasioned by inadequate accommodation, it was pointed out that in performing a dangerous process such as "drawing a stove," which frequently takes two days, a bath should be taken on each day. At some lead works near Glasgow the manager stated that women could use the baths at most once a week; that this rule was difficult to enforce, but they "would "be spoken to, if more than three or four weeks passed "without a bath being taken."(1) The rule as to the cleanliness of baths, &c., &c., was "fairly well kept," except that the baths were sometimes discovered to have a deposit of lead at the bottom. The rule providing for a sufficiency of towels, &c., in the bathrooms was "certainly not universally observed." In one case there was only one small one for all the women, so that they were "obliged to use their own clothes," in another the towels were in "a disgusting condition." In only one instance (the Mersey White Lead Company) was the rule enacting that a sufficient supply of sulphuric acid, or other sanitary drink, should be provided and taken, fully carried out. Another rule requires that an order on the visiting doctor shall be given to anyone complaining of being unwell. All the witnesses from factory 493 state, that when they have demanded it, it has been refused. Hence they are obliged to go to the workhouse. The operatives in some cases objected that the overall suits which they are obliged to wear during certain processes do "not prevent the lead dust from reaching "their persons, also, that it is impossible to continue "work in the stoves or white beds whilst wearing a "respirator." The respirators provided in some places were stated to be unsuitable or useless. The woollen ones in use in some places "after frequent washing, shrink until they hardly cover the mouth." It is enacted that in certain departments in which dangerous processes are carried on special attention should be paid to ventilation. To this rule it was found "little attention was paid." It appeared that out of the six white lead factories registered in Newcastle in only one were all the rules "fully carried out."(2) In spite of this, however, H.M. Inspector for that district remarks, with reference to the amended special rules, "that the employers loyally endeavour to carry them out."(3)

(d.) Recommendations and suggestions.

(d.) The following suggestions were made by various persons giving evidence on this subject to the Lady Sub-Commissioner. (i.) That the number of baths should be regulated according to the number of people, and that persons "drawing a stove" should be enabled to take a bath each day. (ii.) That the examining doctor should be responsible to the Government instead of, as at present, to the employer. (iii.) That a chemical solution should be used to ensure the absolute cleanliness of the baths. (iv.) That the rule which prescribes that every white bed, &c. should be thoroughly watered, should be extended so as to include the watering of stove floors before sweeping. (v.) It was observed that the women who carried trays of dried lead from the stoves to the barrels were not supplied with respirators. The work is especially dusty, as a man stands by and beats down every trayful of lead which the women tilt off their heads into the barrel. At the works of the Mersey White Lead Company several barrels were placed in a row, so that the women were not obliged to return to the barrel from which the dust was rising. It was observed that the compulsory adoption of machinery for pressing appeared "particularly desirable." (vi.) It was further noted that in the regulation with regard to dust, no attempt is made to protect the hands and arms of the workers which come constantly in contact with the lead, and that in those relating to the special ventilation of certain departments, no mention is made of "white beds," though these are often "filled with dust and absolutely unventilated."(4) These defects would appear to be partially met by the methods adopted in the lead works of Messrs. Alexander Fergus & Co., at Ruchill, near Glasgow. "Flexible tables have been "fitted up in the stack by which the white beds can be "thoroughly saturated with water without any difficulty. "Where this hose is not in use and the water has to be "carried by hand, there is a temptation to stint it in "quantity." (vii.) In the same works also "the most "laborious part of the work, the carrying of the blue "lead to the stack, and the carrying of the carbonised "lead from the white bed to the grinding rollers is "greatly mitigated by the use of hoists. The ordinary "weight of a tray full of lead carried on the women's "heads in these operations is 50 lbs. This is severe "labour and the success with which the plan at the "Ruchill works is carried on convinces me that there "is no necessity for it."(1) (viii.) The process usually admitted to be the most dangerous is that of "drawing stoves." At the works of Messrs. Cookson and Co. at Howden, in the Newcastle district, this process has been abolished and replaced by an entirely unobjectionable system, which has not affected the excellence of the material. Messrs. Locke, Blacketts are also trying a new system of drying by rapid motion.(2) A patent process with the same object was also mentioned by one of H.M. Inspectors which had been recently introduced by Messrs. Johnson & Sons, Limited, with the same object. "The manager speaks highly of the "process. As contrasted with the stoves one man "does the work of nine. Accepting the utility, the "sanitary advantages are obvious and manifest."(3) It is stated that at Messrs. Cookson's works the percentage of illness has become very low since the abolition of the stoves.(4) (ix.) Two recommendations were made by Mr. Slaen, the manager of the Mersey White Lead Company where every regulation appeared to be made to ensure the safety of the workers. He recommended concrete instead of wooden floors in those departments in which vibration is caused by the machinery. Dust is thrown up from a wooden floor, whereas this cannot occur with stone or concrete. (x.) He also provides a gargle for those working in dusty parts of the factory and encourages his workpeople to leave their work for a few minutes if possible every hour throughout the day and use it.(5) (xi.) Another preventive measure is "the practice of giving cooked food to white lead workers," which strengthens their power of resistance to the influence of the poison. The health of the workers in factories where this is done compares favourably with that in other places. Thus at the "well regulated" works at Ruchill, "a breakfast of porridge is "given, and soup or broth with meat in it to the women "engaged at the stoves." The medical officer reports, "I have not had a single case of sickness for a con-"siderable time . . . There are a good many "women there now who have been employed for many "years, and who look as well, and are as fit for work "as when first employed, and many who are married "are at present healthy, happy mothers." At the works at Hebburn, the women are given milk before beginning work, soup at dinner time, and beer if employed in charging or drawing stoves. At the end of the first year after this plan had been adopted, it was found out that the medical order had decreased by 23 per cent. The medical officer of this firm attributed the recent "marked improvement in the health of the workers," to three factors: (1) The enforcement of the most scrupulous cleanliness; (2) Regular and careful inspection; (3) The provision of a substantial daily meal.(6) The evidence collected in the Lady Sub-Commissioner's report on the subject of the white lead industry in England points undoubtedly to the special susceptibility of women to lead poisoning, and as the result of his experience the manager of the Mersey White Lead Manufacturing Company was of opinion that women should not be employed in the dangerous portions of the work, for which the nature of their clothes renders them particularly unsuitable. In his own factory they only work upon "blue beds," which are quite harmless.(7) On the other hand it would appear from the other evidence already quoted, that if the workers are in sound health, and the "special rules," which would seem to require slight expansion, are rigidly enforced; and if, again, various suggestions and recommendations in the direction of improved methods in some cases voluntarily followed were universally adopted, the dangers attending this particular industry would be reduced to a minimum. The Lady Sub-Commissioner

[§ 736 (d.)]

(1) p. 284. (2) p. 154-5. (3) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, p. 20. (4) p. 153.

(1) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, p. 17. (2) p. 153. (3) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, p. 20 (4) p. 155. (5) p. 153. (6) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892 pp 16, 18. (7) pp. 153-4.

[§ 736 (*d.*)] summarises her conclusions thus, "Although the two "most dangerous conditions in the manufacture of "white lead are found in white beds and in the stoves, "in all its stages, except that of the blue beds, there is "a certain amount of risk; and this is true in spite of "all care. The risk is diminished or increased accord- "ing to the precautions adopted; so that a relatively "harmless process, under careless management, may "become more injurious than even "white beds" or "stoves," when the proper precautions are taken. "Lead may be taken into the system through the skin "and through the respiratory and digestive organs. "The means of prevention are mainly within the "power of the employers."(1)

Summary of report of the Departmental Committee on the White Lead Industry. (C.7239).

737. The Departmental Committee appointed in April 1893 to investigate the various lead industries have just issued their report (December 1893). The conclusions on the subject of the conditions of employment in white lead works corroborate to a very large extent those arrived at by the Lady Sub-Commissioner who made this the subject of special inquiry in England. As has been shown in the preceding paragraph her main contentions were: that though certain processes in white lead manufacture were more harmful than others, all were attended with some danger; that women, and especially young women, were more susceptible to lead poisoning than men; that even where the existing special rules were fully carried out, they required expansion on some points. The following is a brief summary of the conclusions contained in the report of the Departmental Committee. It will be seen by comparison with the previous section that the recommendations there made with regard to the special rules are not in all points of detail identical with those contained in this report. The defects noted, however, were in the main the same. The Committee record their belief that "lead and all its "compounds are in a greater or less degree poisonous "and that the handling or use of each, or of all of them, "is attended by danger." They were further of opinion that (*a*) women are more susceptible to lead poisoning than men, and (*b*) young girls than full grown women. On account of the impossibility of altogether obviating the dangers inherent in the white lead industry the Committee recommend, (1) "that no girl under the age of 20" be employed in a white lead factory, and (2) "that no woman be employed in the "white beds, the rollers, the wash-becks, the stoves, or "in packing dry white lead, and that these departments "should consequently be worked in future only by "adult males." Having regard to the drastic nature of the proposed change, they would suggest that this provision should not come into force until January 1896. In four works which were visited the women were excluded from all direct contact with white lead. The opinion was expressed that the number of women who would have to be replaced owing to this provision would not be more than 600. The Committee noticed "that "the works in which the largest number of cases of "lead poisoning have occurred are those where there "has been the least expenditure of money and care in "precautionary measures for the health of the opera- "tives." They are glad to report that the "Special "Rules issued in 1892, especially those having regard "to the weekly bath and to the periodical medical "examination, have been attended with most beneficial "effects." The Committee attach "the utmost impor- "tance to cleanliness, to the medical inspection, and to "a sufficiency of good food." They trust that the custom of certain firms who give their employées some food, either before beginning work, at eleven o'clock, or at the dinner-hour, will become universal in the trade. The Committee further recommend the following addition to the existing "Special Rules." (3) The institution of a medical examination previous to the employment of women. (4) The requirement of a medical certificate after absence through illness, before re-employment, for both sexes. Any worker attempting to evade this rule should be liable to a fine. (5) The requirement of a certificate of birth or baptism, or other proof of age, for women, before employment. (6) The reduction of the price of such certificate to not more than 6*d*. (7) The adoption of the overalls and head covering for women in the blue beds and all parts of the works. (8) The provision of shoes and stockings for all women employed, and the enforced wearing of these during working hours. (9) The provision of a dining-room. (10) The provision of a "stand-pipe or "movable hose, furnished with a rose at the end of it, "and with an adequate supply of water for damping "the white bed previous to stripping it." Suggestions were further made, (*a*) that "no white bed should be stripped before it is 'mature.'" (*b*) That the attention of manufacturers should be directed to the danger arising from the immersion of the hands and arms of the workers in the liquid containing lead which is taken from the wash-becks. It is suggested that employers may "either treat this washing water from the first "tank below the rollers in such a manner as to render "it free from acetate of lead in solution, or discontinue "the practice of allowing the workpeople to put their "hands into it." (*c*) The suggestion is made that "the "best form of respirator is one which is in use at some "works, and consists of a cambric bag, with or without "a thin flexible wire, which can be made to fit over the "nose." The Committee remark that they have "heard from many sources that there is often great "difficulty in enforcing the regulations laid down by "the Government and by employers for the safety of "the workers. They trust that the latter will co- "operate with their employers to remedy this in "future." They further add that they "do not think "that the precautionary measures they have felt bound "to recommend, will press so heavily upon employers "as to materially hamper them. But they are agreed "that an industry attended with so much risk to life "and health as the white lead manufacture, the same "precautionary measure must be taken by all classes "of employers as an essential to their continuance."

(1) p. 152.

[§ 737.]

Potteries. (*a.*) *Extent and causes of unhealthy conditions.*

738. (*a.*) The unhealthy processes in the potteries fall mainly under two heads. Those in which the work is carried on in an excessively high temperature and those in which the atmosphere is vitiated by dust generated in course of manufacture. It appeared from the evidence collected by the Lady Sub-Commissioners who investigated the conditions of women's work in the English and Scotch potteries, that the enforcement of a scientific system of ventilation was urgently needed. The grievances chiefly complained of in the Staffordshire potteries appeared to come under the second head. In such processes as "dipping," "glazing," and "towing," it was stated, the lead dust has an injurious effect upon the health of the worker. With reference to towing it was observed that "the dust was supposed "to be taken down a shaft at the back of the hutch, "and forced out by an air-propeller; but this fan was "not working at a sufficiently high speed and there "was hardly any draught." Again, "This factory was "an old and large one, with rooms in unexpected "places, which seemed to render supervision both "difficulty and necessary. The rooms were also very "badly ventilated, although the dust in these factories "or 'banks' is so great as to make ventilation of the "utmost importance." It was noted that the room in which the girls were brushing off the glaze from the ware that had been dipped and dried was "very dark, badly ventilated, and, by the manager's own admission, unnecessarily hot." One witness said that her daughter, aged 15, who worked at the potteries was tempted by the higher wages to become a "ware cleaner." Her work was to brush off the glaze which contains lead dust from the dried ware. She was taken ill with lead poisoning and died within two days. "The employers had been much concerned about the "matter, and had since provided the girls in the glost "room with overall dresses, hoods, and respirators."(1) Another case was mentioned before the Commission, by the agent of the United Firemen's, Dippers' and Placers' Association, of a girl of 17 who died in three days from lead poisoning. He gave strong evidence as to the injurious results on the health of those engaged in processes in which lead dust from the glaze is generated. Young people he asserted were especially susceptible to this disease.(2) An employer in the Staffordshire potteries subsequently denied that women were generally employed in the dipping houses.(3) In Scotland the complaint at the pottery and pipe factories appeared to be rather the extremely high temperature in which the work was carried on, than the injurious effect of the dust. A few cases of potters' disease from this last cause were reported amongst the men, but no case of this illness could be traced amongst the women, though many workers complained of discomfort and a "feeling of chokiness" from the dust in certain departments. With regard to the heat of the workshops it was stated by the Secretary of the men's Potters' Union that a temperature of 90° is frequent and it may even rise to 100°

Staffordshire.

Scotland.

(1) pp. 62; 63. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. III. Edwards, 30,527–71; 30, 657. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. III., Young, 32,557.

[§ 738 (a).] or 120° in the summer. The women are not only at work in this temperature but they have to carry moulds weighing from 18 lbs. to 20 lbs. to various departments. Men and women, it was stated, were constantly off duty for days at a time owing to the effects of the heat, and cases of complete prostration were frequent. Workers "in a half-frenzy" had often been seen to break several panes of glass in order to get instant relief. Four women who worked in the pipe factories also complained that in summer the heat was almost unbearable and they were "sair trauchled " and forfochten w'id." It was further noted that in some departments the atmosphere was very cold and damp owing to the quantity of wet clay that was lying about. The older workshops were also insufficiently lighted and the combined cold and gloom had a depressing effect. The rough heavy work in the clay department, such as carrying wet masses of clay or lathe-turning without a treadle was complained of by various women. The intense heat complained of by so many witnesses in this industry appeared to be largely due to defective structural arrangements. Much of the discomfort was caused by the position of the stoves which were placed "too near the workers," who were only separated from them by a narrow passage. They were "frequently placed down the " middle of the workshop between the windows in a " way that does not allow the air to circulate. In " many cases economy of space is the only thing " studied, and the comfort and health of the workers is " entirely disregarded."(1)

(b.) *Recommendations.* (b.) It was strongly urged in Scotland that the legal hours worked in potteries are too long for women workers, considering the nature of the work. The most objectionable feature noted in the Staffordshire potteries was, "the employment of half-timers, " obliged to carry rather heavy trays to and from hot " drying closets in the midst of so much clay dust."(2) Dr. Arlidge, who was quoted as "the best authority on potters diseases," is of opinion that children under 14 should be prohibited from working in the dipping house, dipper's drying room, or at ground laying, or majolica painting. Further, that "girls under 16 " should be prohibited from turning the thrower's " wheel, which is too heavy, and from working the " treadle of turner's lathes, as this constant up and " down motion causes uterine diseases."(3) A male witness from the Staffordshire potteries giving evidence before the Commission advocated the prohibition of the labour of young persons in the work, on account of their special susceptibility to lead poisoning. If this course were not adopted he considered that employers ought to dispense with the use of lead, either altogether or to a large extent. He urged the adoption of an innocous glaze that had been recently brought out. An employer subsequently stated that "commercially, as far as we manufacturers " know, it is impossible, and if we were to use a glaze " without any lead in it, we should produce ware which would not stand."(4) In a report on the subject by Mr. W. D. Cramp, H.M. Superintending Inspector of Factories, the following suggestions are made: (1) "The perfection of the fan system in all towing shops, " and its extension to all shops in which flat-pressers, " hollow ware pressers, turners, ware cleaners, &c., " are employed." Stress is laid on the necessity of the provision of fans "of the best kind, and of the best construction." Those invented by Mr. W. Turner, and in use in his pottery, Alexandra Works, Tunstill, are recommended. (2) A strict and rigid enforcement of section 3 of the Factory Act, 1878, which decrees that factories and workshops "should be ventilated in such " a manner as to render harmless all the vapours, dust, " or other impurities generated that may be injurious " to health." Another point, which in Mr. Cramp's opinion "deserved consideration," was, whether the temperature and humidity of potters' shops could be controlled by some such regulations as those in "Cotton Cloth Factory Act." A draft scheme of proposed "special rules" dealing with the various precautions necessary was drawn up by him, and the last Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Workshops and Factories states that the whole subject is under consideration, and that the "special rules" finally adopted will probably appear in the next report.(5) A Departmental Committee has recently been appointed to investigate the matter, but its report and recommendations are not yet issued.

(1) pp. 282-3. (2) pp. 62, 283. (3) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, p. 46. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. III.; Edwards, 30,543-572; Young, 32,558. (5) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892. pp. 41-49.

[§ 739.] Summary of Report of the Departmental Committee on the Conditions of Labour in Potteries.

739. Since writing the above the report of the Departmental Committee appointed to inquire into "the " injurious conditions of the manufacture of pottery " and the proposed remedies" has been issued, of which the following is a summary. In the report on the medical aspect of the question by Dr. J. T. Arlidge and Mr. W. D. Spanton it is stated that "the ill effects of the trade are referable" chiefly to "dust and the poison of lead" and in a less degree to the operations necessary to the process of "firing" the ware. An analysis of the mortality returns for males above 14 for the year 1890 of the parish of Stoke-on-Trent, which is the "central town of the Potteries," showed that in the case of potters 50 per cent. died of chest diseases and 21 per cent. of pulmonary consumption. Employing the same data, an analysis of the deaths of males above 14 not employed in any branch of pottery labour but living in the same district showed that only 26 per cent. died of chest diseases and 14 per cent. of consumption. Lead poisoning is stated to be on the decrease; "there " are fewer severe cases and these are chiefly confined " to dippers, whilst the slighter ones occur mainly " among young persons." "It is clear . . . . . " that a large part of the mortality from lead poisoning " is avoidable." With reference to the process of "firing" the ware the most unhealthy feature of the work is the great heat to which men are exposed in "drawing the ovens." This produces rheumatic affections for the most part, though the men suffer sometimes from "serious exhaustion from the heat and physical exertions." The evil effects arising from all these unhealthy processes are, it is stated, aggravated by recklessness, carelessness, or negligence of the workers themselves. A draft of proposed "special rules" was submitted to the Committee who adopted them with certain alterations and additions. "As to *new legisla-* " *tion* the Committee deem it desirable that power " should be given to some authority, imperial or local, " to condemn such factories or parts of factories as are " unfit for work. There are potteries which cannot be " made fit for use owing to their bad structural " arrangements or delapidated condition." The Committee did not consider that the proposal that only leadless glazes should be used on earthenware was practicable. They were of opinion that the contention that "fritted" or fused lead was innocuous was at present not proven, but they recommended that further experiments should be made with a view to discovering whether it is possible to make a glaze that is at once innocuous and satisfactory from the manufacturers' point of view. They also desire further information as to the temperature of potters' workshops and of ovens at the time of drawing the ware. Rule 7 they regard as tentative. The Committee further recommend: (a) the provision of mess rooms for the workers who will be prohibited by rules 3 and 11 from having meals in the workrooms, and who live at long distances from their places of work; (b) the periodical examination by the certifying surgeon or other medical man of all workers in processes in which lead is used or poisonous dust is generated; (c) the prohibition of "wedging" of clay by lads under 13 years of age and by girls under 16; "it is very unsuitable labour in all respects for females"; (d) the prohibition of the employment of married women in processes where lead is used. These recommendations are not incorporated in the special rules submitted by the Committee, which are subjoined. The report ends, "if it should be decided to adopt and " enforce the 'special rules' we have recommended, " we hope that the manufacturers and workpeople will " accept them and cheerfully obey them, with a view " of taking away from one of the most beautiful, " interesting, and useful of our manufactures, the " reproach of being one of the most unhealthy." The special rules are as follows:—Duties of occupiers: (1) "They shall not allow any child under 14 to be " employed in the dipping-house or dipper's drying- " room, or in any processes of ware cleaning after the " dipper, glost placing, china scouring, ground laying, " or majolica painting, or in any process in which lead " is used." (2) "They shall provide suitable overalls " and head coverings for all workers employed in the " places and processes referred to in Rule 1, and shall " have the said articles washed on the premises, and " shall also provide a place in which the workers can " deposit clothing put off during working hours." (3) "They shall not allow any persons (either adult males " or others) to cook or partake of any food, or to remain " during meal-times in the dipping-house, dipper's " drying-room, china-scouring room, glost placer's shop, " ground-laying shop, or majolica-painting room."

[§ 739.] (4) "They shall adopt efficient measures in the processes "of towing of earthenware and of the scouring of china "for the removal of all dust and flint by fans or other "mechanical means; and in all dusty processes they "shall adopt measures for dealing with avoidable dust, "and for the prevention of any injurious effects arising "therefrom either by the use of mechanical fans or other "efficient means." (5.) "They shall provide brooms, "brushes, and all other necessaries for the daily sweep- "ing of floors of workshops, and of such stoves as are "entered by the workers, and for the cleansing of work- "benches and of stairs leading to workshops; and shall "arrange that the floors of such workshops and stoves "are sprinkled and swept every working day, and the "scraps and dirt removed, and that work-benches and "stairs are cleansed at least once a week. The daily "sweeping of floors of potters' shops shall be done "after work has ceased for the day, unless there is "some sufficient reason to the contrary." (6.) "They "shall provide washing conveniences with a sufficient "supply of water, soap, nail brushes, and towels for "all workers employed in the places and processes "referred to in Rule I.; and the washing apparatus "shall be in convenient proximity to the work places." (7.) "They shall arrange that the temperature of "potters' workshops outside the drying stoves, when "people are working there, shall not exceed 80° F. if "the outside temperature is below 70° F.; and when "the temperature outside is above 70° F., the inside "temperature shall not be more than 10° higher." (8.) "They shall not allow any female under 16 years "of age to be employed at treading the lathes used by "turners." Duties of person employed: (9.) "Every "person to whom is supplied an overall suit or head "covering shall wear the same when at the special "work for which such are provided." (10.) "Every "person employed in the places or processes enu- "merated in Rule I. shall carefully clean and wash his "or her hands and face before meals, and before "leaving the works." (11.) "Every person employed "in dipping, carrying ware from the dipper, cleaning "ware after it has been dipped, glost placing, china "scouring, ground laying, majolica painting, or in any "process in which lead is used, shall during the meal "times leave the shops in which those processes are "carried on, and shall not cook or eat any food therein "at any time." (12.) "The measures taken by the "employers for the ventilation of the various work- "rooms and stoves and for the removal of dust, shall "not be in any way interfered with by the workpeople "without the knowledge and concurrence of the "employer or manager of the works." (13.) "Every "male or female worker shall be responsible for the "cleansing of that portion of the room in which he or "she is employed, and shall see that the floors of the "shops and of such stoves as are entered by the "workers are sprinkled and swept, and the dust, "scraps, ashes, and dirt removed every day, and that "the work-benches and stairs are cleansed at least "once a week. The sweeping of floors of potters' "shops shall be done after working hours, either by "themselves (*i.e.*, the workers) or by an adult male "employed and paid by them, and approved by the "employer."

Paint and Colour, Enamelling of Iron Plates, and other minor industries.

740. The dangerous effect of the lead used in majolica painting, and in iron enamelling was also mentioned by the Lady Sub-Commissioners.[1] But in both these cases "special rules" have now been issued by the Home Office to meet the evils complained of.[2] In the recent Report of the Departmental Committee on the various lead industries (C. 7239), certain further recommendations are made. With regard to the manufacture of paint and colour, the Committee advocate "certain material additions" to the special rules now in force, *i.e.*, (1) that the use of overall suits should be required "whenever dust is generated"; (2) that proper baths should be provided in addition to the ordinary washing conveniences; (3) that the employment of any male young person or any female in such manufacture should be prohibited. With regard to the enamelling of iron plates the Committee state that they find the special rules now in force to be good as far as they go, though it is too soon to say how far they have acted beneficially. They further recommend: (1) that a medical inspection of all the workers be insisted on at least once a month; (2) that no girl under 20 be employed as a brusher, or in a room or workshop where brushing takes place; (3) that no female should be employed without previous examination, and a certificate from the medical attendant of the works certifying that she is of the required age and a person fit for the employment; and further that no employée who has been absent from work through illness should be re-employed without a medical certificate to the effect that he or she has recovered: such a rule should be incumbent on the employée equally with the employer; (4) that each female worker should be supplied with a half-pint of milk and a buscuit before beginning work; (5) that a fan should be supplied with each perforated bench or table; (6) that a dining-room should be provided with a small ante-room for a cloak-room.[1] [§ 740.]

(1) pp. 53; 62. (2) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, pp. 23, 26.

Other industries.

Complaints were made in other industries in reference to certain unhealthy processes. This was especially the case with regard to some departments of the sewing machine manufacture in Scotland. In the japanning department the grievances were similar to some of those brought forward in the Scotch potteries. The women have to carry portions of the machines from one place to another which weigh from 13 lbs. to 30 lbs. The temperature in some of the rooms was 80° F. at the time of the Lady Sub-Commissioner's visit, and the foreman owned it sometimes rose as high as 90°. This was attributed to the drying stoves which are heated at night, and extend through the whole length of the workshop. In the French-polishing department one witness had to leave her work on account of the effect of the naphtha and pumice-stone on her lungs. Independent medical testimony confirmed the opinion as to the injurious nature of such materials. Naphtha is also used in the transferring process. In the nickel-plating department some witnesses stated that the pumice, nickel salts, and hydrocloric acid used in the process caused eruptions on the skin, and that the fumes from the vats caused headache. The manager of the works, however, stated that he had never heard of skin eruptions amongst the girls. In the transferring and printing department one of the operatives said that the metallic dust from the gold-leaf had an injurious effect upon the lungs.[2] At Birmingham it was stated that the dust from the polishing by machinery of vegetable ivory buttons, and of boring and grinding pearl buttons, seriously affected the health of the workers.[3] The Secretary of the East London Rope Workers' Union stated that the conditions under which ropemakers work were very often unhealthy on account of the dust and fluff, which caused irritation of the chest and lung affections. There were no special contrivances for ameliorating these conditions. In other cases it was complained that the work was too laborious. "The machines are too heavy for a woman to work, the "amount of work that they are required to do is too "heavy for a woman. Women belonging to our own "Union have this year been, one after another, sent to "the hospital to get treatment for the large swellings "under their arms, caused, according to medical "testimony, by the heavy labour they have had to "perform."[4] In some processes in the confectionery trade a great deal of starch is used, and it was stated that the inhaling of this produced chest complaints in the case of many of the girls employed.[5]

Lucifer match making and necrosis.

741. At the instance of the Chairman of Committee C., an investigation was undertaken in May 1892 by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners with a view to ascertaining the extent to which necrosis of the jaw is prevalent amongst match workers, the causes of the disease, the precautions taken by employers to prevent its occurrence, and the treatment received by sufferers. A detailed account of the inquiry is to be found in the reports of the Lady Assistant-Commissioner, pp. 23–26, published in November 1893. As since the report was written, but before it was published, the Home Office had issued certain "Special Rules" (under a clause in the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891) regulating the conditions under which lucifer match making might be carried on, no detailed discussion of the question is here necessary. The main points may, however, be thus summarised. The disease from which workers in parts of this industry are liable to suffer is called "necrosis or death of the bone," popularly known as "phossy jaw"—a disease of a peculiarly terrible character. It is occasioned by fumes from "common or yellow phosphorus,"[6] and affects the teeth and jaw,

Nature of the employment and of the disease.

(1) Report of the Departmental Committee on the various lead industries. (C.—7239), 1893. (2) pp. 279, 280. (3) p. 53. (4) Group A., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8191–96; 8222–25. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8499. (6) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, p. 31.

[§ 741.] especially, if not entirely, in those cases where the teeth of the workers were not in a sound condition or where they were in a weak state of health. "Safety" matches apparently contain no phosphorus, therefore the safety matches of Messrs. Bryant and May and of the Salvation Army are quite innocuous. It was pointed out that non-safety wood matches "cannot be made 'bone dry,' as they are then "liable to 'fire' in the process of cutting down, *i.e.*, "of being cut in two. . . . . All makers of "non-safety wood matches are therefore liable to "exposure to a very slight fume, and also to having "a certain amount of phosphorus sticking to their "hands. . . . The wax matches, not having to be "cut in two, are dried harder than the wood matches, "and the danger resulting from want of care in wash-"ing hands and rinsing the mouth before eating is less "great."(1) Great difficulties were experienced in the attempt to arrive at the extent to which necrosis is prevalent amongst match workers, owing to the difficulty experienced in some cases in obtaining reliable information. Messrs. Bell & Co., of Bromley (who next to Messrs. Bryant & May are the largest firm of match makers in England), only employ from 20 to 30 women, and Messrs. Martin, Harriss & Co. only employ 40 women in making non-safety wood matches, and both firms stated that they had never known of a case of necrosis amongst their women workers, and only one each in the last six years amongst their men workers. But subsequent investigations proved that the firms were "ignorant of the facts," and various authentic cases of necrosis amongst both sexes were discovered. The same statement was made with regard to women by Messrs. Palmer & Son, and in this instance it appeared to be quite correct. This was the more surprising, since the girls seemed to work in some respects under peculiarly unhealthy conditions. It was, however, observed that they were "not in any way "exposed to fumes from the drying-room, and in "addition to this they are drawn from a class obviously "superior in habits of neatness and cleanliness to "those to be found in the other wood factories." The utmost facilities were afforded to the Lady Sub-Commissioner by Messrs. Bryant & May in her investigation, with regard both to the conditions under which the work was carried on in their factories, and to the special cases of necrosis that had occurred. The firm furnished her with a list of the names of every person who had been affected by necrosis since 1880. It appeared that the number amounted on an average to three women per annum; 33 having been under treatment during that period. All the cases had occurred in the two non-safety wood match factories, in which 450 women worked; the 700 women employed in the wax vesta and patent safety-match factories had been apparently untouched. Thirteen out of the men and boys who were employed during the same period had suffered from this disease. The witnesses examined gave evidence of the kindness and consideration with which sufferers from necrosis were treated by Messrs. Bryant & May. They were attended by the surgeon whom the firm employed; they received a substantial allowance while they were ill, and they were not allowed to return until they were pronounced cured. Moreover, anyone could have her teeth attended to at any time at the expense of the firm. Little or nothing appeared to be done for the victims to necrosis by the other firms. Criticisms on the defects in the ventilation of the factories of Messrs. Bryant & May and Messrs. Palmer & Son were made by Mr. Tom Mann, who visited both places. At the time of the investigation, however, the former firm were considering the best methods of improving any defects. As the result of the inquiry, the Lady Sub-Commissioner states that "the causes of necrosis among women seem to be: "(1) On the part of the operatives—neglect of the "teeth, carelessness in eating meals without previously "cleansing mouth and hands, and a habit of putting "the fingers in the mouth while at work, combined "with a weak state of health. (2) On the part of the "employers—inadequate ventilation and exposure to "fumes from drying-rooms and dipping-rooms." A strong recommendation was further made as to the use of a gargle in the case of men who are necessarily and constantly exposed to the fumes of phosphorus.(2) H.M. Chief Inspector of Factories states that he recently requested Mr. Redgrave to investigate some cases of necrosis, and adds, "the evidence he has "obtained is such as proves the necessity for adopting "every reasonable means for getting entirely rid of so "fearful a malady."(1) The special rules that were consequently issued by the Home Office with regard to the "manufacture of lucifer matches, except such as are made with red or amorphus phosphorus" are as follows:—(1) "The occupier shall provide, for the pro-"cesses of mixing, dipping, and drying, an apartment or "apartments separate from other portions of the fac-"tory". (2) "Effectual means shall be taken to prevent "the fumes from the before-mentioned processes being "allowed to enter the rest of the factory." (3) "They "shall provide washing conveniences, with a sufficient "supply of hot and cold water, soap, nail brushes, and "towels; and take measures to secure that every "worker wash face and hands before meals, and before "leaving the works. Managers and overlookers shall "report immediately to the occupier any instance "which comes under their notice where this regulation "has been neglected." (4) "Any person employed in "the works complaining of toothache or of swelling of "the jaw, shall at once be examined by a medical man "at the expense of the occupier, and if any symptoms "of necrosis are present, the case shall be immediately "reported to one of H.M. Inspectors of Factories." (5) "No person having suffered from necrosis shall be "permitted to resume work in a lucifer match factory "until a certificate of fitness has been obtained from a "qualified medical practitioner." (6) "No person "shall be permitted to work in the processes of mixing, "dipping, or drying after the extraction of a tooth, "without the certificate of a duly qualified practitioner "that the jaw is healed." It may be noted that while provision is made for the examination of the teeth by a medical man at the expense of the firm, when any complaint of toothache, &c., is made, there is no regulation by which people whose teeth are not in a satisfactory state are prevented from working in this employment in the first instance. Rule 4 is remedial rather than preventive. It is stated in the Chief Inspector's Annual Report for 1892 that "accord-"ing to the report of Mr. White, one of the Assistant "Commissioners of the Children's Employment Com-"mission in Prussia, *no person with decayed teeth* was "allowed to enter the employment of lucifer match "making, and there was a compulsory periodical "inspection of the state of the teeth of all employed."(1)

Extent of the disease.

Treatment received by the sufferers.

Causes of disease.

[§ 741.] *Special rules.*

742. A departmental inquiry into the conditions of work in lucifer match factories and the working of the "special rules" referred to above, has recently been made and the report of the Committee has just been published. (December 1893.) It is stated that they have been unable to trace any cases of necrosis since the special rules were established, beyond the two which have occurred in Messrs. Bryant and May's factory, yet the Committee are of opinion that danger from that disease exists for all workers where white or yellow phosphorus is used. The Committee consider that with certain alterations and additions, referring chiefly to better ventilation and periodical medical examinations, the "special rules" already in force will have a very beneficial effect. The Committee further deprecate the practice of allowing persons to be employed in galleries above departments where fumes may arise, and suggest that some means should be taken whereby in the boxing departments, matches becoming ignited may be rapidly extinguished. The following are the alterations or additions deemed necessary with regard to the special rules. The first the third, the fourth and the fifth are unaltered. The regulations referring to the processes of "mixing" "dipping", and "drying" in the second and sixth rules are also to apply to the process of "boxing." The following new rules as to the "Duties of Occupiers" are submitted: (*a.*) "After the 31st day of "December 1893, it shall not be lawful to carry on "a lucifer match factory, where yellow or white "phosphorus is used, unless such factory is certified "by an inspector to be in conformity" with the revised special rules. (*b.*) "Occupiers shall provide "efficient means, both natural and mechanical, for "thorough ventilation in the mixing, dipping, drying, "and boxing departments." (*c.*) "They shall provide "in the boxing departments efficient means whereby "matches becoming ignited can readily be extinguished. "For this purpose vessels of water, one to every two "workers, or pieces of wet flannel, one for each "worker, are recommended." It was observed that there was some difference of opinion among the Committee as to whether it was advisable that a

Summary of Report of the Departmental Committee on Lucifer Match Factories.

(1) p. 23. (2) pp. 23–6.

(1) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, p. 31.

[§ 742.] register should be kept with the names, addresses, &c., of persons employed in all dangerous departments. This register was desired by the majority, so as to obtain, if possible, outside information as to the prevalence of necrosis. Alternative rules are therefore submitted. (*d.*) "They shall arrange for an examination of the workers at the factory to be made at least once a month by a certifying surgeon, who shall have power to order temporary suspension or total change of work for any person showing symptoms of incipient necrosis. A register in a prescribed form shall be kept in which the certifying surgeon shall enter the dates and results of his visit," or, (*d.*) "They shall cause an examination of the workers at the factory to be made at least once a month by a certifying surgeon who shall have power to order temporary suspension or total change of work for any person showing symptoms of incipients necrosis. The certifying surgeon shall enter the date and result of each visit in the prescribed register, which shall contain the names and addresses of all workers in the mixing, dipping, drying, and boxing departments, with the date of their commencing and leaving employment in that factory." The following rules "as to persons employed" are also submitted: (*e.*) "Every person employed in the mixing, dipping, drying, or boxing departments shall carefully wash his or her hands and face before meals and before leaving the works." (*f.*) "In all cases where the co-operation of the workers is required for carrying out the foregoing rules, and where such co-operation is not given, the workers shall be held liable in accordance with the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, section 9, which runs as follows:—If any person who is bound to observe any special rules established for any factory or workshop under this Act in contravention of, or fails to comply with any such special rule, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding two pounds."

Nail and chain and nut and bolt making industry in the "Black Country."

743. Some of the male nail and chain and nut and bolt makers who gave evidence before the Commission, objected strongly to the employment of women in their trade which they contended was both unsuitable in itself and injurious to their health. Not only was it stated that the work had a demoralising effect upon the women in the home, and also, tempted the men to be idle, but, as it was of the nature of "blacksmith's work," it required a physical effort which was liable to lead to serious overstrain. The secretary of the Spike Nail Makers' Association in Worcester specially desired "to call the attention of the Commission to the very hard "labour that females have to do and the injury that it "has upon their system. It is a ruin to a great many "of them."[1] Women usually work in domestic workshops, where they are under no legal limitation with regard to hours. The demand made for the prohibition of the employment of married women and the restriction of the work of other women and girls to the lighter kinds is treated under the head "Inspection and Legislation relating thereto." One of the Lady Sub-Commissioners subsequently spent three days investigating the conditions of women's employment in the nail and chain making district with especial reference to the points raised by the men. Her views on the effect of the employment of married women upon the health and home are dealt with under another head. With regard to the effect of the work upon the health of the women generally, her conclusions are as follows. The opinions of the medical men of the district were found to be extremely divergent. The unmarried women looked in some cases very worn and thin, but no complaints of overwork were received, the cry was rather on all hands that there was not enough to do. The "local people" who were consulted agreed that the only danger to health was in working the "oliver," *i.e.*, treadle, to cut cold iron and in heading big nails and making big rivets. Poor food and constitutional weakness rather than the heavy nature of the work were stated to account for the worst cases of unhealthy appearance that were observed. No corroborative evidence was found of the men's representation that excessive hours were worked in factories, or by the women and children in domestic workshops, nor of the statement that violence was used to compel the wife to work, though their contention with regard to the disastrous effects on young children and the home life generally were amply proved. The extreme unsuitableness of the dress worn by the women while at work was also commented on.[2]

(1) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Price, 17,600; Homer, 17,079.
(2) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Miss Orme, pp. 571–575.

[§ 744 (*a.*)] Accidents. (*a.*) *Causes of accidents.*

744. (*a.*) The most numerous class of accidents in the industries which women are employed are those caused by flying shuttles in the weaving departments of the woollen, cotton, jute, and linen trades. These are sometimes slight, but frequently result in loss of sight and occasionally even in death. A weaver at Bradford is mentioned by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, who died within 24 hours of a blow upon the head from a shuttle. Owing to the greater speed of the looms in Yorkshire and Lancashire accidents of this nature are stated to be more frequent there than in the textile districts of the West of England and Scotland.[1] In the linen trade of Ireland also, though occasional cases of loss of sight are reported, accidents from this cause are infrequent owing to the use of guards. Several serious accidents have occurred in the jute trade of London. Among them is the case of a girl decapitated by a "flying strand." The Secretary of the East London Rope Workers' Union stated before the Commission that another girl who was struck by a bolt from a machine and fell down fainting, was left lying where she fell for over an hour. At the end of that time a doctor was sent for, but when he arrived the girl was dead.[2] The belts that work the machines in this trade are also stated to be liable to come down and cut the heads of the girls working below.

Accidents caused by cleaning machinery while in motion are reported from Yorkshire by male weavers before the Commission, and by witnesses examined in Scotland.[3] This practice is illegal and in most of the mills visited by the Lady Sub-Commissioner there is a notice posted up prohibiting it, but the women complain that they are practically obliged to do it as the time allowed on Saturdays is not sufficient to keep the machines in proper order. Small accidents due to this cause are constantly occurring, and one girl was mentioned who lost her hand by it. A similar kind of accident occurs sometimes in the process of willeying, which is sometimes performed by women. The willey, which is filled with spikes, is revolving while they are taking the wool out of it, and their hands are thus liable to be caught. The Leeds Willeyers' and Fettlers' Union has passed a resolution disapproving of the employment of women for this operation on account of its dangerous character.[4] In the pen trade of Birmingham a large number of accidents, usually the loss of a finger, are caused by steam stamps and presses. These are stated to be nearly always due to the carelessness of the workers.[5] This is also the case with some accidents that have occurred in a London laundry, but the Lady Sub-Commissioner adds that "there seems no reason why "the laundry proprietors should not be under the same "obligations to report them as are imposed on "employers who are under the Factory Acts."[6] Accidents at Birmingham are also sometimes caused by the flying of emery wheels. One fatal one is ascribed to this cause.[7] In the mineral water trade accidents occur frequently from the bursting of bottles while being "sighted" or put into baskets.[8] These are apt to cause large gashes in the face, and sometimes injury to the eyes from splinters of glass getting into them. Two girls in London, indeed, had each lost an eye at this work, and another had lost the use of one arm owing to the severe cuts she had received. The general effect of the accidents in this trade is, however, rather to disfigure than to incapacitate the workers. The Factory Act does not make it necessary to report an accident unless of such a nature as to prevent the person injured by it from returning to her work in the factory or workshop, and doing five hours work on any day during the next three days after its occurrence. These accidents, therefore, are frequently not reported, though "by them a woman may be disfigured for life." In the confectionery trade accidents are sometimes caused by the girls slipping while carrying heavy trays of boiling jam downstairs.[9]

(*b.*) *Question of prevention of accidents.*

(*b.*) The question arises, how far these accidents are preventible, and how far due to the inevitable conditions of the work performed. With regard to those due to flying shuttles, it appears from the evidence with regard to Scotland and Ireland that two things tend to make accidents specially frequent in Yorkshire and Lancashire—the speed at which the looms are worked, and the absence of shuttle-guards. The question of reducing the speed was not raised at all, but several opinions were offered as to the use of guards. Those most

(1) pp. 101, 117, 145, 300–4. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8348. (3) Reports, p. 304. Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Drew, 5,437; Henderson, 5012; Vol. II.: Sixsmith, 11,746. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., Bannister, 11,919. (5) p. 32. (6) p. 17. (7) pp. 52–3. (8) p. 95. Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8499, 8591. (9) Group C Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8590.

[§ 744 (b.)] generally in use are the "wing" and "bar" guards The wing guard is a net placed at the ends of the loom and protects from the commonest form of accident, *i.e.*, injury from another weaver's shuttle. It is stated that the wing guard to be effective should extend to meet the greatest angle at which the shuttle can fly, and if the loom be placed between others it should be guarded at each end. It is, however, no protection to the weaver from her own shuttle. The bar guard extends along the course of the shuttle keeping it in its place.(1) Some employers deny that there is any need for guards, or that they would be any use if adopted. Others recognise the need, but complain that those at present in use are so imperfect that it is not worth while to adopt them.(2) On the other hand several witnesses before the Commission from Yorkshire and Lancashire were of opinion that all fast looms, at any rate, should be fitted with guards(3); and in two firms visited by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners the employers stated that they were perfectly satisfied with those they had adopted. The patent in use at one of these mills was "Marriots" of Manchester which costs from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 9*d.* per loom. At the other the patent known as "Hahlo Liebreich" of Bradford was used. The cost of this is about 10*s.* 6*d.* per loom.(4) H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops moreover writes in his report for the year 1891–2, "In the course of my visits I have met with a "very cheap, movcable, simple, and efficient shuttle-"guard which requires little trouble to fix and keep in "order, and can be used safely with the steel roller-"temples which render the stiff or fixed bar guards "dangerous. It can be fixed for a cost of about 2*s.* "and is the invention of Mr. Timothy Yates, 33, "Victoria Street, London Road, Preston, who is in the "employ of Messrs. Swainson and Birley, Fishwick "Mills, Preston, where it is used as well as at other "factories in the town." Some employers, again, allege that guards of any sort are disliked by the operatives, who find that they impede their work.(5) This was contradicted both by a witness before the Commission, representing the West Riding of Yorkshire Weavers' Association, and by witnesses examined by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners in Lancashire.(6) Here it was stated that the women had at first objected to the use of guards, but had soon got over their prejudice. Where, however, such objections do exist they may possibly be accounted for by the fact that as in some mills in the West of England the weavers are made to pay for the appliances introduced.(7) The conclusion seems inevitable that where guards are in use the injuries from flying shuttles are less frequent and less severe; and their adoption is, therefore, strongly recommended by the authorities of the Bradford Eye Hospital.(8) With regard to the practice of cleaning machinery while in motion, one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners states that she has questioned numerous employers on the subject and has "always met with strong expressions of dis-"approbation, and, in the majority of cases, of entire "ignorance regarding it."(9) It would seem, therefore, that accidents from this cause might be prevented if sufficient time were allowed for cleaning the machines when not in motion, and if the operatives were strictly forbidden to clean them at any other time. The "flying" of emery wheels appears to be exclusively due to the excessive speed at which they are run. One of H.M. Inspectors, Mr. S. H. Knyvett, suggests, therefore, that great care should be exercised in ascertaining the speed at which individual wheels might be safely run. He recommends that "it should be requisite for "manufacturers to have and to produce for inspection "a register or paper setting forth the speeds up to "which the wheels they use are guaranteed as being "safe by the makers," and further that "the inspector "should be supplied with an instrument to test the "speed at the time of his visit."(10) It would appear that accidents in mineral water works may be lessened by the use of wire masks and spectacles; but it is stated that these are very reluctantly worn by the girls. In one factory thick woollen arm-protectors were given out to the workers, but within a week all but one had been taken away to use as floor-cloths. In another factory, however, in South London, the girls were compelled, on pain of dismissal, to wear both these armlets and masks.(11) Whether these accidents can be altogether prevented seems doubtful. A witness told one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners that they were really due to carelessness on the part of the girls in knocking the [§ 744 (b.)] bottles together; but as the Lady Sub-Commissioner adds, "any ordinary girl holding up bottles for 10 hours "would be sure to let them knock together."(1) A witness before the Commission, indeed, stated that in one room in a London factory they "expect" six accidents of this kind a day.(2) In connexion with the accidents met with by girls obliged to carry heavy trays of jam, it was noted that an excellent plan is in practice at Aintree. The floors are interlaced with tram lines, along which small trucks with trays of jam-pots are rolled to and from the shelves. The trays for the pots are small, constructed to hold nine 2-lb. jars, and the girls only have to put those trays into the trucks and then take them off and put them on to the shelves in the cooling-room.(3)

(c.) Employers' Liability Act.

(*c.*) Several complaints were made by witnesses with regard to compensation for accidents under the Employers' Liability Act. The secretary of the East London Rope Workers' Union, Mrs. Hicks, quoted the case of a woman in a jute factory whose arm was caught in a machine adjoining her own, and fractured in two places. It was asserted that the employer in this case knew the machines were too close, as they had been moved since the visit of the inspector. She went to the hospital, and when she came out and asked for her wages was told that they had been stopped. She then asked for work in the mill, and was given such odd jobs as she could do with one arm, earning about 3*s.* a week. This lasted for several weeks, till erysipelas set in and she had to give up work. "The employer," said Mrs. Hicks, "had kept the woman idling about "in the place thinking she was going to be compen-"sated," but on her application for compensation under the Act she was told that the time had passed at which she could apply. Mrs. Hicks recommended, therefore, that the time during which applications might be made should be extended to a more lengthy period. She considered further that "the employers "should be liable for the injuries to their employées "when the accident happens through no fault of the "girls themselves." The undoubted obligation of employers to compensate in such cases is evaded, she explained, by the device of sending them to the office of the Employers' Liability Assurance Society. Here, while still weak from the effects of the injury, they are cross-examined, "and in nine cases out of ten they are "got to admit that if they had been a little more "careful the accident would not have happened."(4) They are then told it is their own fault and that there is no compensation. Another grievance is connected with sub-section 1 of section 1, which provides compensation for injury caused by a "defective" machine. If a machine is perfect of its kind, *i.e.*, if it is as originally made by the manufacturer, however dangerous it may be, it is not "defective" as the word is used in this section. The consequence is, that even unnecessarily dangerous machinery may be used, and "if a girl loses her life and the machine is "perfect, there is no recompense."(5) There appears to be a strong repugnance on the part of the women workers to bring an action against an employer under this Act. Mr. Williamson of Dundee complains that "the difficulty is to get these women to appear; they "will not appear before the sheriff on their own behalf. "They are as much afraid of being in the court as "plaintiff as they are of being there as defendant."(6) Mrs. Hicks also states that their Union has only taken up one case, as frequently the women go to work rather than lose their time or their employment.(7) The case of a girl who had lost half her hand and had previously been induced to admit that the accident might have been her own fault, was, however, taken up by her friends, and 30*l.* compensation was obtained. On the other hand, the parents of the girl mentioned above, who was decapitated, and in whose case no action was brought, received only 10*l.*(8)

B. UNHEALTHY CONDITIONS IN ORDINARY EMPLOYMENTS.

Lack of provision for ordinary comfort of workers.

(a.) In factories and workshops.

745. (*a.*) A grievance brought forward in some parts of the textile industries is the absence of any cloak-rooms where the clothes of the operatives can be dried if they are wet on arrival, or placed during work

(1) p. 101. (2) p. 101, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Arnold-Foster, 9718. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Downing, 4989; Drew, 5437; Arnold-Foster, 9718. (4) p. 101. (5) Reports, pp. 101, 117, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Walker, 10,828. (6) Reports, p. 117, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Drew, 5437. (7) p. 145. (8) p. 101. (9) p. 304. (10) p. 53. (11) p. 95.

(1) p. 95. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8591. (3) p. 60. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8348. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mullin, 108; Mrs. Hicks, 8351. (6) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Williamson, 11,055. (7) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I.; Mrs. Hicks, 8379-80. (8) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8348.

[§ 745 (a.)] hours to prevent their getting damp by the process in which they are engaged. Thus it was stated that the clothes of the weavers in Lancashire usually hung in the damp weaving sheds on the walls, which were damp if not wet owing to the high temperature necessary for the "steaming" process.(1) In the centre of the jute and linen industry in North Scotland the workers complained that much discomfort frequently arose in mills owing to the absence of accommodation where workers could hang their wraps and outer garments. The witnesses in question stated that in the majority of cases the workers have to leave their shawls, &c., lying about in corners in the flats where they work. In wet weather special discomfort and risk to health is incurred, as the clothes which have been taken off wet have to be put on in the same condition, and the workers, fatigued and frequently overheated from their work, are very liable to suffer from cold, &c.(2) In reference to the point the Rev. Henry Williamson, who represented the Dundee and District Factory Operatives' Union, said that he thought it was "obvious that some "provision should be made in the mills and factories for "women hanging up their outside garments."(3) H.M. Inspector, Mr. Osborn, who superintends the cotton cloth factories, refers in the report for 1892 to a recommendation he had made as far back as 1883 that the outer clothing of the weavers should be hung outside the weaving shed, in order to be free from dust and moisture during the hours of work. He further states: "I am more satisfied than ever that the absence "of drying closets or cloak-rooms is a serious defect of "mills and schools, as frequently workers and children "get soaked on their way to work and school, and have "to resume their cold wet clothing to return home, a "most fertile source of neuralgia, rheumatism and "chronic colds, and provocative of phthisis and other "lung affections." Messrs. Greenwood, of Infirmary Mills, Blackburn, have, he states, for several years had a cloak-room heated with steam pipes to meet this want; and it has been used and valued by their people. "Each person has his own hook for clothes, and the "arrangement answers well," said Dr. Barwiss in reference to this mill. Two other employers in the same town have been recently induced to contrive and fit up similar cloak-rooms for their weavers, who now find their shawls and outer clothes dry and warm when they leave work. "It is to be hoped," adds Mr. Osborn, "that this example will spread. Elaborate "arrangements are not necessary; and the experience "of large drying rooms shows that a steam coil at one "end and a fan to draw the hot air through, will dry "clothes far more rapidly than a range of steam pipes; "so that where space is small, the garments could be "dried in batches during the time of work; or, in some "circumstances, the heat over the boilers might be "drawn through a filtering screen of cotton wool and "be made available for the purpose."(4) On the other hand, a representative of the Employers' Association in the Lancashire cotton trade did not appear to think that cloak-rooms were necessary, and doubted whether the operatives would use them if provided. Moreover, "in few sheds is there room for anything of the sort." He suggested that a "suitable bag" in which to hang the clothes on the wall would be quite sufficient.(5) In other places the demand is merely for some place in which to hang the outer garments, without any drying apparatus. The absence of any provision for meals and dressing was noticed in the Welsh iron, tinplate, tin stamping, enamel, and slate works, and in the collieries and brickyards. "At some large brickyards in Wales, "where the foreman gave the girls an excellent "character, there is no dressing-room, and the girls "roll their skirts up round their waists, working in a "short petticoat, and let them down again for the walk "home. Their comfort would be increased and the de-"sire to present a decent appearance would be encour-"aged if a shed were provided where they might take off "and hang up their outer garments. The same shed "might be used as a dining-room for those who do "not go home for meals."(6) Various instances of model factories were given by all the Lady Sub-Commissioners, where, amongst other provisions for the comfort of the women workers, admirable cloak-rooms were found. In the Bristol and the Bourneville cocoa and chocolate works, it was noted that the girls keep a dress at the factory in which to do their work. "Every girl "changes her dress before going home, with the "result that both outside and inside the factory she "is neater and better dressed than the girls in any "other factory, as even her factory dress looks well as "it is never damp or muddy from being worn out-of-"doors." In the Bourneville works near Birmingham "the girls change their boots if damp, and place them "on racks in the cloak-rooms above hot-water pipes."(1) In the same way the absence of dining-room and provision for getting hot water, &c., was often complained of by workers in factories. Where the women come from a distance, or where the time allowed is too short for them to go home for dinner, great discomfort is caused by the absence of any dining-rooms or any facilities for warming the food or tea they may have brought with them. As by the Factory Acts they are not allowed "to remain in a room in which a manufacturing process or handicraft" is carried on during meal hours, in many cases their only resource is the streets. At a hosiery factory a strong desire was expressed by the witnesses to have a dining-room. They stated that as they are not allowed to remain indoors for their meals, and as many of them come from a distance, they are obliged to buy food every day, which they state is more expensive than bringing their own food. At another hosiery factory the workpeople cannot obtain hot water to make tea. They bring their tea in bottles at dinner-time and endeavour to keep it warm till tea-time by covering it with their work.(2) "As the result of my inquiries," says one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, "I find that a matter deserving "the attention of employers is the desirability of pro-"viding accommodation for women workers during "meal hours. For this, she says, there is 'urgent "need' in the factories for pottery and pipe manu-"facture at Glasgow. The nature of the work induces "overheating, and exposes the women to great risk "from cold in lounging about the gate and outside "passages as many of them do. Many women," she observed, "squatted on the floor in some of the work-"shops amidst general dirt and disorder. Frequently "too, they hang about with the men workers during "meal hours, and much rough talk, I am informed, "goes on. This point was strongly urged on my "attention by several old and experienced workers of "both sexes."(3) The same grievance is brought forward in the textile industry of Yorkshire and Lancashire. "As a matter affecting their health many "women complain of the absence of any provision by "which they can get comfortable meals. In the majority "of cases in Yorkshire they are obliged to drink cold tea "for breakfast, made overnight, and brought to the "mill in tin cans. As a rule they cannot warm their "dinner." In Lancashire "hot water is very generally "provided, but in only a small number of cases can "food be cooked." Of the mills then visited, three had dining-rooms and one had a restaurant attached. At one mill in Dewsbury in Yorkshire hot water and milk were provided free of charge, and attendants were kept who made tea, coffee, or cocoa for the women. Again, at a carpet mill at Halifax, a restaurant and dining-room was supplied, at which the workers obtain food at the usual prices or else have their own food heated for them if they prefer it.(4) Various instances are given by the Lady Sub-Commissioners of the ample provision that certain employers in different industries have made for the comfort of their women workers in this respect. In the case of the Bourneville Cocoa and Chocolate Works an interesting "Dining Room Tariff" is given. The dining-room is fitted with seats, with backs reversible into tables, and the room is frequently used as a lecture hall. Formerly hot joints were provided from the kitchen, but this practice was abandoned because "all the girls wanted the best cut." If the girls want hot meat they can bring it and have it cooked for them, and cold meat and different kinds of pies and puddings are sold to them at the following prices:(5) Ham, corned beef or tongue, 1*d.* and 2*d.* per plate. Eggs, each 1*d.* Sausages, each 1*d.* Pork pies, per quarter, 1½*d.* Bacon, per rasher, 1*d.* Potatoes, ½*d.* and 1*d.* Pudding, pies, and tarts, 1*d.* Butter, cheese, or jam, ½*d.* Bread, per slice, ½*d.* Buns, each ½*d.* and 1*d.* Cake, per slice ½*d.* and 1*d.* Tea and coffee, per ¾ pint, ½*d.* Cocoa essence, per ½ pint, ½*d.* Milk, per ¾ pint, 1*d.* Milk, per glass, ½*d.* Ginger beer, lemonade, or soda water, per bottle, 1*d.* Fruits of all kinds in season.

Absence of cloak-rooms.

Absence of dining-rooms and hot water.

(*b.*) A witness before the Commission, commenting on the unhealthiness of the actual employment of shop assistants and barmaids, attributes it in part "to the 'living-in' system, the arrangement of

(b.) In shops, public-houses, and restaurants.

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 2217-22. (2) p. 307. (3) Group C, Minutes, Vol. I. 11, 170. (4) Chief Factory Inspector's Report for 1892, p. 99. (5) Group C. Minutes, Vol. I., Simpson, 1970-75, 2241, 2278-9. (6) p. 289.

(1) pp. 35, 54. (2) p. 161. (3) pp. 283-4. (4) pp. 101, 117. (5) p. 54.

[§ 745 (b.)] "meals, sleeping accommodation, &c." (1) It is evident that this system is not necessarily injurious to health, as there are numerous instances of establishments where the welfare of the assistants is carefully and successfully studied. But it is undoubtedly liable to abuse, and the evidence of the Lady Sub-Commissioners shows that where this is the case the results as to health are most serious. The system renders shop assistants and barmaids in a special degree dependent on their employers for provision for their comfort, and the question of accommodation thus becomes in their case one of peculiar importance. A very unsatisfactory state of things in this respect was found by the Lady Sub-Commissioners to exist in many places, especially among shop assistants. Frequent complaints were made as to the quality and quantity of the food supplied, and of the short time allowed for meals. In some shops the food is stated to be insufficient, in others it is badly cooked and served, in many cases, again, the monotony of the diet and the want of any fruit or green vegetables are complained of.(2) The time allowed is usually very short, and is, moreover, liable to interruption. The girls, therefore, "acquire a habit of bolting their food in a remarkably short time."(3) One of the Lady Sub-Commissioners points out that where an assistant lives in "there is no "solid meal in the evening to compensate for a light "lunch, and those who try to eat a good dinner in the "very short time allowed are liable to indigestion."(4) Under this system, again, the intervals between meals are sometimes so long as to directly injure the health of the assistants. An extreme case of this occurred in Scotland. A girl, for whom no food was provided in the shop, could only go out for meals, when her employer, a commercial traveller, was at home to relieve her. She frequently had to fast all day, and was finally obliged to leave on account of her health breaking down.(5) In other cases, these long intervals without food foster a habit of taking stimulants, or of eating unwholesome food, such as sweetstuff and pastry.(6) One of the Lady Sub-Commissioners concludes with regard to this point, that "a meal of "nourishing food served punctually before the bar-"maids are tired with the stress of the day's work is "the best preventive of the habit of taking irregular "stimulants."(7) This plan, it may be noted, has been adopted in the Aërated Bread Company's depôts, and has been found to work admirably and with excellent results as to health. Other abuses peculiar to the living-in system occur in connexion with the sleeping accommodation and provision for the comfort of the assistants during their leisure hours. In this respect again, conditions vary very much from shop to shop. Barmaids in many cases share the family life of their employers; and shop assistants frequently have large and well-furnished rooms which they are allowed to make home-like and comfortable. In many instances, however, the space and provision for comfort are alike inadequate.(8) This is particularly noticeable in England and Scotland, and in those establishments in Wales which are under house-keepers. In Ireland, though a few cases of extreme discomfort are met with, the shops in general compare favourably as to air, light, warmth, &c., with those in other parts of the kingdom.(9) Mr. Shortt, a barrister-at-law giving evidence before the Commission, stated with regard to barmaids that they are "generally dissatisfied with "the accommodation and food provided for them and "with the general surroundings of the life." The same witness asserted further that the arrangements of the bedrooms, &c., are "often worse than unhealthy, "rather deadly," and the sanitary conditions "posi-"tively disgraceful."(10) These strong statements are hardly borne out by the evidence of the Lady Sub-Commissioner who investigated the conditions of employment among barmaids, though frequent instances of discomfort and of unsatisfactory accommodation were quoted. Among shop assistants, on the other hand, they can be to a large extent justified by the reports. Evidence was given of overcrowding, *e.g.*, six girls were sleeping, two in a bed, in one small room. One of these girls fell ill, and the doctor who attended her attributed her illness to foul air.(11) The coldness, bad ventilation, and general discomfort of the rooms are subjects of very frequent complaint. A shop is mentioned in Wales where no sitting-room was provided, except the milliners' workroom, the bedrooms were wretched, and though there was no bath-room only one small jug of hot water was allowed in a week. A girl in this establishment was stated to be leaving her situation in fear of permanent ill-health.(1) In view of these considerations several witnesses examined by the Lady Sub-Commissioners urged the desirability of sanitary inspection of sleeping and living accommodation provided for shop assistants.(2) The general secretary of the Scottish Shopkeepers' and Assistants' Union in particular held that this ought to be provided for by the Shop Hours Act, and further that women inspectors should be appointed for certain classes of shops.(3) One of the Lady Sub-Commissioners points out, however, that the difficulties of such inspection would be very great, owing to the impossibility of fixing any standard of comfort and cleanliness. Conditions which are quite bad enough to produce serious effects upon the health of the assistants would sometimes hardly warrant legislative interference.(4)

Food.

Living accommodation.

[§ 745 (b.)]

Need of inspection.

746. (*a.*) There is no lack of evidence to show that the hours worked by both shop assistants and barmaids are so long as to be exceedingly trying to the health. Numerous instances were given of shops in London and the provinces where the hours ranged from 70 to 74; in Scotland 65 was said by a witness before the Commission to be the minimum; Wales was found by the Lady Sub-Commissioners to be the most satisfactory district in this respect, the hours in the cases investigated varying between 51½ and 62½.(5) It is pointed out by one of them that the hours of shop assistants compare unfavourably with those permitted in industries protected by the Factory Acts, where the limits are 56½ or 60 hours; and she adds that "the idea "that a shop assistant's work is less arduous than that "of persons in factories seems to be erroneous."(6) The hours of barmaids and waitresses vary very considerably, running as low as 46½ in a few cases, and as high as 102 in Scotland and 105 in England in others.(7) One witness examined before the Commission was of opinion that it would be "a good public-house where the women only worked 100 hours" in the week, while another characterised the ordinary hours of barmaids as "enormous."(8) It may be noted that the Shop Hours Regulation Act only limits the hours of labour of children and young persons. A demand is made in some quarters that the hours of adult shop assistants and barmaids should be also regulated; this subject is treated later on. A large amount of medical testimony to the evil effects on the health of women, and especially of young and undeveloped girls, was handed in to the Commission or elicited by the Lady Sub-Commissioners. This evidence speaks in strong terms of the injury done, and mentions numerous complaints as the outcome of the close confinement and the strain of long hours worked under unfavourable conditions. Dr. Service of Glasgow writes, "Prolonged standing, long hours, and want of proper "sanitary accommodation lead to ailments affecting "the bladder, bowels, uterus, nervous, vascular (blood) "and muscular systems. . . . The nervous system is "seriously injured by the undue strain that is put "upon all the organs of the body. Facial neuralgia, "spinal neuralgia, and headache are very common "complaints. . . . Lung troubles are frequently seen. ". . . Anæmia will be found in the majority of shop "women." He adds further that "if we look at the "children of women who have worked under the con-"ditions mentioned the evil effects are, if anything, "more pronounced."(9) Dr. Yellowlees, of the Gartnavel Asylum considers that the mental disorders observed in shop girls are chiefly traceable to bodily weakness and poverty of blood, caused by confinement and long hours. In a list of cases among barmaids and waitresses given by a Sister in a London Hospital as treated during four years, anæmia takes a prominent place.(10) The Lady Sub-Commissioners' investigations amply corroborated these statements. Headache, indigestion, varicose veins, and swollen feet from the continuous standing, or, more generally, "bad health," are the records of case after case. One witness, whose evidence was regarded as "trustworthy" by the Lady Sub-Commissioner who quotes it, had served in 16 shops in London, and gave as the result in no less than 10 out of the 16 cases "prostration," or "complete prostration;" in the other six the

Injurious effects of excessive hours. (a.) Shop assistants and barmaids.

(1) Group C., Minutes of Evidence, Vol. III., Davis, 30,773. (2) pp. 3, 6–9, 87, 234. (3) p. 3. (4) p. 87. (5) p. 290. (6) pp. 3, 207, 234. (7) p. 207. (8) pp. 4, 88, 206, 234. (9) P. 322. (10) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Shortt, 8709, 8748. (11) p. 88.

(1) p. 234. (2) pp. 3, 87, 287. (3) p. 313. (4) pp. 3–4. (5) Reports, pp. 3–4, 85, 235. Group C., Minutes, Vol. III., Milligan, 30,938. (6) p. 85. (7) pp. 203, 286. (8) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Shortt, 8706; Tees, 8774. (9) pp. 318, 287. (10) p. 207

[§ 746 (a.)] effects were only some degrees less injurious.(1) A shop assistant who denied having suffered herself, and asserted that in her situation she had found many things to compensate for the long hours, admitted that delicate girls found them trying.(2) At a shop in the provinces it was stated that in summer there was "scarcely a day that one girl or other was not ill;" they got so worn out in the rush that they were "much "too tired to be able to enjoy their Sunday holiday, "or to do anything but lie in bed in the morning." In another shop where they worked 13 hours on four days, 14½ on one day, and 6 on another a girl had recently died of decline, brought on by overwork.(3) It was stated that in Wales the long-continued stress on Saturday is responsible for many of the cases of breaking down.(4) And though, says one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, "of the more serious consequences "which show themselves later on, it is impossible to "obtain direct evidence, because, when seriously ill, the "shop assistants return to their homes, which are, in "many cases, in small country districts," yet "of the "immediate effects, such as headache, backache, and "other results of indigestion every witness gave "evidence."(5) The long-continued standing was brought forward on almost all sides as one of the worst circumstances connected with the occupations of barmaids and shop assistants. The Lady Sub-Commissioner who investigated the conditions of work of barmaids states, however, that she had seen counter seats "in most public-houses and restaurants"; she was of opinion that "in an occupation necessitating "such long hours it is particularly important that seats "should be supplied to be used whenever work is slack." But the provision of seats is not the only thing necessary, for instances are mentioned in the evidence where "seats are allowed, but the girls are too busy to use them," or "seats allowed, but manager does not like the girls to use them." It is, moreover, remarked that "a "girl may be far more tired by being in a bar for many "hours, even if there are seats in it, than by standing "for a few hours with the prospect of complete rest at "a fixed time." Such a complete rest (generally one to two hours in the afternoon) is given in many places where the staff kept is large enough to admit of relays; in some cases the barmaids go to bed for a time.(6) With regard to shop assistants, one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners notes that, "In many cases there is a "terrible strain involved on the women owing to their "being kept standing all the hours they are engaged "in the shop, and there is abundant evidence to prove "that most serious results to health have been brought "about by this."(7) Seats are seldom provided; they were only found in four out of the 33 London shops of which information was obtained, and in three out of 63 in the provinces.(8) In Scotland the workers questioned were without exception in favour of their compulsory provision, though they regarded the retiring room suggested by Mr. Pollock, secretary of the Scottish Shopkeepers' and Assistants' Union, as impracticable. The great practical difficulty in the way of supplying sitting accommodation is in most cases the want of space; the absence of seats, however, is equally noticeable where this difficulty does not exist.(9) It may be remarked that in Wales the shop assistants did not desire seats behind the counters, though they approved of them in show-rooms and places where girls can rest for five minutes when at leisure; they were unanimously of opinion that "short hours are far more needed than seats."(10) It is when the peculiarly trying nature of the work is borne in mind that the importance of the question of shorter hours is most clearly seen. This consideration is summarised by one of the Lady Assistant Commissioners as follows: "The constant "supervision of the shopwalker, the patience and "politeness to be shown to the most trying customers, "the difficulty of telling the truth about the goods "without incurring the displeasure of the managers, "the long standing, the close atmosphere, even in the "well-ventilated shops when crowded with customers, "the short time for meals, the care required to keep "things in their right places, and to make out accounts "correctly, the long evenings with gaslight, and the "liability to dismissal without warning or explained "reason, all tend to render the occupation of the shop "assistants most trying to the nerves and injurious to "health."(11)

Seats.

(b.) Laundresses.

(b.) The Lady Sub-Commissioner who investigated the conditions of labour in laundries in Acton and London found that "by the employers' own admission, very long hours are worked." As already shown in section 2 (Hours), though in most cases the total hours per week did not exceed the limit allowed by the Factory Acts (*i.e.*, 60), yet in consequence of the way in which the work was distributed, the daily average was usually above that legal limit. The fatiguing nature of the work, the extreme heat, and the defective sanitation so often found, render such long hours peculiarly trying to the health, and various complaints on this score were brought forward.(1) But the recent report which has been issued by the Council of the "Women's Protective and Provident League at Glasgow" on this subject, shows that with regard to hours the conditions of women's work in laundries are considerably worse in Scotland than in the London district in England. In very few of the 50 laundries in Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee, Aberdeen, and Paisley, about which evidence was taken, was the weekly total of hours as low as 60, while in many it was 70, and in one case "89 to 92 hours," with "no regular time for meals." Though the practice of working six days in the week appeared to be more common than in England, the unequal distribution of the work involves in some cases "the excessive strain "of working 15, 16, or 17 hours in one or several days "in the week, and in exceptional cases 19, 24, and 37½ "hours at a stretch." Bitter complaints were made by many laundresses. They stated that they work till they are "fit to drop," "past eating or thinking," "till far on into Sunday morning regular." "Laundry work is slavery, only hard work early and late," "it was killing lots of them," "the long hours on certain days of the week a great strain." One witness, a girl of 18 years of age, who is paid a set wage of 6*s.* a week, stated that on a recent occasion she and other women worked from 8 a.m. on Friday till 9.30 p.m. on the following Saturday (37½ hours), the only intervals being an hour for breakfast, an hour for dinner, and a little time to take some tea. For this full-night shift she was only paid 1*s.* extra. Her mother said that she came home in a state of complete exhaustion, and was unable to rise from her bed the next day. Two laundresses who gave evidence stated that they worked 79 to 80 hours a week, not counting broken time after 10 p.m., with no regular time for meals. They were "paid a set "wage of 12*s.* and 13*s.* per week respectively; they get "nothing for their overtime, but 'must just work until "the work is done.' . . . 'The hours are murderous "as it is.'" Both of these women burst into tears when telling their story, and said they had thought something was to be done for the laundries a while ago, but they had "given up hoping now." Complaints were made on the part of the employers as to irregularity and intemperance amongst workers, which was attributed in some cases to the trying nature of the work and the long hours.(2) Evidence was given, both in England and Scotland, as to the especially injurious effects of these excessive hours upon the health of the "young person." In the steam laundries in the London district it was pointed out that children and young persons are usually working at the calenders, which is "the hottest part of the place." "In the hand laun-"dries the proportion of young persons who can be so "employed is much less. Children who have neither "the skill nor the strength to do hand work can be set "at once to put plain things between the rollers of the "machines, and to take them out on the other side. "They stand the whole day in this great heat for hours, "which the laundry managers themselves say are longer "than those allowed to adult women by the Factory "Acts."(3) A witness in Scotland stated that many young girls of 12 and 13 years of age were employed in laundries for the same hours as the adult workers. Her own daughter, a girl of 12, had suffered so seriously in health that she had to be removed from the work before the year was out. Another witness was the "message girl" in a laundry where 80 hours a week were worked. "She was 13 years of age, and some-"times worked later than the adult workers, as she "had to carry home the work they finished." She was described as "puny and sickly-looking," but "bright and intelligent."

[§ 746 (b.)]

(c.) Dressmakers and milliners.

(c.) The grievance of excessive hours worked by dressmakers, milliners, and other makers of articles of wearing apparel come chiefly under the head of overtime. Apart from this, however, the hours, considering the nature of the occupations and the unsanitary conditions already described, are extremely long, especially

(1) pp. 8, 9. (2) p. 7. (3) p. 85. (4) p. 235. (5) p. 89. (6) pp. 205–6, 217, 219. (7) p. 288. (8) pp. 4, 87. (9) p. 287. (10) p. 236. (11) pp. 88–9.

(1) pp. 17–23. (2) Report of an inquiry conducted for the Council of the Women's Protective and Provident League of Glasgow by Margaret H. Irwin. (3) p. 18.

[§746 (c).] in the case of the "young person." It must be remembered that the "young person" is anyone under 18 years of age; she may be, and often is, a child of 13 or 14, who has passed the 5th standard. "While *men*," says Mr. Cramp, one of H.M. Superintending Inspectors, "who work about nine hours a day, are agitating for "an eight hours' day, they allow their wives, sisters, "and daughters to work 12 hours, less 1½ for meals, "and for two months in the year for 14 hours, less 2 "hours for meals."(1) These are the hours which it is permissible to work in a non-textile factory or a workshop, which include dressmakers' and milliners' establishments and places in which articles of wearing apparel are made. Unfortunately, long as the normal hours are, the permission to work overtime for two months in the year is usually taken advantage of to the fullest extent, and it appeared to be the opinion of H.M. Inspectors that a great deal of illegal overtime also is worked. Very strong representations are made by them as to the injurious effect of this upon the health of the women and girls, more especially upon the "young person." It was pointed out by Mr. Bignold, H.M. Inspector for Devonshire and Cornwall, who gave evidence before the Commission, that as the law now stood "young girls between 13 and 18 are allowed to "work until 10 o'clock at night." "Much of the "good," says Mr. Cramp, "done by the Factory Act is "undone by allowing delicate women and girls to work "from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m."(1) Mr. Bignold further quoted a letter he had received from an inspector at Glasgow, who stated that in his experience the system of overtime for young girls "worked very badly." The lot of dressmakers' assistants was contrasted with that of girls who worked in textile factories where the hours are limited to 56½ per week, and where overtime is not allowed. "We may have a girl working in a cotton "factory who is home from her work at half-past five, "while her sister, working in a dressmaker's or a "milliner's place, under worse sanitary conditions, "does not get home till past 10." The unhealthy conditions of work too often found in such establishments, such as absence of warmth and fresh air, and the practice of overcrowding, have been alluded to under the section "Ventilation." When to these are added the sedentary nature of the occupation, it is not surprising to find that "overtime" is considered "very injurious to health." The late walk through the crowded streets at night was further mentioned as "not conducive to morality."(2) "Our . . . . experience "as factory inspectors," says H.M.'s Inspector for the Southampton District, "goes more to the question of "physical evil, and I have seen many a girl toiling "away in a workroom, where the gas has been burning "for five hours, upon whose face it did not want the "eye of a doctor to discover the traces of the irre-"mediable mischief which was going on."(3) [§ 746 (c).]

Overtime and "young persons."

5. INSPECTION AND LEGISLATION RELATING THERETO.

QUESTION OF LEGISLATIVE REGULATIONS WITH REGARD TO CERTAIN EMPLOYMENTS OR CLASSES OF WORKERS.

Laundries.

747. The insanitary conditions under which work is often carried on in laundries, and the injurious effects of the excessive hours worked in some districts have already been shown.(2) Hence arises the demand in some quarters for the inclusion of laundries under the Factory Acts. Opinion appears to be much divided on the subject. The Lady Sub-Commissioner who investigated the condition of women's employment in laundries in and near London stated that "the results "of such a limitation are so very problematic that "some of the employers found it difficult to decide "whether they would or would not be injured by such "a restriction." Of those employers who had formed an opinion on the subject, it appeared that the majority were in favour of limitation of hours, while the laundresses interviewed were about equally divided. Two independent investigations into the question of the conditions of work in laundries and the desirability of their inclusion under the Factory Acts were undertaken by the Women's Industrial Defence Committee, in London, and by the Women's Protective and Provident League of Glasgow, in that and other large towns in Scotland. In both cases very definite conclusions were arrived at, though unfortunately they were diametrically opposite. The report of the former states that the great majority of the employers and most of the laundresses, especially the more highly skilled and intelligent, are against such restriction of hours, while that of the latter states that the great majority of employers and almost all the laundresses are in favour of it. This marked diversity of opinion may be in some measure accounted for by the fact that the worst conditions—especially with respect to excessive hours—are those reported from Scotland. The opponents of the proposal contend that such restriction is impracticable in an industry in which demand is necessarily so uncertain. Further, that small and domestic laundries could not be subjected to the fixed limitation imposed by the Factory Acts without grave economic results. The higher prices, it is urged, necessitated by the shorter hours would lead to loss of work in some cases, and the gradual elimination of the smaller laundries in others, and thus great hardship would be inflicted upon a certain class of necessitous laundresses. Finally, it is contended by various laundresses that such restriction of hours is an unwarrantable infringement of their liberty. As one laundress in Acton remarked, if she wanted to leave off work she left off, and if she did not want to she went on. On the other hand, it was urged that the dislocation of the trade with regard to the distribution of work between large and small laundries, and the difficulty of apportioning the work within fixed hours, would be only temporary, and would right itself in time. It was, moreover, "absolutely necessary" for the State to put a stop to the abuses which have been shown to exist. The inference from the arguments of the advocates of this step is that the injury to the health of the workers resulting from the excessive hours worked under unhealthy conditions in many places under the present system would outweigh any hardship that legislative restrictions might impose upon any individuals or special class of workers.(4) Some more detailed evidence may be given on these points. The different difficulties involved in the limitation of hours appear to apply to different classes of laundries. For instance, the impossibility of restricting the hours of work within fixed limits was largely brought forward by those laundries who wash for clubs and hotels. "Many "families arrive . . . . at hotels who have all their "linen used up on the Continent and are going further "at once. This linen can only remain three or four "hours in the laundry, and has to be done whatever "time it may be, and people cannot carry with them "sufficient linen to prevent this . . . . It is a peculiar "trade dependent on the habits and caprice of indi-"viduals." "Hotels will promise anything to their customers and then we just have to carry it out," said another manager. This would appear to be the chief difficulty with this class of laundry. Another employer who took club and hotel table linen said the only effect that a limitation of hours would have was that hotels, &c. would be compelled to keep a sufficient stock of table linen for emergencies.(5) A witness from Scotland expressed the same opinion, adding, that it would "prevent their making rash promises to customers." Two hand laundry proprietors who were in favour of the change also said that the result would be that ladies would have to have more linen, and it would have to be collected when the clean linen was taken back. It was also urged that many laundries were short-handed. The irregularity of the women themselves was brought forward on all sides as a very great practical difficulty. One laundry proprietor said, "a limitation of hours was "quite impracticable, as the laundresses could never "be induced to come punctually in the morning."(6) This difficulty was especially urged in the case of small or shop laundries, the women preferred to work long hours on four or five days in the week and then have one or two clear days for their domestic duties. This was particularly the case in England. As the majority of laundresses are married women they often turn to washing for a short time while the husband is sick or out of work. Thus it is pointed out that the difficulty of legislative restrictions in an industry in which the demand for work as well as the supply of workers is irregular is unusually great. Many of the laundresses themselves, it is stated, would greatly resent the

Difference of opinion as to legislative interference.

Practical difficulties.

(1) p. 18. (2) See *supra*, pp. 513-14, 527.

(1) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, Cramp, p. 92. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Bignold, 10,000-180. (3) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, Bowling, p. 91. (4) pp. 17-23. Report of Women's Industrial Defence Committee, pp. 1-12. Report of the Women's Protective and Provident League of Glasgow, pp. 1-15. (5) p. 19. (6) p. 22.

[§ 747.] proposed restriction of hours, as they would thereby be deprived of the extra money they earn as overtime.(1)

Economic difficulties. It is also contended that the economic effects of bringing laundries under the Factory Acts would be to "abolish the small laundries for the benefit of the large." It appeared to be thought that the limitation of hours would be naturally followed by a rise in prices. This might compel the poorer class of customers either to give their work to people washing and ironing in their own homes or to do their washing at home themselves. Or again they might "send their small easy things" to steam laundries, where they could be done cheaply by machinery.(2) The proprietors of the hand laundries seemed to consider it doubtful if "customers would ever pay more." "Ladies screwed the laundries down dreadfully." Another witness, however, said, "if "prices rose, probably some people would do their "washing at home, but those were the people all the "laundries could most easily afford to lose."(3) It was also urged by the Women's Industrial Defence Committee that the restriction of hours would lead to women being replaced by men, and an extract from the census returns was made showing that the number of men employed in the "washing and bathing service" was increasing largely. On the other hand it appears, from the report of the Lady Sub-Commissioner, and more particularly from that issued by the Women's Protective and Provident League of Glasgow, that the majority of the witnesses and even some of the managers of shop and private laundries in Scotland (where the feeling in favour of legislative restriction of hours was very pronounced) did not anticipate any serious inconvenience from the proposed change, "if all laundries are made alike." It was stated "that the public might feel some incon- "venience to begin with, but would probably get "educated up to it." Another proprietor thought there was nothing in the nature of laundry work to prevent the restriction of hours to Factory Act limits. The irregularity of the workers was the sole difficulty. Again it was stated that it would equal se the work and "the regular hours would steady the women." With regard to the contention that the restrictions would crush the small laundries, it was stated that "the "general opinion appears to be that the trade would "adjust itself and be distributed very much as it is at "present, *i.e.*, each class preserving its own class of "customers."(4)

Summary of arguments. The report of the Women's Industrial "Defence Committee sums up its case against the legislative restriction of hours worked in laundries thus:—"On the whole, we cannot but conclude that bringing "all laundries under the Factory Acts would crush "out the small laundries and concentrate work in big "buildings; this would mean more machinery, men, "and lads, and fewer women, and would thus take "away from a large class of necessitous women one "of their chief resources." On receipt of the report, the Committee passed the following resolution, "That "while admitting the desirability of protection for "children, the Women's Industrial Defence Committee "protest emphatically against any interference with "the hours of labour of adult women in laundries, being "convinced that such interference would deprive a "large number of women of a means of honest living." On the other hand, the Council of the Women's Protective and Provident League at Glasgow passed the following resolution:—"That the conditions of women's "labour in public laundries of this and other "cities of Scotland, disclosed by Miss Irwin's "report, make it absolutely necessary that these "laundries should be brought under State regu- "lation and inspection; that, in particular, it has "been shown that the number of hours per week "during which these workers are forced to labour is "often excessive, and that the evils of such excess are "greatly aggravated by the irregularity with which "the work is distributed between different days, and "especially by the way in which it is often continued "through part or the whole of Saturday night; that "the conditions under which this protracted labour is "undergone are often unhealthy, the laundries often "being so constructed or arranged that it is impos "sible to prevent the temperature from rising to "86 degrees or upwards; that it has been shown by "the testimony of skilled persons, and by the facts of "supply and demand, that there is nothing in the "nature of the business to make these evils, and par- "ticularly the excessive hours of labour, necessary, but "that individual employers in competition with each "other are altogether unable to remedy them even [§ 747.] "when they are willing; that, therefore, in the opinion "of the Women's Protective and Provident League, "there is an urgent necessity that the laundries "should, without delay, be brought under the Factory "and Workshop Acts with a view to the limitation of "the hours of labour, and the securing of healthy "conditions in the buildings in which the work is "carried on." It appeared from the evidence that as laundry work was so peculiar, both as regards its special requirements and the character of the workers, it would require greater elasticity than is allowed by the limits imposed by the Factory Acts. But it also seemed possible that there might be some middle course between bringing it under the hard-and-fast lines that were designed to meet quite different conditions, and leaving it in its present unregulated state, where abuses such as those described in the Scotch report are unchecked. For instance, one of the objections to the limitation of hours under the Factory Act appeared to refer quite as much to the limitation of the actual hours between which work might be carried on as to the restriction of the number of the hours themselves. The great difficulty brought forward in many cases was the irregularity and unpunctuality of the women, who, being in most cases married, have their domestic affairs to attend to before leaving home. As the evil complained of is rather the length of hours than the time during which the work is done, it appeared that this objection might possibly be met by according a greater license in the case of laundries as to the hours during which work may be legally performed. But whether or no any restriction of hours is advisable, the evidence afforded no reason why laundries should not be placed on the same footing as factories and workshops with regard to the inspection of the sanitary condition of the premises and of the machinery in those places where it is used. It was shown in the section Ventilation(1) how great is the necessity in many places. As things stand, by the Factory Act of 1891 the Secretary of State has power to send an inspector to any laundry where he has reason to believe any sanitary abuse exists. But unless a definite complaint from a particular place is made, it does not appear that the sanitary arrangements of laundries are inspected at all. The machinery in steam laundries is not at present under inspection, although it is in some cases "dangerously crowded." An employer who was advocating its inspection seemed quite unaware that this was the case in his own laundry.(2)

Shop assistants. 748. The very trying nature of the work of the shop assistant, and the serious effect of the long hours on the health, have already been described.(3) Various proposals for State interference are urged. At present, by the Shop Hours' Regulation Act, 1886, which applies also to public houses and restaurants, children and young persons are restricted to 74 hours a week, inclusive of an undefined interval for meals, which is longer by 14 hours than the time that may legally be worked by women in non-textile factories. Suggestions are made to extend this Act to all women, and again to all men; to extend the Factory and Workshop Act to all shops where assistants are employed; to subject the living and sleeping accommodation to inspection, and to promote an Early Closing or Half-Holiday Bill. Thus, Mr. Pollock, secretary to the Scotch Shopkeepers' and Assistants' Union, advocated considerable amendments to the Shop Hours Act, and the extension of its range to both men and women, with, however, certain arrangements in the case of the former for working longer hours on special occasions, due notice being given to the inspector. He was of opinion that the Act should reduce the limit to 66 hours, inclusive of meal times, that it should fix a certain length of day, provide for the inspection of the sanitation and ventilation of shops, and the appointment of women inspectors, and stipulate for an hour for meals for shop assistants, and that the whole country should be under some inspector whose address should be known everywhere.(4) But, whatever form the reduction of the hours of women shop assistants might take, a fear seems to be generally felt that unless the hours of the men were similarly restricted, women would be placed at a disadvantage. Some employers did not anticipate this result, but one London shop-keeper, while asserting that his assistants did not work more than 74 hours a week, said that should the hours of women be limited to 74, he should dismiss those in his employ, and replace them by men.(5) In Scotland the feeling among women shop assistants is reported to be, "that any limitation

(1) Report of Women's Industrial Defence Committee. (2) pp. 17, 22. (3) pp. 21, 22. (4) Report of the Women's Protective and Provident League of Glasgow.

(1) See *supra*, p. 513. (2) p. 17. (3) See *supra*, pp. 525-6. (4) p. 313. (5) p. 4.

[§ 748.] "of working hours in shops which is not applied "equally to men and women would be injurious to the "industrial interests of the latter."(1) The Lady Sub-Commissioner who collected evidence from London shops "received a general impression that the men "were much more actively discontented with their "long hours than the women, and that, were a limita- "tion of the hours of the latter by legislation possible, "the men would of their own initiative be induced to "secure equally short hours for themselves." She adds, however, that "this statement only applies to the "drapery business; in places where only men are "employed, with the exception of a few women as "cashiers, a limitation of the hours affecting women "only might easily have the effect of driving women "out of employment, unless a very decided difference "in the rate of payment prevails."(2) A practical obstacle urged in the way of legislative limitation of hours in the case of shop assistants was the impossibility of enforcing such regulations "owing to the "great difficulty in proving that assistants had been "working the whole time the shop was open, and also "the unwillingness of the girls to give evidence against "their employers." Moreover, a fear was expressed lest, if the present Shop Hours' Regulation Act were applied to women, the sanctioning by law of so high a limit as 74 hours should encourage employers to increase their hours of work to that standard.(2)

Inspection of living and sleeping accommodation.

With regard to the desire sometimes expressed for the inspection of the living and sleeping accommodation of both shop assistants and barmaids, the Lady Sub-Commissioner states that she considers that "the difficulties of such "inspection would be very great owing to the impossi- "bility of fixing any standard of necessary comfort or "cleanliness."(3) That the standard prevailing in many cases is extremely low has been shown in a previous section, "Lack of provision for health and comfort of shop assistants and barmaids." It was recognised that this doubtless a point in which very large discretionary powers would necessarily be left in the hands of the inspector. Still, the question was raised whether the mere fact that the living and sleeping accommodation was subject to inspection, and that abuses in this connection could be reported, and their remedy enforced, would not do much towards the inauguration of a better state of things.

Compulsory early closing.

An Early Closing and Half Holiday Bill, subject to local option, is favoured by the Scottish Shopkeepers' and Assistants' Union.(4) The Lady Sub-Commissioner who made inquiries in Scotland says, "I have frequent expres- "sions of opinion from employers that they would "gladly close earlier if other shops in their trade in the "district did the same." And again, "The consensus "of opinion from assistants in shops which keep open "after 7 p.m. is that earlier hours will never be obtained "until made compulsory by law."(5) Several shop-keepers in Ireland, while saying that they could not close early when other shops kept open, were of opinion that legislative limitation of hours would not injure the trade.(6) With regard to the half-holiday, one employer maintained that his assistants preferred to choose their day rather than have it fixed definitely for one and all. On the other hand it was pointed out that unless there was a fixed day they were liable to lose their holiday.(3)

Barmaids.

With reference to barmaids, it may be noted that a suggestion was made before the Commission in favour of the legislative restriction of their hours.(7) No evidence on this point, however, was brought forward by the Lady Sub-Commissioner, who subsequently investigated the conditions of labour in public houses and restaurants.

Dress-makers and "localised overtime."

749. The demand for further legislative restriction of hours in the case of dressmakers and milliners, &c., arises chiefly, as has been already shown, from the grievance of overtime. Under the present system dressmakers may legally work for two months in the year from 8 in the morning till 10 at night. H.M. Inspectors urge that, in the interest of the workers, this "overtime" should be entirely done away with. One of them stated before the Commission that his time was largely taken up in the endeavour to keep overtime in check, and that with the present inadequate staff of inspectors, it was impossible for this "most important duty" to be adequately performed. He pointed out a "grave defect" in the existing law, by which inspectors are only apprised of the fact that overtime is being worked after it has been begun. About nine-tenths of the notices of overtime "come from "dress and millinery and mantle-making establish- "ments." He was of opinion that the work could and should be all done with in the 12 hours, "it only wants a little arrangement." Overtime "has immensely increased." "I think it ought to be stopped, and might "be stopped, and if it is not stopped we ought to have "considerable assistance in keeping it in check." Other inspectors referred to the system of overtime as "pernicious," "disgraceful," and "iniquitous," and the demand was made for the concession of overtime to be reduced to the "lowest possible limits" and to be restricted to the case of "manufacture of perishable articles of food." (1) [§ 749.]

Excessive hours worked by the "young person."

750. The question of the length of hours which it is legally permissible for the "young person" to work has been constantly brought forward in the evidence. The case of the young person has never been treated by itself, and consequently great anomalies exist with regard to the hours she may legally work in different employments. In textile and non-textile factories young persons are subject to the same restrictions as women. That is to say, they may work 56½ hours in the former with no overtime, and 60 hours in the latter with overtime in certain specified cases. It is in connection with overtime in non-textile factories and workshops that some of the chief abuses arise, especially with reference to dressmaking and clothing establishments. Thus a girl between the age of 13 or 14 and 18 may, "with the sanction of the Factory and Workshop "Act, work 77½ hours in one week, less meal times." Hence by legalising overtime for young persons, they may be employed from 8 in the morning till 10 at night for five days a week for two months in the year. As one of H.M. Inspectors remarks, "If eight hours can be properly considered the time for adult males to work, how can it be right to allow females and young persons to be employed for 14 hours?" Another inspector suggests that where "the absolute necessity of overtime was established,"—which, in his opinion, would be in very few cases—the age of the "young person" should be raised to 21 if a girl, and 16 if a boy. He further advocates the compulsory medical examination of all such "young persons" by the certifying surgeon before such overtime permission is granted. This, he remarks, is "far more reasonable" than the present very limited requirement for certificates of fitness of young persons in certain classes of factories before they are allowed to work the *ordinary* hours.(2) The only other cases in which the hours of work for the young person are legally defined are in the Shop Hours and the Coal Mines Regulation Acts. By the former young persons may be legally employed for 74 hours a week. This, the general secretary of the Scottish Shopkeepers and Assistants remarks, is "too long. It "should not be more than 66 hours, including meal "hours." It is a common occurrence, he states, for "message girls" to be sent out when the shop closes, delivering goods after 9 o'clock on week nights and after 11 on Saturdays.(3) By the Coal Mines Regulation Act the hours of boys working below ground, and of any young person of either sex working above ground, may not exceed 54 a week, or 10 in any one day. In industries which are not covered by these or by the Factory and Workshop Acts the hours of labour of young persons are entirely unregulated. Thus the hours worked by children and young persons in laundries were found to be excessively long. This was especially noticeable in Scotland, where the young persons worked not only as long, but longer, than the adults, as they often had to take the linen home at night after the work was done.(4) One of the Lady Sub-Commissioners noticed that in the steam laundries children and young persons were working at the calenders, which is the hottest part. "They stand the "whole day in this great heat, for hours which the "laundry managers themselves say are longer than "those allowed to adult women by the Factory Act."(5) It would appear from the evidence that some steps are necessary to regulate the hours of all young persons. That they are in most cases excessive seemed to be a general opinion, and many of H.M. Inspectors, who have special opportunities of observing the injurious results, held strong views on the subject.(6) It could hardly be denied that a careful restriction of the hours of young persons would be ultimately an economically sound policy, since the adult worker would be more efficient if she had not been overstrained in her youth. Various suggestions were thrown out upon the question of restriction of hours. One of H.M. Inspectors of Factories who gave evidence before the Commission

(1) p. 286. (2) p. 4. (3) p. 3. (4) pp. 315-317. (5) p. 286. (6) p. 321. (7) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Shortt, 8739-55.

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Bignold, 10,100-306. Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, pp. 88-93. (2) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, pp. 88-93. (3) pp. 311-13. (4) Report of Women's Provident and Protective League at Glasgow. (5) p. 18. (6) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Bignold, 10,057, 306. Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, pp. 88-93.

[§ 750.] was of the opinion that overtime in the case of young girls should be abolished. This would leave a normal working day of 12 hours including meals, with a short day on Saturday. If "overtime" were thus absolutely forbidden in their case, it appeared that the chief evil with regard to the excessive hours worked by the large number of young persons employed in non-textile factories and workshops—and especially in dressmaking establishments—would be to some degree remedied. But such a step would not cover those cases where the hours are totally unrestricted, as in laundries, or those in which the legal hours are already too long, as in shops. For this reason, it was asserted that the matter could hardly be put on a satisfactory footing unless a general limit were set upon the hours legally permissible to any young person in whatever industry. (It may be noted that the shortest hours that are legalised in the case of young persons are those which they are permitted to work in textile factories, *i.e.*, 56½ per week, and "above ground" in coal pits, *i.e.*, 54 hours per week, and about these no complaints are made.) If, again, the suggestion of H.M. Inspectors were adopted, and the age of the young person so protected were raised to 21, as is the case in France, the benefit arising from the shorter hours would be far-reaching.(1) On the other hand it must be remembered that unless the hours of boys and girls were equally restricted, the girl might be at a disadvantage in seeking employment. A representative of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers was of opinion that the age of the young person of both sexes should be raised to 21.(2) In reference to this question the Warden of the Women's University Settlement at Southwark states that, in her opinion, "the hours of labour of girls and young women are "too long, and that it would be very desirable that "they should be shortened." "If these classes," she adds, "were efficiently protected for a long enough "period, say, till the age of 18 or 20, they would "probably be able subsequently to take care of themselves, in which case State interference on behalf of "women would be unnecessary."

Restriction of the employment of married women. (*a.*) *In dangerous or unsuitable employments.*

751. (*a.*) The question of the restriction or prohibition of the employment of married women in dangerous or unsuitable employments stands apart from the general question. In the case of two of the most unhealthy industries, *e.g.*, white lead and pottery manufacture—recommendations on the subject have recently been made by the Departmental Committees appointed to inquire into the conditions of labour in those employments. The report on the potteries states that "it is "sufficiently established that lead may provoke miscarriage when a woman is pregnant, and likewise "operates prejudicially on the unborn child, if it "survives its birth. It is therefore undesirable for "married women to be employed in processes where "lead is used."(3) The report on white lead manufacture advocates the prohibition of the employment of any woman in the dangerous processes.(4) The common custom of the employment of the wives and children of boatmen on canal boats was also attacked on general grounds by various representatives of that industry. It was contended with great force that the rough and heavy nature of the work rendered it extremely "unsuitable" for women—"hard," "degrading," "dangerous," were other epithets applied in this connection—and the practice of women climbing up the lock gates from the boat was quoted as a case in point. The secretary to the Mersey Watermen and Porters' Association stated that women and children were chiefly to be found in "slow boats," and in a "few cases" when the husbands are good and the women are not required "to do the real work of navigating the boat, as the great bulk of the women were," but merely to "assist in steering," to look after the cabins and "attend to the meals," no harm was done, and the family was able to keep together without great expense.(5) But more often the provisions of the Canal Boats Act were openly violated, a far larger number of persons live on board than is legally permissible, the children practically escape all education, and the effect on the women is that described above. Various witnesses who gave evidence before the Commission strongly urged that the Canal Boats Act should be extended, and that the employment of women and children on the boats should be prohibited.(6) Mr. George Smith of Coalville, however, who is the author of various works on the canal population, while fully recognising all the evils resulting from the present system, did not wish "to interfere with adult female labour by law." The difficulties in the way of such a step he regarded as "insurmountable." If, however, the employment of children were legally prohibited, the gradual withdrawal of the women from the boats would be a natural consequence.(1) The Lady Sub-Commissioner who visited the nail and chain making district deprecated legal interference with the work of married or of young women. "Any sudden prohibition "in the present state of trade would mean the work-"house to many thousands." She advocates rather a gradual lessening of women's work in the trade brought about by indirect means. "Efforts made by "philanthropic people to induce young women to "adopt a more suitable employment, and the establish-"ment of other industries in the district seem the "better way to approach the difficulty." As to restricting the weight of iron she says, "the women "have free choice of work, and the fine chain work, "when well done, certainly pays best. The muscle "and constitution of the worker appears to be the "natural guide to the kind of work chosen . . . . "They do what suits them, what they can get orders "for—in short, what pays best."(2) [§ 751 (*a.*)]

(*b.*) *In all employments.*

(*b.*) It appeared that in most industries, especially in the textile industries, great difference of opinion existed as to the advisability of restricting by law the employment of married women, although all classes agree as to the undesirable effect produced upon the home by the present system. The employers at Glasgow "unanimously disapproved" of married women's work, and four employers in Yorkshire desired "compulsory restriction." A fancy hosier employer at Leicester stated that he "discountenanced" home work as far as possible.(3) The evidence of working men examined before the Commission and by the Lady Sub-Commissioners showed that a strong feeling was rising amongst the more thoughtful in various industries against the practice of employing married women. This was especially noticeable in the nut and bolt and chain and nail industry, where legal prohibition was in most cases demanded.(4) It may be noted that this opposition was usually found in those districts where the question of competition with the men comes in.(5) But the objections chiefly urged were those based upon social and domestic grounds—which have been already discussed in detail (6)—the disastrous effect upon home life and upon the health of the mothers and children. On the other side it appears from the evidence—with the partial exception of Birmingham—that the pressure of poverty and the necessity of keeping the home together when the husband is ill or out of work drives married women to seek employment either at home or in factories. However undesirable this may be, the argument of sheer necessity is difficult to gainsay, and the large numbers of married women at present working are opposed to any restriction. Thus, Mr. Sidney Webb, who was strongly opposed on all grounds to the employment of married women, did not advocate its direct prohibition. The proper aim, in his opinion, was to hasten the advent of such a social development that mothers of families should be released from their present necessity of working for their living.(7) Many workers, it is stated, fear that the immediate withdrawal of married women from the factories would have a very bad effect upon the homes, which for any of the reasons above stated are practically supported by the wives' labour. Objections are also raised against restriction on moral grounds. It is feared that any such measure would tend to give an advantage to unmarried women in wage-earning, and thus discourage marriage and encourage the evasion of the law by concealment of marriage.(8) In the case of the nail and chain and bolt making industry, where extremely early marriages are the custom, it is pointed out that the youths and young girls would evade such a law by avoiding the legal ceremony of marriage altogether.(2)

Inspection of Domestic Workshops.

752. A demand was made in some quarters for the inspection of domestic workshops. The distinction between small workshops, which it was stated constantly escape inspection, and domestic workshops proper, in which only members of the family are employed, was not always clearly kept. The former, whatever their size, are already under the Factory and Workshop Acts in all particulars and should be

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Bignold, 10,194, 10,306. Foreign Reports, Vol. VI. (France) &c., p. 106. (2) Group A., Digest, Vol. III., p. 35. (3) Report of the Departmental Committee on the Conditions of Labour in Potteries, p. 8. (4) Report of the Departmental Committee on the Various Lead Industries. (5) Group B., Minutes, Vol. II., Turner, 51,83–94. (6) Group B., Digest, Vol. II., pp. 60–3, 65.

(1) Group B., Digest, Vol. III., pp. 16–17 (2) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Appendix, p. 575, Miss Orme. (3) Reports, pp. 102, 173. Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., Tabberer, 13,869. (4) Group A., Digest, Vol. II., pp. 54–6; Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Juggins, 17,853; Homer, 17, 114–7. (5) Group C., Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. xiii. (6) See pp. 507–10, *supra*. (7) Digest of Evidence taken before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, p. 58. (8) p. 102.

[§ 752.] inspected by the local authorities. Complaints on this head therefore resolve themselves into complaints as to the working of these Acts in certain cases. Domestic workshops are also under the Acts, but in one particular and in respect to one class of persons only. Children and young persons in domestic workshops are subject to the same limitation of hours as are imposed on them in non-textile factories (*i.e.*, 62½ per week) though the period during which work may be carried on is extended (*i.e.*, 6 a.m. to 9 p.m.). The hours of adult women working in domestic workshops are entirely unrestricted. The demand for the inspection of these workshops would appear to rise very largely from the desire to remedy the insanitary conditions under which home work is constantly carried on, which was complained of on all sides. Particular reference to the conditions of labour in home industries was made in paragraph 729 in the section dealing with the employment of married women.(1) Amongst other proposals, Mr. Charles Booth, giving evidence before the Commission, suggested a "wide extension of the Factory Acts" which would bring "most indoor employments "under regulations as to hours of work, space to work "in, and sanitation." He proposed that the legal definition of workshop should be extended so as to include any room or place in which any person who employed or worked in partnership with any other person—with the exception of the wife working with or for her husband—was engaged in any process of manufacture. The landlord, in his opinion, should be partially responsible for the carrying out of the Acts. He also proposed a plan for the registration of all workshops.(2) It may be noted that in November 1892 the Home Secretary, under section 27 (1) of the Factory and Workshops Act of 1891, issued an order by which all employers and their contractors who were engaged in the manufacture of articles of wearing apparel, electro plate, files, or cabinet and furniture making or upholstery work, were required to keep a register with the names and addresses of all persons employed by them as "out workers," which should be open to inspection by the factory inspectors or by the sanitary authorities.

DEFECTS AND ANOMALIES CONNECTED WITH THE FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACTS.

The division of powers between the local and central authorities with regard to sanitary matters.

753. The unsatisfactory sanitary condition of many factories and workshops was attributed by various witnesses to the dual control exercised over sanitary matters by the central and local authorities. The law with regard to the degree of responsibility and the division of powers between them is obscure, but appears to stand thus:—By the Factory and Workshop Act of 1878, the responsibility for the sanitary condition of both factories and workshops was put into the hands of the central authority (sec. 3). If the inspector found any abuse which was punishable under the Public Health Act, he was to report the matter to the local sanitary authority, whose duty it was to take such action as might "seem proper for the purpose of enforcing the law" (sec. 4). Any reform in sanitation which would require structural alteration would appear to come under this head.(3) By the Act "to consolidate and amend the law relating to factories and workshops" of 1891, the entire regulation of the sanitary condition of workshops was taken from the factory inspectors and given to the local sanitary authorities (secs. 3 and 4.) Thus the responsibility now lies with the local authorities in the first instance in all cases, instead of as in the case of factories, only after a specific defect has been brought to their notice by the factory inspector. In both factories and workshops it appears that the sanitary provisions fall under two heads: (*i.*) Those punishable under the Public Health Act, which relate mainly to drains and sewers, and to some extent to the provision of decent sanitary accommodation. (*ii.*) Those which are required by the Factory Acts, which relate to cleanliness, ventilation and overcrowding. As the law now stands, the former should be enforced by the local sanitary authority in both factories and workshops, and the latter by the local sanitary authorities in the case of workshops, but by the factory inspector in the case of factories.(4) In certain processes in manufacture where special ventilation is required, the factory inspector can enforce its adoption in both factories and workshops (sec. 36 of Act of 1878). The Act of 1891 provides, however, that the central authority shall retain full power to remedy abuses in both factories and workshops in the last resort (secs. 1 and 2.) By section 4 of the Act of 1878 the factory inspector did not appear to have any power to enforce any reform which was "remedial under the law relating to public health" if the local authority failed to do so. By section 2 (2) of the Act of 1891 it appears that when notice of any such defect, either in a workshop or a factory, has been given to the local sanitary authority by the inspector, and steps have not been taken within a reasonable time towards remedying it, the inspector may take the matter into his own hands, remedy the evil and recover all the expenses incurred, which are not recovered from any other person, from the sanitary authority. Although in workshops these provisions of the Factory Act of 1878 with regard to other sanitary matters, such as ventilation, overcrowding, or lime-washing, which are not covered by the Public Health Act, are by the Act of 1891 turned over to local authorities in the first place, yet if the Secretary of State is satisfied that the provisions of the law have not been carried out, he can authorise an inspector to take such steps as are necessary to enforce the said provisions. The expenses of such proceedings which are not recovered from any other person are to be recovered from the sanitary authorities. It would thus appear that workshops are now far more dependent on the local sanitary authorities in the first place than factories, and it is with regard to workshops that the chief complaints concerning the working of the Act of 1891 are made. One defect in the Act would appear to be that there is no guarantee that the sanitary authority is fit for the responsibility thus laid upon it. It seems from the evidence that in many cases it is wholly unfit, and the report from various quarters has been "nothing has been done." No special machinery, such as an efficient staff of workshop inspectors, was required by the Act, and in many cases such provision does not appear to exist. Some idea of the qualifications of the local authorities in some places may be gathered from the opinions of H.M. Inspectors giving evidence before the Commission. The local authority was described as sometimes "inert," especially in the "country districts," where "the machinery is sometimes very defective." It was thought that "most of them had a sanitary inspector and a medical officer of health," but up to the time this Act was passed their duties were generally very light, and their pay would not be sufficient to enable them to spend much time on their work, "even if they were to be remunerated at all." "The problem is how to make the local authorities do "their work, I do not think we are much nearer the "solution of that question," said another inspector.(1) One disadvantage of putting the sanitary regulation of workshops under the local authorities which was brought forward by the treasurer of the Trades Congress Parliamentary Committee was that when the local inspector was working side by side with manufacturers, as was usually the case in manufacturing towns, he would naturally feel some diffidence in sitting in judgment on his fellows, which would not be felt in the case of a Government inspector. He also stated that if workshops are under the local authorities, "the employers are apt to "get to know who makes complaints better than they "could through the factory inspectors."(2) Still, although the sanitary authority may be found wanting, the Secretary of State is empowered by the Act of 1891 to authorise a factory inspector to remedy any regulations (sections 1 and 2). But there does not appear to be any precise machinery by which such "defaults or neglect" is necessarily made known to the Secretary of State, unless a special complaint is made to him or to a factory inspector on the subject. The factory inspector presumably visits the workshops to see that regulations other than sanitary of the Factory and Workshop Acts are complied with, and the final supervision of the carrying out of the sanitary clauses of the Act of 1891 might then come before him. But as owing to the enormous number of factories and workshops in the charge of one man, he may only be able in the ordinary course of things to visit each workshop "once in three years" or "once in two years"(3), it is obvious that serious sanitary abuses may exist for a considerable while before they are detected and their remedy enforced by the central authority. And even then, it is not until the defect has been pointed out to the local authority and "reasonable time" has elapsed and the evil is still unremedied, that the factory inspector can deal summarily [§ 753.]

(1) See *supra*, pp. 509–10. (2) Evidence taken before Commission Sitting as a Whole, Mr. Booth, 5418–5460. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Beaumont, 9238. (4) Sections 1–4 of Factory and Workshop Acts of 1878 and 1891.

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Prior, 6810–13, 6900–3; Bignold, 10,18 (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. II., Inskip, 16,005–15. (3) Group C., Minutes Vol. I., Prior, 6766–7; Beaumont, 9229–30.

[§ 753.] with the matter. To this dual control one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners attributed much of the evasion of the law with regard to sanitary matters which was found in so many places. In Lancashire, where the sanitary conditions of the mills was extremely bad, "I could only find one case in which "the local sanitary authority had taken action. In "this case the visit of the sanitary inspector had "taken place some time previous to mine; the "nuisance still remained, and the owner of the mill "remarked that as he believed the local sanitary "inspector was in the pay of the plumbers he did not "intend to improve his accommodation."(1) Again, the lavatory in a second-class tailor's shop in Glasgow was found to be in a filthy condition. "On account of "the effluvia witness has four times appealed to the "sanitary authorities on the matter, but although an "inspector called every time after her applica- "tion, no alteration had been made in the sanitary "arrangements." Six months had passed since her first appeal.(2) "Confusion in work has been the "result of confusion in control," and the work of the recently appointed sanitary inspector in Nottingham, Miss Hawkesley, is said to be "much hampered by the "divided powers with regard to sanitation, which she "shares with factory inspectors."(3) H.M. Inspectors of Factories make the following criticisms on the working of the sanitary clauses of the Act of 1891 with regard to workshops. "I am satisfied," says one, "that it would be more satisfactory to have the "administration of the Workshops Act concentrated "under one authority. It could be done either by the "factory department or by the local sanitary autho- "rities much better than it is done now, when both "share the responsibility." One of H.M. Superintending Inspectors observes, "In a few towns, such as Bir- "mingham and Nottingham, the work has been under- "taken by the city councils and officers appointed to "visit the workshops, but in the vast majority of "towns and villages nothing has been done by the "local authorities." Again, "As to the new sanitary "clauses, I find that those which are now under the "administration of the sanitary authorities have "received a very unequal share of attention in the "different towns to which they apply, in fact with the "exception of Leeds and one or two small places I "have as yet found no signs of any action having been "taken at all. In more than one instance have I been "told by the medical officers of health when calling "upon them, as desired by you, that they have drawn "their sanitary committee's attention to the new Act, "but have received no instruction to put it into opera- "tion."(4) It would appear from the foregoing evidence and from the reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, that so far in certain large progressive towns the system works admirably,(5) but that in many other cases the complaint is not so much that it works badly as that it does not work at all. Unless some means are devised for insuring efficiency and zeal on the part of the local sanitary authority or for providing machinery whereby defaults on their part are speedily rectified by the central authority, it would seem that the sanitary provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act of 1891 were likely in many cases to remain a dead letter.

Other defects. Want of clearness in the "Abstracts."

754. Various minor defects connected with the Factory and Workshop Acts were noted. Want of clearness in the "Abstracts" was one of these points. These, in the opinion of one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, were "incomprehensible to anyone but a factory inspector." The factory instead of the workshop abstract was found to be posted up in some cases, one employer stated that when he went to buy one he had not known which abstract to ask for. In other cases when the right abstract was put up it was filled in wrong. In consequence of the obscurity of these documents, they do not afford much protection to the workpeople, who often appeared quite ignorant of their contents. One girl was found to be under the impression that by the Factory Act overtime was not merely permissible but compulsory.(6) One of H.M. Inspectors giving evidence before the Commission said: "I think "it would be a useful aid to inspection if a popular "publication of a few of the regulations were made." It may be noted that an attempt to supply this want so far as the Factory and Workshop Acts is concerned has been made in the form of a memorandum prepared by "one of the labour correspondents of the Board of "Trade, assisted and advised by the Chief Inspector "of Factories," which is published in the July number of the "Labour Gazette" for 1893. As these abstracts are sometimes put up in parts of the building where certain classes of the workers rarely if ever enter, it was suggested that "it might be desirable to bring it "more immediately under their notice by having a "copy fixed in every workroom of a workshop. At "present the number of abstracts is left to the dis- "cretion of the factory inspector."(1) The evasion of clause 24 of the Factory and Workshop Act of 1891, which enacts that "sufficient particulars" shall be supplied with the work to enable the worker "to "ascertain the rate of wages at which he is entitled to "be paid" has already been referred to.(2) At present this requirement only refers to "weavers in the cotton, "worsted, woollen, linen, or jute trades, or winders, "weavers, or reelers in the cotton trade." In the jute weaving districts of Scotland "it is felt to be a hard- ship" that the winders and reelers in that industry are not included in this requirement. It would seem that if some such clause as the above were made of general application it would cover various cases in which workers are paid for less work than is actually performed, though at present owing to the absence of "sufficient particulars" this is difficult to prove.(3) Another curious anomaly that was pointed out was that the Factory and Workshop Acts, while making provision for protection from fire in the case of factories in which more than 40 persons are employed, makes no provision for the safety of persons in workshops in which more than 40 persons are employed, nor for small factories or small workshops congregated in one large building.(4) Thus Miss Hawkesley, the sanitary inspector at Nottingham, complained that her powers with regard to provision against fire are confined to factories. Hence she is powerless to order that a fire-escape shall be attached to a workshop on the seventh floor, while she is empowered to make this order for a factory on the second or third floor.(5) The absence of any provision for warmth in the sanitary requirements for factories and workshops, and the prejudicial effects of this upon ventilation and the health, has already been shown.(6) It was remarked by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners that there is, as a rule, much vagueness in the minds of the workers as to where and in what form complaints from them should be lodged. This difficulty, she believes, would probably be minimised were "local offices in connection with the inspectorate "established in the more important industrial centres, "to which workers could go for information or with "grievances. They would have much less difficulty "in approaching the inspector on matters requiring "his attention if he could be met at an office "rather than at his private residence."(7) At present London appears to be almost the only large town in which this is done.

[§ 754.]

Defects of application of clause 24 of Act of 1891.

Anomalies re provision for protection from fire in the Factory Acts.

Absence of provision for warmth in the requirements of the Factory Acts.

Absence of local offices in connection with the inspectorate.

QUESTION OF ADEQUACY OF PRESENT SYSTEM OF INSPECTION.

Importance of question of inspection in connection with the employment of women.

755. It would be difficult to over-estimate the importance attached to the question of inspection in connection with the employment of women. As women are, it appears, for the most part unorganised, and from the pressure of their circumstances and the keen competition for work are in a peculiarly defenceless position, their conditions of labour, and consequently their well-being and happiness, depend very largely upon the character of their employer and the officials he employs. "The question of wages" it has been remarked "is trivial compared with the question of regularity of employment and kind and just treatment."(8) Where the employer is considerate, just, and humane, the urgency of the question of inspection does not arise, but where he is thoughtless, ignorant, or indifferent, the importance of the point is seen. In such cases the woman falls back upon the protection of the law. Where this is for any reason insufficient, she has no resource left. That there are a considerable number of employers who are not alive to their responsibilities is only too evident by the number and extent of the various grievances that have been detailed in the course of this summary. These grievances are not, it is true, all covered by the Factory Acts, but the great majority of those connected with sanitation, ventilation, &c., are so covered, in theory

(1) p. 117. (2) p. 270 (3) p. 102. (4) Chief Factory Inspector's Annual Report for 1892, Henderson, p. 74; Cramp, p. 74; Hine, p. 6. (5) pp. 50 72, 75. (6) p. 13.

(1) pp. 13, 72, 77. (2) See *supra*, p. 486, and in particular footnote *. (3) pp. 175, 302; see also *supra*, p. 486. (4) p. 51. (5) p. 162. (6) See *supra*, pp. 514-5. (7) p. 307. (8) Miss Collet, Labour and Life of the People, Vol. II., Women's Work, p. 476.

[§ 755.] at least. But in the face of the foregoing evidence it can hardly be contended that the law in these respects is in any way thoroughly carried out. This would appear to be the only explanation of the disgraceful state of the sanitary matters in some districts, such as that described in the Lady Sub-Commissioners' reports on Lancashire, Yorkshire, and parts of Scotland. The inadequacy of the inspection of workshops in many places has also been shown in the evidence, while numerous instances have been given of the open infringement of the Factory Acts in various particulars. It has been incidentally shown in the course of this summary, especially in that part which dealt with health and sanitation, to what a large extent the miserable conditions under which women work in many places are remediable. It appeared, however, from the evidence that if it were possible for the Factory and Workshop Acts to be strictly enforced, in the spirit and in the letter, very many of the grievances which were brought forward would be removed. The efficiency and adequacy of inspection depends on two things, the Factory and Workshop Acts themselves and their administration. With regard to the Acts themselves, the question arises whether they cover all the points on which legislative protection is desirable or necessary. This is naturally a very controversial point. A few defects and anomalies noted in the evidence have already been mentioned, and the cases for and against the demanded extension of the scope of the Acts in certain specific cases have been summarised. But whatever the defects in the Acts themselves and whatever the required extensions may be, it is clear that the numerous complaints which were made by witnesses giving evidence before the Commission and to the Lady Sub-Commissioners refer mainly to the administration of the Acts.

Conditions of adequate inspection: How far realised under present system.

(*a.*) *Efficiency of inspection.*

756. (*a.*) The conditions of adequate administration of the Acts passed for the protection of labour would appear to be:—The efficiency of the inspectors, the sufficiency of their numbers, and the adequacy of their powers. Although various complaints on the first head were brought forward by some of the men giving evidence before the Commission on the ground that inspectors lacked "practical knowledge of factory work," and could therefore be "hoodwinked,"(1) the apparent inefficiency of inspection seemed in most cases attributable to the insufficiency of both the numbers and the powers of inspectors. It must also be remembered that several of H.M. Inspectors complained on their side that their work was greatly hampered by the want of co-operation they met with on the part of the operatives.(2)

(*b.*) *Sufficiency of number of inspectors.*

(*b.*) With regard to the insufficiency of the present staff of inspectors there is abundant evidence. It was stated before the Commission by Miss Mears, Mrs. Hicks, and Miss James respectively on behalf of Women's Upholsterers', East London Ropeworkers', and Confectioners' Unions, that "though the industry is under the Factory "and Workshop Acts, I have only seen two inspectors "during the whole number of years that I have been in "the business." "The inspection is most unsatisfactory. "I only know of one firm where the women have "seen an inspector within the last two years . . . "The women never have an opportunity of communi- "cating with the inspector at all." "I have never "seen an inspector inside a factory . . . there "are so few inspectors and so many factories that the "former cannot always come when they are sent for."(3) Again, a representative of the textile industry in Yorkshire said, "The fact of men working in the same "mill for 5, 10, 15, or 20 years without ever seeing an "inspector ought to speak for itself. I myself have "been in the mill 27 years and have only once seen "him. If the inspectors were ever so diligent and "attentive their number relatively to the number of "factories would make it impossible that there should "be thoroughly efficient inspection."(4) Witnesses from all districts in various industries gave similar evidence: "We have nothing to complain of with "regard to the present staff of inspectors, except the "insufficiency of their numbers." "Inspection is "inadequate, the inspector has far too much work to "do." "I have not seen the inspector inside the "works for at least five years . . . I am of opinion "that he is a very overworked man." The complaint was even more marked in the case of workshops, where in some ways the necessity for inspection appeared greater.(1) The demand was made that all places in which goods were manufactured for sale—even domestic workshops—should be under inspection. The evidence of some of H.M. Inspectors corroborated to some extent that of the workers. One of them explained that he had 3,100 factories and workshops in his district, and was of opinion that the amount of work demanded from H.M. Inspectors was "utterly absurd." Another had a district containing 1,947 factories and 1,870 workshops, and "the most he could possibly do" was to visit them each "once in three years." He thought it would be "very desirable" to have "such an exten- "sion of the staff as to enable factories to be visited "once in every 12 months universally throughout the "United Kingdom." "It was even more necessary" that the country districts and small workshops "should "be properly looked after . . . for in these cases "there is more overtime worked and public opinion is "weaker than in larger towns." With reference to the question of overtime, Mr. Bignold urged that "if over- "time is to be continued, a very large addition to the "working staff is required."(2) A demand was made "that additional inspectors be appointed from among "practical men and women." The desire for the appointment, wherever large numbers of women were employed, of women inspectors who would deal with such questions as overtime and sanitation appeared to be very widespread. . . It was constantly brought forward by both men and women who gave evidence before the Commission and to the Lady Sub-Commissioners. Miss James thought it "most necessary to "appoint female inspectors. The girls cannot talk to "men as they can to women." Mrs. Hicks was "strongly "of opinion that female factory inspectors should be "appointed." Two male representatives of the English and Scotch textile industries stated respectively, "There ought to be a large staff of women employed as "inspectors. Girls do not care to complain to male "inspectors, *e.g.*, about such matters as the sanitary "accommodation." "We think there should be female "inspectors appointed wherever women are employed, "*i.e.*, in all other industries as well as our own.(3)

[§ 756 (*b.*)] *Question of appointment of women inspectors*

(*c.*) *Sufficiency of powers of factory inspectors.*

(*c.*) Another reason which the evidence showed to be at the root of the existence and continuance of the dangerous and insanitary condition of labour complained of by so many women was the limited powers held by H.M. Inspectors. This was said to be especially the case in sanitary matters, which are often those which concern the workers most, and in which prompt action is of the greatest importance. But in consequence of the divided jurisdiction of the inspector and the local sanitary authorities and the present state of the law, by which certain sanitary matters are remediable only under the Public Health Act, the factory inspector is powerless to deal with certain abuses. If an inspector of factories finds that the sanitary defects complained of can only be remedied by "structural alteration," he has no power to order this to be carried out, and can only refer the matter to the local sanitary authorities, who may or may not take action.(4) It would appear from the evidence that this limitation of power on the part of the central authority would account for many instances in which work is carried on under very insanitary conditions. Again, one of H.M. Inspectors stated that "a great deal of misapprehension exists in "the public mind with regard to the power of in- "spectors to enforce the fencing of machinery. . . . "As the law stands at present they can compel the "fencing only of what is called the 'mill-gearing.'" Another remarked that "inspectors had no power to "order the use of shuttle-guards, which should be "made compulsory." It would seem that the inspector has less summary power than is popularly supposed, and that many complaints of inadequate inspection are founded on a misapprehension of points which come actually under the Factory Acts, and of the power actually possessed by inspectors with reference to summary enforcement of remedies. The procedure necessary under the present system in taking steps to rectify any abuse, as explained by one of H.M. Inspectors, appeared to be somewhat lengthy.(5) Various suggestions were made with a view to putting an end to the anomalies caused by the insufficient powers possessed at present by H.M. Inspectors. The general opinion appeared to be that direct power to enforce any provision of the Factory Acts was far better

(1) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., Mullins, Mawdsley, p. 68; Drew, p. 21. Vol. II., Holmes, Bannister, p. 104-5. (2) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., Beaumont, p. 37. (3) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 67. (4) Group C., Digest, Vol. II., p 103.

(1) Group C., Digest, Vol. II., pp. 162-3. (2) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., Bignold, p. 39; Prior, p. 68. (3) Reports, pp. 102, 177, 307, Group C., Digest, Vol. I., Marston, Miss James, Mrs. Hicks, Drew, Roy, pp. 68-9. (4) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., Beaumont, p. 99. (5) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., Henderson, p. 63, 35-6; Beaumont, p. 63; Prior, pp. 94-5.

[§ 756 (c.)] vested in the hands of the central than of the local authority. "I venture to think it desirable," writes the Lady Sub-Commissioner who investigated the condition of women's labour in Scotland, where the sanitation was in many places extremely defective, "that a higher "standard in ventilation and sanitation be required in "mills and factories, with power on the part of the "inspectors to enforce it within reasonable time."(1) Various representatives of the men's associations expressed similar views before the Commission. "The "inspector ought to be armed with power to enforce "his orders with regard to sanitary matters in every "department." "I should like to see the duties of the "factory inspector assimilated with those of the "medical officer of health . . . . unless these officials "work in harmony nothing is done. The factory "inspector has power to give orders, but he ought "also to have power to enforce them." "I am strongly "of opinion that the inspector should have the responsibility of the sanitary condition of workshops without reference to the sanitary authority, and I am of "opinion that the sanitary authority would much "prefer that he should have that responsibility."(2) "We want inspectors to have the power of ordering "unnecessarily dangerous machinery to be fenced."

(*d.*) *Summary.*

(*d.*) Finally, one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners recorded her opinion "that the condition of mill life in [§ 756 (*d.*)] "Yorkshire for women and children could be much "improved by a more thorough system of inspection "in factories. It is not possible for the present staff "of inspectors to devote time to a detailed inquiry, "nor is it possible that they should, without such "inquiry, become acquainted with the conditions of "women's labour. The difference of wages for men "and women where both are engaged in the same "employment appears to be a matter for trade organisation, but the due ventilation of the workrooms, the "safety of machinery, and the necessary sanitary "arrangements could be enforced by law, *i.e.*, if it "were possible for the inspection to be efficiently carried "out."(3) It would appear from the evidence offered with regard to the whole of this subject that if it were possible to slightly extend the scope of the Factory and Workshop Acts and to amend them in certain particulars, if these Acts could be more stringently administered, if the difficulties arising from divided jurisdiction with regard to sanitary matters could be overcome, if an adequate number of inspectors were appointed, and if more direct powers were given to them, a great number of the grievances of women workers with regard to health, safety, and decency would be redressed.

6. OTHER CONDITIONS OF LABOUR.

Decay of certain industries.

757. In addition to those industries which are affected by seasonal causes, some may be said to be almost normally "slack," with very little prospect of improvement in their condition. Straw-plaiting is one of the most remarkable instances of a decaying industry. The competition of China, Italy, and Switzerland, from which plait can be imported far more cheaply than it can be made in England, is the principal cause of this decay, but it is also stated that the English workers cannot easily learn to change the pattern of their plaits. In consequence of the slight demand for English plait and the low prices obtained for it, many women have taken to field work instead.(3) The decay of the cotton industry in Glasgow and other districts in the West of Scotland is much dwelt upon in the report of the Lady Sub-Commissioners. "Spinning," it was alleged, "is on the decrease in Scotland," and the same is true of weaving, so far as plain calico is concerned.(4) The competition of Lancashire is said to be one of the chief causes of this decay. In Lancashire a great proportion of the work is done by men, whereas the Scotch industry is confined to women, who rarely continue to work after their marriage. It is also stated that the machinery in use in Scotch factories has not all the modern appliances of the Lancashire machinery. This fact, combined with the greater physical strength of men workers, gives the English manufacturer a great advantage over the Scotch manufacturer. Of recent years, too, there has been a great scarcity of women's labour. The decay of the mining industry, and the consequent migration of the mining population, is assigned as the principal reason for this scarcity of labour in some parts; while in Glasgow it is traceable to the variety of employments open to women as compared with Lancashire, where cotton spinning and weaving is the "one business in life."(5) In most cases, however, it is due to insufficient railway service. Wages, in many parts, are "too low "to induce women workers to detach themselves from "their families and settle in the district, while there is "a lack of conveyance for workers who live at a "distance." At present women often walk from two to four miles to and from their work, and the supply of labour thus necessarily becomes uncertain and fluctuating.(6) The same difficulty arises with regard to the linen industry at Dunfermline. "Better railway "facilities for getting into this centre would be a great "boon to the workers. There is a steady demand for "female labour at a good remuneration, and, owing to "the absence of employment for men, Dunfermline "cannot meet the demand sufficiently. In consequence "large numbers of women come from the surrounding "district. Many of them walk from two to four "miles; while, owing to the insufficient supply of "workers' trains, numbers lose from an hour to an "hour and a half at the railway station."(7)

Home industries and the "sweated" trades.

758. It is customary to speak of the underpaid home industries as the "sweated trades." No precise definition of this term was given by the House of Lords' Committee on Sweating. It appears, however, that the word "sweated" usually applies to work done at a very low rate of pay for long hours and under unhealthy conditions: and this state of things exists very largely wherever the system of sub-contract prevails, though it is also found where sub-contract is absent.(2) Where the conditions of very low pay, long hours and insanitary surroundings are wanting, even if the element of sub-contract exists, the term "sweating" is not really applicable. Where, however, work is done for an employer without the intervention of any middleman, which is ill paid, and the surroundings of which are unhealthy, the term may be fitly used.(3) The evidence showed that it would be quite erroneous to assume that all home industries or all parts of them are "sweated." Instances are found of women working in decent homes or domestic workshops, for reasonable hours, for fair wages, and evidence was given before the Committee on Sweating of a button-holer, a machinist, and a baster, who worked for a sub-contracting tailor and earned 4*s.* a day each, working for the hours permitted by the Factory Acts.(4) These, however, are exceptional instances, and only show that skilled labour is far less likely to be "sweated" than unskilled. The definitions of the "sweating system" offered by Mr. Charles Booth were "the driving of labour "by whatever means, so as to obtain the maximum of "labour for the minimum of pay," and "the advantage "that may be taken of unskilled and unorganised "labour under the contract system."(5) It is, however, from unskilled and unorganised labour that the home industries are, it appears, for the most part recruited. And when all due allowance is made for the consideration mentioned above, the fact remains that the greater number of home workers are "sweated" in the sense of working unregulated hours under unhealthy conditions for very low pay, they are not protected by the Factory Acts, and they include the mass of "unskilled and unorganised labour" of which "advantage" is taken under the "contract system." This happens in two ways. In many cases the work goes through several hands, and the wages of the actual workers are forced down to the lowest point by the middlemen, who stand between the person who wants the work done and the person who does it. In reference to this point, it may be noted that Mr. Chas. Booth, giving evidence before the Commission, stated that "such sub-letting seldom "occurred, except with regard to special processes "which are frequently the better paid portions of the "work."(6) The evidence, however, obtained by the Lady Sub-Commissioners, especially with regard to hosiery and lace-making in Nottingham, and shirt-making in Manchester, of which details have been already quoted, show that the worst paid portions of

System of sub-contract.

(1) p. 177. (2) Group C., Vol. I., Marsden, Watson, Mullins, pp. 62-3; Vol. II., Inskip, pp. 100-1. (3) p. 29. (4) pp. 173, 194. (5) pp. 173, 174, 183. (6) p. 183. (7) p. 189.

(1) p. 102. (2) Report of Committee of House of Lords on Sweating System, 3249-50, Miss Beatrice Potter. (3) Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, 5409-16. (4) Report, Sweating System, 9205-12, 9263-70, 9280-93. (5) Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, 5407-8. Report on the Sweating System, 312. (6) Evidence given before the Commission Sitting as a Whole, 5415.

[§ 758.] *System of competition for contracts amongst employers.*

those trades are "sweated" by middlemen and middlewomen.(1) In other cases the same result is produced by the competition of employers for contracts, as explained by Miss Collet, "Where no trade union "exists the contract system puts an end to the com- "petition of employers for labour, which in economic "theory is always supposed to raise wages. The "consumer obtains the whole advantage. The em- "ployers compete to obtain the contract at the lowest "price; the inefficient manufacturers, of whom there "are a large number in the East End, rely on cutting "down wages, and it must be admitted, frequently add "considerably to their own labour, obtaining low "profits with increased efforts on their own part. "When a tender has been accepted and the rest have "been rejected, the competition of employers is really "ended, and the successful employer is left to make "his terms with labourers unhindered by competition. "The effect of the contract system is to make an "unconscious combination amongst employers to "obtain labour below a certain maximum rate."(2) Thus it appears that the abnormally low wages of which so many instances have been given are accounted for either by the competition of employers for contracts or by the system of the middlemen or middlewomen to whom the work is sub-let. It has been pointed out that this fact might be stated in another and perhaps a truer way. The existence of the middleman and of the class of employer just referred to is accounted for by the fact that there is an unlimited supply of cheap unskilled and unorganised labour. If education or organisation checked this supply of cheap labour the small employer and the middleman, under whom the sweating system flourishes, would perforce disappear.

The question of morality in certain employments. (a.) Bearing of low wages on morality.

759. (*a.*) The question of the morality of the workers in the different industries which were investigated by the Lady Sub-Commissioners was not always noted. In those cases in which it appeared to be unsatisfactory there was usually some special reason to account for it. Thus the connection of low wages and a low social morality was brought out clearly in the evidence in several places. "I find," says the Lady Sub-Commissioner who investigated the industrial condition of Scotland, "with regard to the low moral and social "standard met with in certain places that, as a general "rule, the morality and social habits of the people are "largely regulated by the wages they receive. This "rule is of course subject to modification by the "nature, training, and other circumstances of the "individual, but speaking generally, where wages are "good, social habits are in a correspondingly high "level; where wages are low, the reverse is to be "found." Thus it was stated at Dalry by a worker long resident in the district that there was much immorality amongst the girls. It was largely attributed to the low wages and the low social and moral standard this presumably involves. The immorality amongst some of the tobacco workers and rope teazers in Scotland was attributed to the same cause. At Ayr it was observed that while the morality and social habits of the girls still left much to be desired, the trifling advance of wages granted to the workers in the worsted spinning mill made a noticeable improvement in their habits and appearance.(3) There appeared to be much immorality amongst the lead workers near Glasgow. They were said to come from very poor homes in a country district and to be very irregular in their habits.(4) A representative of the Midland Counties Hosiery Federation stated that the result of the general reduction of wages was that the "single women suffer very much" and were, he believed, "often driven into immoral habits."(5)

(b.) Effect of lack of proper supervision.

(*b.*) It would appear that where men and women of a rough class are working together without any discipline or proper supervision, the state of morality is liable to be bad. This was found to be the case amongst the fustian and velvet cutters in a certain district. Thus "a loose tone in the behaviour and conversation" was noticed by the Lady Sub-Commissioner. "Unsuitable "songs were sung and very undesirable romping took "place even at the time of my visit. I was informed "by a police officer and the relieving officer for the "district that immorality had increased considerably "since the introduction of the fustian trade. These "witnesses believe this to be due to the freedom of "intercourse which exists between the men and women "working in these mills. They are allowed to bring "unlimited quantities of drink into the mills during "working hours, and the general tone is stated to be, "as I found it, very low. I was informed by the "Assistant Town Clerk that over 27 per cent. of the "affiliation orders granted have been applied for by "the women employed as fustian cutters, although "these form only a small proportion of the female "population."(1) In the nail and chain making district in the Black Country the same complaints were made. It was stated that young girls helped the men in most unsuitable parts of the work, and that the absence of supervision and discipline of the young people of both sexes who worked together was by no means conducive to morality. The Lady Sub-Commissioner who visited this district stated that everyone she consulted was "strongly against young girls being employed to blow "the bellows with men working beside them as it is "considered to encourage immoral behaviour."(2) On the other hand it was denied that the charge of immorality amongst the girls who work as the men's assistants in the Staffordshire potteries was justified. It was remarked by one witness that she "came across "a considerable number of cases of immoral conduct, "but had never heard of a case of immoral relations "between men and women working together in the "factory." Another witness stated that "the worst "girls she knew were those who came from a consider- "able distance. These girls when quite little, some of "them even when half-timers, got into the habit of "starting together with boys and men walking in the "same direction, and their behaviour and language "were disgraceful."(3) In connection with the general question as to the moral effect of men and women working together in the same employment, it is satisfactory to note that a witness who held "a position of trust" in one of the departments in the manufacture of sewing machines stated that "the introduction of the women had anyhow improved the men." "So far," writes one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners, "as I have "investigated employments where both sexes work "together in the same departments, evidence seems to "point to the conclusion that where women are in the "majority their influence may have the result claimed "by this witness."(4)

[§ 759 (b.)]

(c.) Effect of want of decent sanitary accommodation.

(*c.*) Conflicting evidence as to the state of morality amongst women in the textile industries was given. A representative of the Bradford and District Power Loom Overlookers' Society gave strong testimony before the Commission as to the morality of the women generally. "I have been working 27 or 28 years, and I "would stand up for the morality of the female portion "of mill life in opposition to that of any other grade "of society from the top to the bottom." This was supported by another witness from the same district.(5) The Lady Sub-Commissioner who made "the most careful inquiry into the subject" did not think that the state of morality in the textile industries of Yorkshire and Lancashire was very satisfactory. She attributes this mainly to the "insufficient sanitary accommodation, "the same closets being common in some mills to men, "women, and children." That this was the case in a greater number of mills in Lancashire than in Yorkshire was the only reason that could be found to account for "the larger number of cases of actual immorality and immoral tendencies" which were noticed in the former district. "The sanitary accommodation in mills," writes the medical officer of health for the Burnley district, "is the most debasing surrounding for women."(6) The immorality of children, who are usually employed in the spinning-rooms where the sanitary accommodation is most deficient was a matter of special complaint in Yorkshire. It was observed that if the same regulations with regard to sanitation and decency which have been thought necessary in well-ordered elementary schools were enforced in mills, a very valuable improvement would result in the moral condition of the children employed.(7)

(d.) Objectionable conduct of overlookers and foremen.

(*d.*) Many complaints were brought forward with regard to the objectionable conduct of overlookers and foremen, &c. Foul, coarse and rough language appeared to be not uncommonly used by some of these officials towards the women and children under them, an abuse against which they have no remedy. The following extracts are found in the "table of reference" to the Yorkshire and Lancashire reports. "Overlookers very coarse and rough with the children." "Overlooker swears at the children and hits them on the head with a strap." "Tackler

(1) pp. 78, 159. (2) Labour and Life of the People, Vol. I., "Women's Work," p. 455. (3) pp. 183, 184, 186, 285, 297. (4) p. 284. (5) Group C., Digest, Vol. II., Holmes, p. 100.

(1) p. 141. (2) Group A., Digest, Vol. II., Homer, Smith, Juggins, pp. 155–7; Minutes, Vol. II., Miss Orme, p. 574. (3) pp. 62, 63. (4) pp. 279–80. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol., II., Wilson, 11,553, 11,560; Pinder, 11,557–8. (6) pp. 101–2, 117. (7) p. 100.

[§ 759 (d.)] abusive and uses foul language." "Weavers' work "spoiled because the children are afraid to fetch the "tacklers."(1) "Children," said a male weaver, "deteriorate both morally and physically if sent to the "mills too young. They are obliged to listen to words "which it would be better for them not to hear." In his opinion children under 13 should be excluded from the mills altogether. On the other hand a Bradford employer denied that employment in mills had a bad effect on the moral character of the children, and two representatives of the Managers' and Overlookers' Society of Bradford denied either that the overlookers used bad language or that they permitted it in others.(2) In the textile industry in North Scotland where complaints were made as to the treatment of the children, the firms of Messrs. Baxter Bros., Cox, Grimmond, Smith & Co., Harry Walker & Co., were mentioned as employing children under especially favourable conditions.(3) It is obvious that the conditions under which children work in the textile industries, where they are very largely employed, vary considerably from mill to mill, but from the evidence as a whole it would seem that in most instances their general surroundings were undesirable for those of such tender years. The representatives of the women's Ropemakers' and Confectioners' Unions who gave evidence before the Commission spoke very strongly about the "disgraceful language" and petty tyranny of the foremen in some factories. "The foremen rule the factories. The "masters do not go into the factories sufficiently to "see how the girls are treated, and so it is really their "fault, for they do not know half what occurs through "the foremen and forewomen. . . . . The "language of the foremen towards the women and "girls is more than abusive, it is disgraceful in its "character, and it is so in almost all factories. We "hear not only in this trade, but in other trades that "we know of that we are closely connected with, "that the same thing occurs always."(4) Miss James on being asked whether the "gross impropriety" of the language complained of was not exceptional, replied "I am sorry to say it is general." Instances of petty tyranny were related. "The girls are entirely at the mercy of the foremen." "Supposing a girl loses five "minutes in the morning, or supposing she does not "get to her work till eight o'clock, the foreman can "give her a fortnight's drilling if he likes. That "means he can keep this girl out for a fortnight "without employing her. . . . . She will have "to go down to the factory each morning . . . . "to see if the foreman will take her on."(5) It was remarked that much of the good conduct of a mill depended upon the character of the overlookers. The tables appended to the reports on Yorkshire and Lancashire show that in certain mills where the overlookers or masters are men of bad character, the general tone is very low. It is in this connection that the evils connected with the so-called system of "favouritism" are found. In the textile industry in Yorkshire some few instances of immorality were traced directly to it and in the case of one mill where the moral tone was very low, it was said that "favouritism was very bad." Several witnesses in the tailoring trade at Glasgow complained that women workers were very much at the mercy of the "cutter" and "presser" as regards the amount and profitableness of the work given out to them in the various shops. One witness said she had been obliged to leave a shop where she was employed owing to the familiarities of the cutter. In consequence of her resenting this behaviour she was deprived of her fair share of the work given out. Cases of "favouritism" she said were common.(6) The obnoxious behaviour of officials has been the cause of more than one strike. A strike took place at a mill in Oldham against an overlooker who had been charged with immorality, but it was only after he had been found guilty in court that he was dismissed by the firm. Another strike occurred at Nelson in 1892. "It arose under similar circum- "stances to the last, but in this case the question of "guilt was decided by three clergymen who were "chosen as arbitrators, both sides agreeing to the "mode of settlement. The arbitrators after carefully "weighing the evidence found the overlooker guilty of "making immoral proposals to a married woman and "of using indecent language to other females." They included the following recommendations in their award. "It was with the deepest regret we learned during "the inquiry that the offences of which we have [§ 759 (d.)] "been compelled to adjudge Houghton Greenwood "guilty are not uncommon amongst men who have the "oversight of the female operatives in other mills, and "as ministers of religion we most earnestly appeal to "the employers of labour to practically recognise their "duty in this matter, and to seriously consider how "essential it is to the happiness and well-being of those "under their charge, as well as to their credit, to make "the moral conduct of their workpeople a subject of "nearer concern and greater importance." This award was printed and distributed at Nelson and it is believed to have created a marked improvement not only in the behaviour of overlookers but in the attitude of employers towards the question. Shortly afterwards a firm discharged an official for a similar offence.(1) It can be easily seen from the foregoing that a careless choice of the officials is the chief cause of these evils. Unless the employers are at pains to ensure that a good moral character is a necessary qualification for any official position such as that of overlooker, foreman, &c., the evidence showed that much unpleasantness and discomfort may be endured by the women and children who are under his control before resort is had to such a strong measure as a strike. Beyond the cultivation of a healthy moral tone and public spirit amongst the workpeople, so that any offences of this sort are instantly reported, it was asserted that the remedy for this kind of abuse lies solely in the power of managers and employers. In those cases where women overlookers or forewomen can be employed, difficulties of this nature were obviated, hence where this is possible it was stated to be the more desirable arrangement. Even where this is not possible, however, it was suggested that in all cases, where a certain number of women are employed, there should be a woman in a position of authority to whom all complaints concerning officials, health, sanitary arrangements, &c., could be brought in the first instance. The very natural dislike of women to approach men on these subjects was constantly brought forward by the witnesses. But were some carefully chosen women put into this responsible position, much of the danger and discomfort which is unavoidable under the present state of things would be removed, and some of the chief difficulties connected with the employment of women would also disappear. This system is already adopted in a few of the best regulated establishments. Thus, in the cocoa and chocolate works at Bristol, every department in which girls are employed is superintended by women. In the Bedminster cigar and tobacco factory, where large numbers of women are employed, the departments are superintended by men, but for the last few years a lady has held the post of matron, "the duties of which," it is said, "are "rather unique in factories. The names and addresses "of girls absent through illness are given her every "morning and they are visited by her. . . . Any com- "plaint that a girl may have to make can always be "laid before the matron and thus the more objection- "able features of supervision of women by men are "obviated."(2) A somewhat similar proposal was made by a married woman who had had large experience as an operative in textile factories. She suggested that in all mills where there were a number of employées it was most desirable that a woman attendant should be kept at the lodge. The witness stated that this would have been an immense advantage in the many cases of sickness occurring to workers which had come under her notice. She suggested that the provision of a woman attendant should be compulsory in all cases where a certain number of women were employed.(3) The position of barmaids is, of course, exceptional. It was stated before the Commission that there were "a number of typical cases" of girls who had been driven on to the streets by the conduct of their employers, and more commonly by the conduct of customers.(4) The Lady Sub-Commissioner who subsequently investigated the condition of barmaids does not refer to the subject. With regard to the subject of intemperance, it does not appear from the evidence given in her report that there are grounds for any general charge of this kind being brought against barmaids as a class. There is no doubt that the peculiar temptations of their position tell upon the character in some cases, but it was asserted that in good class houses unsteadiness would be fatal to a barmaid's prospects. The prevalence of intemperance amongst laundresses was alluded to by several witnesses.(5).

(1) pp. 108, 122. (2) Group C., Digest, I., p. 28. (3) p. 302. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8596; Mrs. Hicks, 8236-41. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8446, 8595-6, 8619-20, 8674. (6) pp. 101, 105, 126, 128.

(1) pp. 115-6. (2) pp. 34, 35. (3) p. 30. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Shortt, 8712. (5) pp. 197-233, 17-23.

[§ 759 (e.)] (e.) Summary.

(e.) It would appear that the morality of women in various employments depends much less on the employment itself than on the general conditions of labour. Where the wages are very low, where the ordinary decencies of life are not observed in the surroundings; where men and women of a rough class work together without any discipline or supervision, where in fact some of the conditions of morality are wanting, the standard of morality amongst the workers is liable to be very low. Where wages are better, and due care is taken of the conditions of labour, the general surroundings, and the character of the official employed, no special complaints are made on the subject.

Various efforts to improve the condition of women workers.

760. Much is being done in various quarters to better the position or brighten the lot of the great number of women and girls engaged in various industries. Outside voluntary agencies, trade unions, and certain employers all take some share in this work. It is with the efforts of the first of these that this section is mainly concerned.

(a.) By outside voluntary agencies.

(a.) For example, it was observed that "as far as "public effort is concerned, it may be safely said that "in Birmingham, if any scheme can be proved worth "carrying out, it will be undertaken." The Ladies' Association for Useful Work in that city organises various courses of practical lectures on the laws of health, management of infants, and nursing. Another most successful society is the Letter Guild. A lady correspondent is found for any factory girl who wishes to have a friend to give her advice and sympathy through the post. Over 3,000 girls have applied for correspondents, and about 2,000 ladies have been induced to promise to write letters regularly to the girls allotted to them. "Of the various acts of kind-"ness by individuals, none seemed to have afforded "more pleasure than the hospitality of a private "person, who invited over 40 members of the Kyrle "Society to stay for a week, in detachments of 12 at "time, at a cottage in Conway, under the supervision "of two lady members. The visit had been paid six "months before, but one girl, a press worker, told me "that she still thought of it nearly all the time she "was at work; and two girls said they were saving "money to pay their fares to the same place next year."(1) At Manchester a peculiar and noteworthy sanitary organisation, called the Ladies' Health Society, was noticed. It works "in co-operation with the local "sanitary authorities. The working-class localities "in the city are divided into districts, to each of "which a working woman is assigned as a health "visitor. Each visitor is under the supervision of a "member of the Ladies' Health Society, and is "expected to visit the houses in her district, to make "friends with the women as far as possible, give hints "as to sanitary matters, report defective sanitation or "infectious illness, give practical aid when necessary "to sick persons, and to report to her superintendent. "Thirteen districts are now under supervision, and the "value of the services rendered through the society "has received official recognition, half the wages of "the visitors being now paid by the sanitary authori-"ties." Much valuable information is said to be obtained through this medium.(2) Evidence of clubs and classes of various kinds was given. In most cases these were of a purely social, religious, or philanthropic character; their chief aim being to brighten the leisure hours of the girls, teach them useful pursuits, and elevate their taste. It was said they did "most excellent work." There appears to be a clear line of separation between such institutions and any associations of which the basis is trade organisation.(3)

Openings for further voluntary work suggested by the Lady Sub-Commissioners.

In connection with voluntary agencies of this kind some further openings for outside philanthropic and social work, which were noted by the Lady Sub-Commissioners, might be mentioned. For instance, the extreme unsuitability of the dresses worn by the workers in the nail and chain industry in the Cradley Heath district was animadverted upon. "Instead of a "short skirt with a leathern apron to guard them from "the edge of the forge, comfortable broad-soled shoes "without heels, and a loose cool jacket, they wear the "worn-out Sunday frock, ragged, burned, and heat-"stained, tight stays, high-heeled shoes, and a bit of "sacking pinned over the skirt completing the untidi-"ness. When they are hot they loosen the throat of "the dress, and this increases the unseemliness of "their general appearance. A class for teaching the "simple rules of health, and a supply of suitable "garments at cost price, are schemes well worthy the "attention of kind-hearted ladies who wish to better "the condition of women in the Black Country." The possibility of uniting these women in any wholesome interest outside the daily drudgery of their lives was also discussed. One step in this direction had lately been taken by the institution of a cookery class at Oldhill, which is attended by between 200 and 300 women. This, it was thought, besides giving them a higher standard of home comfort, might be the means of drawing them together, and thus lead towards the creation of some kind of public spirit, which might eventually develop into trade combination.(1) It was remarked that at Bristol, in spite of "the very long intervals of leisure" of many of the workers, no special provision for the intellectual improvement of young men and women seemed to be made in the town. The so-called free library appeared to be a "collection of unreadable and worthless books."(2) "What is needed for working women in general," writes Miss Collet in "Labour and Life of the People," "is a more practical education in Board Schools, "greater facilities for the exercise of thrift, and definite instruction in the advantages and best methods of "saving. . . . And lastly, but not least, trade union "is wanted."(3) Various recommendations towards bettering the conditions of barmaids and waitresses were also made. It is stated that "nearly all the "employers and a good many of the barmaids and "manageresses agreed that what is chiefly wanted is "a well managed registry, at which reliable informa-"tion could be obtained (a) by employers as to the "character of the girls applying as barmaids, and (b) "by barmaids as to the nature of the place which "they propose to take. At present the newspapers "are the only means of communication between "employers and barmaids, and much dissatisfaction "is expressed by all concerned." It was said that a good scheme for a registry would receive support from all classes connected with the trade. Some system for certificates of character such as that adopted in France and Germany was suggested by a hotel proprietor but the Lady Sub-Commissioner did not think it would be workable. It was suggested that economical and comfortable holiday homes where girls could go for rest or in intervals of employment, established in healthy places as well as in large towns would be very valuable to barmaids and waitresses, and if well managed would be supported by some of the large employers. One witness, "a remarkably intelligent married woman who was barmaid and manageress for many years before marriage," urged the great necessity for some such home in Glasgow or in some place equally accessible from various holiday resorts in Scotland. Two such institutions already exist in London, the "Morley Home" and "Hartley House"—the latter, it was stated, was not sufficiently well known and hence it was not enough used by those for whom it was intended.(4)

Women's "settlements" in the poorer districts of London.

Apart from the work of the innumerable agencies connected with religious bodies, various efforts are made by "settlements" of educated women to improve the condition of the woman worker. The "Women's University Settlement" at Southwark "for work in the poorer districts of London" deals mainly with women and children. It is unsectarian and its work is chiefly educational and social. "The "work of the Settlement, in connection with labour "problems," writes the Warden, "is indirect and "rather preventive than remedial. We feel strongly "that the character and education of the people are the "most important factors in the solution of the problem, "and it is with these that we think we should chiefly "concern ourselves." An attempt is being made to give a systematic training to those who propose to devote themselves to work among the poor by means of a system of weekly lectures and a course of reading on the one hand, and practical work under other workers on the other. The ordinary course is to extend over one year and is framed with a view of giving an outline of general principles and methods. As the aim throughout has been rather to supplement existing agencies than to start new ones, work is done in connection with the Charity Organisation Society, the Metropolitan Association for Befriending Young Servants, the Children's Country Holiday Fund, the Invalid Children's Aid Association, and Board Schools. Clubs for girls, children, and pupil teachers, which are both educational and recreative in character are carried on. A Women's Benefit Society and a scheme for district nursing have

[§ 769 (a.)]

(1) p. 54. (2) p. 75. (3) pp. 14, 238–9.

(1) Group A., Minutes, Vol. II., Miss Orme, p. 575. (2) p. 31. (3) Labour and Life of the People, Vol. II., p. 476. (4) pp. 205, 210–11.

[§ 760 (a.)] also been started. One most successful enterprise has been a loan exhibition of pictures, which was attended by thousands of people.(1) The "Ladies' Branch of the Oxford House" provides a centre in Bethnal Green for religious, social, and educational work amongst women and girls in the surrounding poor parishes. The work is done in co-operation with the parish organisations, and in so far as it is religious is on Church lines. District nursing and district visiting are carried on, and clubs and classes religious, social and educational are held. Arrangements have been made for Technical Education Classes for club-girls with a view to raising them from the ranks of the unskilled to that of skilled workers. An effort is also being made with the help of the Women's Trade Union Association to instruct the factory hands in the clubs in such parts of the Factory and Workshop, and Truck Acts as concern themselves. Work is also done in connection with the Charity Organisation Society and with the Metropolitan Association for befriending young servants.(2)

(b.) By trade organisation.

(*b.*) What has been done by women workers themselves to improve their industrial, and hence their social condition through trade organisation is shown in the section that deals with that subject. It will be seen that although the movement is in its early stages, and although immense difficulties have been encountered, a very creditable record has been already made. Wages have been maintained or raised, hours reduced, sanitation improved, obnoxious officials removed, and flagrant abuses of various kinds have been remedied. It is to this method of self-help that the promoters of the movement chiefly look for the gradual but permanent improvement in the condition of labour of women workers. [§ 760 (b.)]

(c.) By employers.

(*c.*) Much again has been done in some instances for the woman worker by the employer. It has already been shown incidentally under various headings that certain employers have spared neither expense nor trouble in providing everything necessary for the health and comfort of their women workers—whether appliances for good methods of ventilation and sanitation, the provision of cloak-rooms, dining-rooms and cheap food, libraries and other provision for recreation, or sick benefit clubs and convalescent homes. Detailed accounts of such model factories and establishments can be found in the pages of the different reports of the Lady Sub-Commissioners.(1) Where these ideal conditions are found, the relations between employers and employed are naturally of a most harmonious character and the need of trade organisation is not felt in the same manner. But the cases of employers who are thus alive to their responsibilities with regard to the women workers appear to be comparatively few and far between, and the lot of numbers of working women who are not reached by any voluntary philanthropic agency, who are as yet untouched by organisation, and who are at the mercy of indifferent if not unscrupulous employers —of whom the evidence gives only too many examples—is pitiable indeed. In such cases the Report points out that remedies are to be found mainly in a rigorous enforcement of the extreme powers of the law through an improved administration, and possible extension, of the Factory Acts, the development of trade organisation, and the awakening and pressure of public opinion.

B. ORGANISATIONS.

THE GENERAL QUESTION OF ORGANISATION.

Necessity for women's trade associations.

761. It has been stated that trade association is necessary as a remedy for the many serious evils attendant on the present conditions of the employment of women.(3) So long as the women are unorganised they are practically at the mercy of their employers, and in cases where the latter are unscrupulous they have no means of resistance.(4) Even when the employers are willing to do all in their power for the welfare of their workers, the interests of both capital and labour are, it is said, advanced by trade associations. For example, "the chief "source of difficulties between employers and workers "in the textile industry in Glasgow is apparently the "want of a declared and uniform rate of wages for the "same work throughout the trade. Those employers "who desire to give a just wage have stated that they "find themselves handicapped by the action of the "others. On the other hand, the workers, having had "in the past no organisation strong enough to combat "this evil, and no centre to appeal to for support, or "even for accurate information as to current rates, have "in most cases been obliged to submit, while employers "who wished to pay their workers justly found them-"selves obliged to reduce wages in order to compete "successfully in the same market with others." (5) Now that women compete with men in the majority of the manufacturing trades, it appears necessary for the good of both sexes that women, like men, should be organised. Thus, in Scotland, it was noted that in the spinning industry women's labour was both "cheap and unorganised," while in England, where women as well as men are highly organised, it is comparatively well paid.(6). "It is palpably an injustice that women "should be compelled to accept lower wages than are "obtained by men for the same amount and quality of "work; . . . but there is no help for it while women "find that they have to contest for work with an orga-"ganised and federated body of men, who have already "filled even those trades which are naturally and "specially suited for women's labour."(7) Further, "the damage done to the interests of working men by "the undue cheapness of women's work is evident. "Work of all sorts tends more and more to pass into "the hands of women, not because they do it better, "but because they do it more cheaply. The more men "are thrown out of work, the more essential it "becomes for women to support themselves and their "families. . . . The raising of women's wages to a "level with the wages of men is the change which at "this moment is most urgent, in the interests of men; "and, since the only agency which has hitherto pro-"duced any serious effect in raising the wages of "men has been combination among themselves, it "seems a fair presumption that an equal degree of "combination among women would produce like "results upon their wages."(2) The evidence showed, however, that working men have now learnt the advantage to themselves of women's associations, and are in many cases doing all in their power towards organising the women in their own trade. Most of the women's societies owe much to the aid granted them by the men's unions during the first few years after their establishment. In addition to the societies which consist of women alone, there are a large number, especially in the textile trades, which consist of both men and women. The most important of these mixed associations in the textile trades are the Northern Counties Amalgamated Association of Weavers, the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association, the Alva Society of Associated Weavers, the Amalgamated Association of Card and Blowing Room Operatives, the Amalgamated Association of Operative Cotton Spinners,* the Scottish Mill and Factory Workers' Federal Union, together with the various societies affiliated to the above, and the Leicester and Leicestershire Hosiery Union. Women are also members of a number of societies in other trades. Such are the London Domestic Servants' Union, the National Union of Shop Assistants, the Midland Counties Trades Federation, the National Union of Paper Mill Workers, and the National Union of Gas Workers and General Labourers. But in these, although women are in several cases in the majority in point of numbers, they are rarely on terms of equality with the men. Generally speaking, they pay a lower rate of contributions, and receive a correspondingly lower rate of benefit. In most cases, also, they take only a subordinate part, if any, in the government of the society. Thus it has appeared best to treat here only those which either consist exclusively of women, or are mainly governed by them. The question has

(1) Sixth Annual Report of the Women's University Settlement. (2) Report of the Ladies' Branch of the Oxford House, 1893. (3) p. 314, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8515. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8548, 8514-5. (5) p. 174, Cf. p. 278. (6) p. 194, Cf. pp. 178, 186. (7) "Women's Union Journal," 1889, p. 44.

* It was stated before the Commission that this Association consisted exclusively of men (Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 708), but from the Answers to the Schedules of Questions (p. 99), it appears that the Oldham branch includes 7,000 women.

(1) pp. 34, 35, 69, 101, 160, 186, 187, 191, 192, 207, 209, 290, 291, 309, 310, 331, 332, 348, 351. (2) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1888, pp. 4, 5.

[§ 761.] arisen as to whether it is advisable to combine men and women in one union, or to establish separate societies for the two sexes, affiliated to one another, but distinct in constitution and management. Up to the present time, it is evident that mixed societies of men and women have far more stability than those which are for women alone.(1) But the independent organisation of women has not yet reached a stage at which it can be definitely determined whether the reasons for the weakness of women's unions are of a character which cannot be overcome, or whether they are not really of a merely temporary nature.

Difficulty of organising women.

762. In addition to the obstacles which all trade associations have had to overcome in the first stages of their development, many difficulties are presented by the peculiar conditions under which women work. It will be convenient for the present purpose to class them under three main heads:—Economic difficulties, which are due to the conditions of employment in trades where women are largely engaged; difficulties arising from hostility or indifference on the part of employers, other individuals and associations; certain difficulties caused by the educational deficiencies of working women, and the intellectual and moral effects which result therefrom.

(a.) Economic difficulties.

(*a.*) One obstacle is the low rate of wages which has been shown to be paid in most industries where women are employed. This makes it impossible in many cases for them to spare anything from their "starvation wage" as contribution to a society, much less to support themselves even for a short time during a strike.(2) "With workwomen, as with workmen, the less hardly "worked, and the less hardly paid, must lead the way "in trade organisation."(3) The enormous amount of competition which prevails in many industries, especially in those where a high standard of skill is not requisite, is another difficulty. The knowledge that in the event of their combining to obtain improved conditions of labour, their place can easily be filled by another, keeps many women aloof from organisation.(4) In the upholstery trade it is stated that, "there is some "objection on the part of many of the women to belong "to societies, because they have got an idea that they "will be dragged into strikes, and they have a great "objection to anything of the kind."(5) This is especially the case, however, in the less skilled trades, and those where home workers are employed. "Unskilled labour," writes Lady Jeune, "will always be the great difficulty "to be met by any combination to raise the wages of "women workers, and the sick children, the unemployed "husband, the cold and fireless homes, will always be "the greatest bar to any effort to persuade women to "stand together for better remuneration.(6)" For example, in an umbrella-covering firm in Scotland, the employer "has in several instances met the demands of "his employées for an increase of wages by the state-"ment that he is quite independent of his inside "workers, and if they do not accept his terms he can "get it done by the outside hands at his own price."(7) It is further stated that homework makes trade association among the workers impossible. "Under "this system of employment there exist no centres in "which a public opinion with regard to wages can be "formed, and in which organisation may originate and "spread."(8) But it is not only the home workers that are debarred from organisation by their isolated position. The same is the case in an almost equal degree with domestic servants, shop assistants, barmaids, waitresses and many other classes of women workers. "The custom of meeting together, in the "evening, at public houses, and the accommodation "offered by these places, have given working men "certain facilities in forming their societies."(9) But working women have very few opportunities of meeting in this manner. "The isolation of many working "women's lives is something which few people of "another class realise."(10) One of the Lady Sub-Commissioners states that the organisation of barmaids and waitresses is very difficult, owing to their isolated position, and a witness before the Commission went further, and declared that it was "absolutely impossible "to organise them as they are at present."(11) The custom of residence on their employers' premises greatly [§ 762 (*a.*)] increases the isolation of domestic servants, barmaids, and shop assistants. The long hours worked in many cases also hinder the development of trade associations, as the women have but little time to spare for attending meetings and otherwise entering into the work of their union.(1) Thus it is said with regard to shop assistants, that "the long hours of employment, and residence on "the premises of their employers, make association for "trade purposes difficult even when desired."(2) In the case of the Leeds Tailoresses' Society, established in 1884, it was stated that "a certain amount of outside "help seems to be required by the tailoresses, as their "hours of work are at present too long for them to "devote much time to the business of the Society."(3) The same difficulty is brought forward in many other cases. "A working woman of the East End has to get "up in the morning to go to work, and she works till "she goes to bed at night; she has no time to think "at all."(4)

(b.) Opposition and lack of sympathy.

(*b.*) Although in some instances employers have encouraged their workers to organise themselves, in most cases their actual hostility is complained of as a great hindrance in the formation of trade associations. Many workers state that they have been dismissed from their employment merely because they had joined a union.(5) Women, generally speaking, are also "more "easily dealt with" by their employers than men are. They are "far more fearful of dismissal from a tolerably "good situation."(6) At a meeting held at Walsall in 1888 to establish a women's union, although every hand went up in favour of the resolution, "two young women "only had the courage to give in their names."(7) Similar evidence was given with regard to the Rope-makers' Union. "I know of one firm in the East End, "where the employer told his women distinctly that if "they joined the Union he would sack every one of "them, if he had to shut up his shop." The East London Confectioners' Union "broke up" six months after its establishment, "because the girls were afraid "to belong to the Union, the masters were dismissing "them."(8) At Sheffield between 300 and 400 women joined the Gas Workers' and General Labourers' Union in 1890, but were forced to withdraw from it in consequence of the hostility of their employer.(9) The decrease from 500 to 100 in the membership of the Manchester Shirt Makers' Union was attributed by the secretary "in great part to the difficulty of collecting "money. The collectors were often afraid to do it in "the factories, owing to the discouragement of the "managers."(10) In her evidence before the Commission, Miss James, the secretary of the East London Confectioners' Union, said, "I went to one factory—I was "distributing bills, and asking the girls to come to "a meeting—and the master came out to me and said, "'My girls are treated properly, but if I catch any of "'them coming to your meetings I will dismiss the lot "'of them.'"(11) Apathy is stated by one of the Lady Sub-Commissioners to be the chief cause of the small success of women's associations in Bristol. "Resigna-"tion to things as they are seems to be equally "characteristic of employers and employed, and the "causes of complaint in Bristol are not so much things "done as things left undone."(12) In some few cases the attitude of the men's trade unions towards the women workers is decidedly hostile. Some societies, for example, the United Society of Brushmakers and the Scottish National Operative Tailors' Association, have rules which forbid their members to teach, help or work with women.(13) It is true that this opposition on the part of the men's associations has greatly diminished of recent years. Thus with regard to the Scottish National Operative Tailors' Society, it is stated that the rule forbidding members to help women has never been strictly observed, and the members of the Tailors' Union now take an active part in the work of organising the women.(14) It will be seen below that the majority of the women's associations have been formed with the assistance of the men in the same or even in different trades. At the International Workers' Congress, held at Paris in 1889, it was unanimously decided that "The Workmen's Party in all countries should "pledge itself to promote the formation of trade "organisations among the workers of both sexes."(15)

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8660-1; Miss March Phillipps in the "Fortnightly Review," July, 1893, p. 94. (2) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8261, 8283. (3) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1883, p. 6. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8582, 8624, 8646. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss Mears, 8050. (6) "English Illustrated," January, 1890. (7) p. 278. Cf. "Women's Union Journal," 1890, p. 6. Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1888, p. 4. (8) "Women's Union Journal," 1888, p. 78. Cf. Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1890, p. 10. (9) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1875, p. 7. (10) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1888, p. 6. (11) p. 210., Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8735, 8737.

(1) *See* above, p. 505. (2) p. 3. (3) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1885, p. 8. "Women's Union Journal," 1889, p. 54. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8253. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8484-6, 8580. (6) pp. 4, 235, Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8181, 8283-6. (7) "Women's Union Journal," 1882, p. 2. (8) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8227, 8493. (9) Group C., Minutes, Vol. III., 23,447. (10) p. 78. (11) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8486, Cf. Mrs. Hicks, 8181. (12) p. 38. (13) Introduction to Tabulated Rules, p. xx. (14) p. 269. (15) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1890, p. 7.

[§ 762 (b.)] Still, in spite of this change of attitude, it is stated that in some cases women are afraid of the help offered by the men's unions, and fear that their advice may not be altogether disinterested.(1) Another difficulty arises from the fact that "the larger associations of "workers who manage homes and clubs for working "girls on a religious basis, and do most excellent work, "succeed in influencing a larger number of these girls "than any other organisation in London, and in the "majority of cases their attitude is hostile to trade "unionism, or any movement which seems to them to "stir up antagonism between the girls and their "employers. They aim at teaching the girls to "conscientiously perform their duties to those in "authority over them, and look with disfavour on "agitation which seems to them to have only material "and intellectual progress as an end."(2) It is also stated that women's unions sometimes suffer from the want of interest shown in the matter by the home circle.(3)

(c.) Other difficulties.

(c.) In addition to the difficulties enumerated above which may be termed "external" difficulties, many are largely due to the present imperfect education possessed by the majority of the women and are therefore merely temporary.(4) Difficulties of this kind are not peculiar to the attempt to organise women, but are found equally in all endeavours to organise unskilled labour. Considering the early stage in which women's unions are still, it is not surprising that they have not yet been completely overcome. Hence we find that the failure of the Laundresses' Union was ascribed mainly to "impatience and lack of "education" among the members.(5) On the other hand, statements have been made which point to the conclusion that the requisite moral qualities are not wanting. Thus it is stated that "of all the unions "originated and conducted by women, I can say "truthfully that I have never known a case of wilful "betrayal of trust; I have never known a case of real "dishonesty. What I have known is disastrous "betrayal of common interests from sheer ignorance. "This is the seamy side of trade unionism for women. "This is the great stumbling block in the way of our "work."(6) Attempts are, however, being made to remedy this defect. One of the objects of the Trades Union League is to develop business habits and knowledge through the work of the societies, and a great improvement in this direction has already been made. When a society has once been fairly started, women have almost always been found who were capable of carrying on the management. From the fact that the Bookbinders' and Shirtmakers' Societies, two of the oldest and most successful of women's organisations, are now managed entirely by women, it is clear that business habits are to be found among working women and that they only need careful development.(7) The sensitiveness of some classes of women to social distinctions, is a weakness which time and education will also cure. One of the attractions of certain trades is the social position they are supposed to confer. Women employed in the various departments do not in all cases willingly associate with one another. Thus, milliners are stated to regard themselves "as belonging to a "higher social grade" than dressmakers. There seems to be another social division between skirt and bodice hands, although "not so clearly marked as that between "milliners and dressmakers, and between resident and "non-resident employees. These social differences all "stand in the way of trade association. It is not the "custom to discuss wages and salaries together, and "shop assistants are especially reluctant to mention "their salaries in the presence of others."(8) In the same way, the organisation of shop assistants and barmaids is hindered by the fact that the women choose their occupation as likely to afford them a higher social standing, or more variety, than many others which are better paid. (9) Barmaids, it is stated, "are about the "worst material for organisation to be found "anywhere. . . . . They do not invariably choose "their work because it is profitable, but generally "because it is pleasant, and in accordance with their "tastes."(10) Another inherent difficulty that is often brought forward is that in very many cases women expect to marry after a few years, and do not trouble so much about obtaining better conditions of labour as they would if they thought of spending their lives in the same occupation. The failure of attempts to improve the organisation of women workers in Aberdeen is said to be due to this fact.(1) It is stated that "the "majority of shop assistants look upon marriage as "their one hope of release, and would, as one girl "expressed it, 'marry anybody to get out of the drapery "business.'"(2) They forget, said the general secretary of the Scottish Shopkeepers' and Assistants' Union, that "if they are the means of reducing wages, they "affect their own prospects of future improvement, "whether they are married or not."(3) Again, the failure of women's unions is sometimes due to inability on the part of the members to grasp the real object for which they are formed. In several cases, members of trade associations have fallen away as soon as they have gained any advantage from their society. For example, the Female Brushmakers' Union in Glasgow succeeded in inducing an employer to "take back half the "proposed reduction. As a consequence of this action "on the part of the Union, all the employées in this shop "joined the society, but after continuing in it for a few "weeks they lapsed into their former unorganised "condition. A month or two after the girls had fallen "away from the union the firm imposed the full "reduction."(4) With regard to the Liverpool Tailoresses' and Coatmakers' Union, it is stated that "as soon as the "reduction of hours had been granted, the number in "the union began to diminish. The stewards cannot "get the women to pay up."(5) Most of the difficulties that have been detailed can be summarised under one broad head—want of public spirit, the causes of which are not far to seek. The naturally dependent position of many women and the pressure of their circumstances render them in many cases peculiarly susceptible to external influences both economic and social. The slow process of experience and education alone can overcome these difficulties. This, however, is only one side of the picture. The succeeding sections will show that in some cases working women have been found capable both of forming and managing associations, and in other cases if they have been helped to form them in the first instance, they have shown the utmost courage, self-denial and perseverance—in a word public spirit—in carrying them on.

[§ 762 (c.)]

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8083. Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1879, p. 7. (2) p. 14. (3) "Trade Unionist," June 13th, 1891. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8387. "Women's Union Journal," 1889, p. 54; 1890, p. 51. (5) p. 23. (6) Lady Dilke in the "New Review," May, 1890. (7) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1886, p. 2. (8) pp. 10, 13, and 14. (9) p. 313. (10) "Women's Union Journal," 1890, p. 67.

ACCOUNT OF INDIVIDUAL ORGANISATIONS.*

History and extent.

763. In some of the textile trades women have for many years been members of the men's unions, but the first step in the direction of organising them independently was taken in 1874, when a conference was held in London to discuss the feasibility of forming a national union of working women. It was decided that it would not be advisable in the first instance to endeavour to form a national union managed by a central body, but that it would be preferable to promote the formation of separate societies in the various trades, keeping in view the ultimate federation of the different societies. As the outcome of this conference, a committee was formed, which was first known as the "Women's Protective and Provident Committee," and later as the "Women's Protective and Provident League." In 1888 the name was again changed to "Women's Trades Union Provident League," and since December 1890 it has been finally known as the "Women's Trades Union League." The objects of this League are purely propagandist; it seeks to spread a knowledge of the principles of trade unionism among women, and to organise societies in various trades, whilst leaving them as far as possible to conduct their own management. It is, in short, a society for the establishment of trade unions, but not in itself a trade union. In 1890 a scheme was put forward to provide for the affiliation of existing provincial societies to the League. The proposed conditions of affiliation then adopted were that the society must be registered under the Trade Union or Friendly Societies Acts, must admit women as members, and pay a small annual subscription in proportion to its membership. On these conditions the League guaranteed that a delegate should visit annually each affiliated society, and undertook to send a representative to assist in the settlement of trade disputes in which women were concerned. At the present time the League has affiliated to itself a number of societies, many of which admit both men and women to membership. The total number of women in these societies is 45,000, and

* As already stated, this section deals only with those Unions which either consist exclusively of women or are mainly governed by them.

(1) Letter from W. Johnston, 25th Oct., 1893. (2) p. 89. (3) p. 314. (4) p. 275. (5) p. 70, Cf. Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., 8037.

[§ 763.] includes members in all parts of the United Kingdom.*(1) Shortly after the conference which was held in London, and at which the League was instituted, a similar meeting was held in Bristol, at which the scheme of a National Union of Working Women was adopted, and an executive committee elected. Attempts were made later to form branches of such a union in South Wales, and in Staffordshire, but in spite of all efforts on the part of its promoters, the attempts proved a failure, chiefly because working women could not be found who were able to carry on the management of these societies. The only survivor of the movement is the Bristol Association of Working Women, which was at its formation intended to be a branch of the National Union. The first three secretaries of the Bristol Association were members of the men's trade unions, which strongly supported the movement. A considerable number of women joined the association, and for several years there appeared to be every hope of success. But, for various reasons, the membership has been greatly reduced in recent years, and although in 1890 there was a temporary revival, when the rules were remodelled, at the present time the association is far from being in a flourishing condition. In 1891 the balance in hand was only 32*l.* This comparative failure is attributed by the secretary partly to the fact that many of the members prefer to belong to clubs and other societies for sick and funeral benefits only, while others have been unable to continue the payment of subscriptions. But the chief cause is stated to be apathy on the part of the women themselves, and the fact that so far "there has never come forward a really able "working woman to be the leader of the rest." Still, in the words of the secretary, the Bristol Association "may boast that the work of organising working women "was attempted and carried on by it, with varying "success, in the days when the movement was in its "infancy and difficulties and prejudices against it were "many."(2) Two months after the London conference, the League, with the assistance of two of the men's unions, established the Society of Women employed in Book-binding. The secretary states that this society has "gone on steadily." Nearly 1,000 members have been enrolled, but "we can only reckon on 257 paying "members; women often leave the trade, and then "give up the society." The amount paid for sick and out-of-work benefits during the past year was nearly 60*l.*, and the balance in hand is over 300*l.*(3) In December 1874 the stitchers and seamers in the hosiery trade in Leicester and the surrounding district were organised, and a few months later, during a strike against a reduction of wages, a union of weavers was formed at Dewsbury. These last associations were established independently of the League, which until July 1875 confined its work to London. The Dressmakers', Milliners' and Mantlemakers' Society, the Hat Trimmers' Society, the Society of Women employed in the Upholstery Trade, and the Shirt, Collar and Underlinen Makers' Society were instituted by the League in 1875. For three years the Dressmakers', Milliners' and Mantlemakers' Society had little success. The confidence of the women employed in the trade had been shaken by the collapse of a benefit union which had been formed some time previously, and which had been ruined by the dishonesty of the man who acted as secretary. In 1878 the Society was dissolved, but it was immediately reconstituted and had soon enrolled 33 members. In 1892 the membership was reduced to 20.(4) Aid was "readily and cordially granted" to the Upholsteresses' Society by the men's union in the same trade, and it soon numbered about 140 members, but many fell away for various reasons, and in 1891 the membership was stated to be reduced to 41.(5) The secretary of the Shirt, Collar and Underlinen Makers' Society states that, although the membership is very small, "what there are are good paying members."(6) About 10*l.* were paid for sick, funeral and out-of-work benefits in 1892, and the funds at the close of the year amounted to 49*l.*(7) Early in 1876 the Sewing Machinists' Society was established in London, and shortly afterwards an organisation was formed among the Manchester workers in the same trade. The London Tailoresses' Trade Union was next instituted in May 1877, and within a year had enrolled "upwards of 70 members." Two years later a branch was started in Westminster and Pimlico, in the hope of obtaining a redress of abuses in the Royal Army Clothing Factory. Within two months this branch numbered 170 members, but in 1891 the membership had fallen to 84 and the funds only amounted to 26*l.*(1) The East London Tailoresses' Trade Union and the Journeywomen Cigar Makers' and Worsted Spinners' Unions at Leicester also date from the year 1879; the formation of the Leicester societies was mainly due to the members of the Trades Council and of the men's Cigar-makers' Society. In 1881 the Protective and Provident Society of Women working in Trades in Oxford was formed, and was at once joined by "about 60 members." At the close of 1892 the number of paying members was 80, about 38*l.* were paid in sick and out-of-work benefits during that year, and the balance in hand was 142*l.* The Society includes embroideresses, dressmakers, shirt-makers, tailoresses and makers of underclothing.(2) In 1882 the Liverpool Tailoresses' and Needlewomen's Society was formed, and in the next year the Portsmouth Stay Workers' Society and the Oxford Working Women's Benefit Society. The latter was intended to include domestic servants, and, if practicable, to extend beyond the district of Oxford. An attempt was also made to organise women nail-makers, but the attempt apparently resulted in failure. In 1884 tailoresses' societies were formed at Glasgow and Leeds, with the assistance of the men's unions, but both were shortly afterwards dissolved. The failure of these associations was attributed chiefly to the fact that "the members "of the societies did not take an active part in the "management, but trusted almost entirely to the help "of the men connected with the branches of the tailors' "societies." The Aberdeen Workwomen's Society was established in the same year with the assistance of the Trades Council, which gave "precisely the kind "of help that is most valuable; not endeavouring to "manage the women's society, but always being ready "with words of advice and encouragement." This Society at a later date admitted men to membership, and was called the Workmen and Workwomen's Society. It has now been merged into a branch of the Forfar Federal Union, and numbers 130 members. It is stated that the work of the Society "for some years "back has been more that of a sick society than one "for purely trade purposes."(3) In 1885 the Dundee Mill and Factory Operatives' Union was organised, after a strike against a reduction of wages. Its formation was mainly due to the Rev. Henry Williamson, who continues to act as president. The Union includes workers in Montrose, Arbroath, Blairgowrie, Perth and Barrow-in-Furness, as well as in the immediate neighbourhood of Dundee. In 1891 the total membership was 5,945, only about 12 per cent. of whom were men.(4) Soon after the institution of the Dundee Union a similar society was started at Forfar, but in this the proportion of men is far greater than in the Dundee Union, and it appears to belong to the class of mixed associations rather than to that of women's societies. The Dundee Union, on the other hand, reported in 1888 that it was "mainly supported "by women, and could be managed by them if they "cared to make the effort. Meanwhile, we are getting "more and more women to act on the committee." In 1886 the Amalgamated Felt Hat Trimmers' and Wool Formers' Association was established at Denton. Two years later the Scientific Dress Cutters' Benefit Society was instituted, and within three months 68 members had been enrolled. The Society of Chelsea Seamstresses, and the Women's Protective and Provident League at Glasgow also date from this year. The Glasgow League was instituted by members of the Trades Council, with the help of private persons, and it is stated that it now numbers about 1,000 members* engaged in various trades, including weavers, tailoresses, umbrella makers, dressmakers, polishers, confectioners and biscuit packers. At the end of 1892

* A society, known as the Trades Union Association, which has similar objects to those of the League, has been established in London, where its work is mainly carried on in the East End. It appears to be entirely conducted by working women, but no details respecting it have been obtained. Support is granted from the funds to any woman discharged solely for joining a union, but no part of the funds is devoted to strike purposes. Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8309–14. The "Times," 13th December, 1893.

(1) "Women's Trades Union Review," October 1893, p.15. (2) Letters from Miss Talbot (28th October 1893; 24th November 1893). (3) Letter from Miss Whyte (23rd October 1893). (4) Information furnished by the honorary secretary. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss Mears, 8096. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 853. (6) Letter from Mrs. Houlton (23rd October 1893). (7) Report of Shirt Makers' Society, 1892.

* It must be noted that in 1891 the membership was only 450. Group C., Answers, &c., p. 857. Thus there appears to be some discrepancy in the two accounts, otherwise the membership must have doubled within two years.

(1) Fifth Report on Trade Unions, pp. 14, 17. (2) Letter from Miss Farrant (15th November 1893). Protective and Provident Society of Oxford, Report, 1892. (3) Letter from W. Johnston (25th October 1893), (4) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 32.

[§ 763.] the funds amounted to about 200*l.*(1) As a result of a severe strike at Messrs. Bryant and May's factory, the Union of Women Matchmakers was formed in July 1888, with the assistance of the League. More than 500 matchmakers at once gave in their names. A few months later, "with a view of improving the "position of the women, and preventing their labour "being used as a means of lowering the men's "remuneration," the Cigarmakers' Mutual Association, with the help of the League, organised the women workers in London. In 1890 the women's union was "over 560 strong, and increasing rapidly."(2) During 1888 unsuccessful attempts were made to form a tailoresses' union at Leicester, and to organise the women engaged in the saddlery trade in Walsall.(3) Several societies date from the year 1889. In January the Liverpool Tailoresses' and Trousermakers' Association was formed, and "on the first pay night 30 or 40 "paid the entrance fee." "The numbers rose to 150 "during the year, and to 200 later on," but in 1892 the membership had fallen to 20 or 30.(4) The Leeds Tailoresses' Trade Union was started as the outcome of a strike in Messrs. Arthur's factory. About 2,000 girls were almost immediately enrolled, and the secretary states that at the present time "the society is working "very favourably."(5) The Shirt and Jacket Makers' Society at Manchester also "commenced in 1889, and "has struggled on through many difficulties up to "nine months ago." The name was then changed to the Manchester and Salford Federation of Women Workers, "representing eight different trades. Its "members number about 300 at the present time, though "at one time the shirtmakers alone numbered about 500, "afterwards falling away to a little over 100."(6) The last annual report of the Society shows a balance in hand of nearly 90*l.* The Amalgamated Society of Laundresses and General Working Women was* instituted in the same year. In 1891, at the time of the agitation for the extension of the Factory Acts to laundries, a large number of laundresses were enrolled and nine branches formed. Shortly afterwards, however, the majority of the members fell away, and the society was dissolved in July 1893.(7) The East London Ropemakers' Union, which also includes members of the jute trade, numbered about 260 members in December 1891, out of about 1,000 ropemakers and 1,500 jute-workers. The Matchbox Makers' Union, the East London Confectioners' Trade Union, the Society of Women employed in the Hosiery Trade at Nottingham, the Edinburgh Women Workers' Federation, the Liverpool Tailoresses' and Coat-makers' Union, and three societies in the textile trade at Belfast were all established in the year 1890. An attempt was made in the same year to organise the tailoresses and corset makers at Ipswich, and, with the assistance of the Trades Council, a society of girls engaged in glass works and tobacco factories was started at Newcastle with a membership of 81. The East London Confectioners' Union was instituted during a strike for the abolition of fines and the reinstatement of a worker who had been unjustly dismissed. In December 1891 it numbered about 500 members out of about 3,000 women in the trade.(8) A week or two later one of the largest employers "dis- "missed 40 of his oldest and best, all union girls: he "gave no reason except that he was not going to have "any Union in his firm. . . . The other girls remained "in the Union till they were watched to the Union "Office and Girls' Club by a man . . . employed as "'searcher' to the factory and also to follow the girls "to their club. The girls were at last afraid of being "seen, and gradually dropped out of the Union." It was dissolved in August 1893.(9) The Society of Women in the Hosiery Trade at Nottingham began with a membership of 200, and soon numbered about 300 members. The Edinburgh Women Workers' Federation was started by the Trades Council, under the title of the Female Workers' Association. It began "with a membership of almost 90, which, "however, fell off to 30 or 40." In 1893 it was "taken in hand by a committee of the Independent "Labour Party," and now includes 50 or 60 members.(10) The Liverpool Tailoresses' and Coatmakers' Union was formed during a strike for reduction of hours. About 260 women joined at first, but "as soon as the reduction [§ 763.] "of hours had been granted, the numbers in the Union "began to diminish." In 1892 there were about 100 members, only 40 or 50 of whom were entitled to benefit: it is stated that "the stewards cannot get the women to "pay up."(1) The Belfast Societies of Spinners, Preparers and Reelers, the Weavers, Warpers and Winders, and the Warehouse Workers were established by the League, with the assistance of the Belfast United Trades Council, but were all dissolved within a year.*(2) Several societies were formed during the year 1892. A union of straw plaiters at Luton was established early in the year, with 72 members; shortly after, three societies for women potters were started at Burslem and Hanley in Staffordshire, and the Union of Women Silk Workers was formed at Leek. The Hanley Society, which is called the North Stafford Branch of the Women's Trades Union League, was established by the League, with the assistance of private persons. It has now enrolled from 200 to 300 members.(3) The Nottingham Tailoresses' and Machinists' Trade and Sick Benefit Society dates from October in the same year.(4)

Form of government.

764. The rules of 15 societies of women have been received. The government of these societies is in all cases in the hands of a committee. The number of members in the committee varies in the different associations, and, with one exception, it is always specified in the rules that they must be "women in the "trade." In addition to the committee, a president, secretary and treasurer are generally appointed, and the larger societies have from one to three trustees and one or two auditors. The sex of these officers varies in the different unions: in several cases one or more posts are filled by men, but the principal work is usually done by women. The officers and members of the committee of the Felt Hat Trimmers' Association are all men, whereas the trade is confined to women. A consultative committee, which includes persons who are not members of the society, is elected by the Bristol Association, in addition to its executive committee, which consists of members only. All officers of the Association are ex-officio members of the consultative committee. The committee of the Dundee Mill and Factory Operatives' Union, of which the Rev. Henry Williamson is president, "consists almost entirely of "the female workers"; the secretary is also a woman, and the treasurer is a working man.(5) In a few cases the officers and committee receive some remuneration. Two or more members of the committee usually meet weekly for the transaction of minor business; more important questions are brought before the monthly meetings of the whole committee. Quarterly, half-yearly and yearly meetings of the members are held, at which the decisions of the committee may be revoked. Special meetings of the committee can be summoned when necessary, and the committee is empowered to call a special general meeting on the request of a specified number of members. Officers can be removed and ordinary members expelled by the vote of a general meeting. In four cases the president has a casting vote at meetings of the society, and in one case a deliberative vote also.

Conditions of membership; income and expenditure.

765. In most cases the age is specified at which women are eligible for membership in the societies. The usual limit is "16 years and upwards," but the Denton Hat Trimmers admit members between the ages of 14 and 60, and the Dundee Mill and Factory Operatives' Union only requires that they must be over 10 years of age. The rules of the Leeds Tailoresses' Trade Union and the Edinburgh Women Workers' Federation do not mention any limit of age at all. Candidates must generally be recommended by two members, who vouch for their competency. The Scientific Dress Cutters' Society also requires a certificate of health, and new members of the Bristol Association may be compelled to undergo a medical examination. The entrance fee ranges from 3*d.* to 5*s.*, but is generally 1*s.* In most cases it can be paid by weekly instalments. In the Scientific Dress Cutters' Society, the Society of Dressmakers, Milliners, and Mantlemakers, and the Bristol Association of Working Women it varies with the age of the member. No fee is mentioned in the rules of the Nottingham Society of Women in the

(1) Fourth Annual Report of the Glasgow League, 1892-3. Information furnished by the organising secretary. (2) "Women's Union Journal," 1890, p. 5. (3) *See* above, p. 540. (4) p. 71. (5) "Women's Union Journal," 1889, p. 84. Letter from Miss Panther (30th October 1893). (6) Letter from Mrs. Stretton (30th October 1893). (7) p. 23. "Labour Gazette," August 1893, p. 83. (8) Group C., Digest, Vol. I., p. 43. (9) Letter from Miss James (22nd October 1893); "Labour Gazette," September 1893, p. 113. (10) Letter from Miss Gilchrist (7th November 1893).

* From the 19th Annual Report of the Women's Trades Union League, published in December 1893, it would appear that a new Textile Operatives' Association of Ireland was formed in the autumn of 1893. It consists of about 1,000 girls employed in the linen industry.

(1) p. 70. (2) Letter from R. Sheldon (28th October 1893); Belfast Trades Council, Reports, 1890, 1891. (3) Letter from J. Bentley (27th November 1893). (4) Women's Trades Union League. Annual Reports, 1875-6, 1878-9; 1883, 1885-8; 1890-2. (5) Group C., Minutes Vol. I. Williamson, 11,041-3.

[§ 765.] Hosiery Trade. Members who temporarily leave the trade and withdraw from their society are generally re-admitted without further payment within a specified period after they have resumed work. The contribution is usually 2*d.* or 3*d.* a week, but varies in a few cases according to the age of the member, or the benefits to which she desires to be entitled. The committee of the Edinburgh Federation can raise a levy at any time when necessary, and in several cases a levy is raised on the death of a member who is entitled to benefit. Members who allow their contributions to be in arrears for more than a specified period are generally fined a small sum and suspended from benefits until a certain time after they are clear on the books. If they do not reduce their debt within a stated period they are liable to expulsion. In the case of members who are unable to pay, owing to sickness, want of employment or other good cause, the amount which they owe is usually placed to their credit. Generally speaking, members are not entitled to any benefit until they have paid their contribution regularly for a certain period, when they are termed "free" members. The total number of benefits granted by the 15 associations which have forwarded copies of their rules is 44, as shown in the table below. [§ 765.]

Table of Benefits allowed by Women's Trade Associations.

	Dundee and District Mill and Factory Operatives' Union.	Society of Women employed in the Hosiery Trade. (Nottingham.)	Leeds Tailoresses' Trade Union.	Nottingham Tailoresses' and Machinists' Trade and Sick Benefit Society.
Out-of-work benefit	Aid is granted at the Committee's discretion to members out of work through the breakdown of machinery.	—	Members contributing 1½*d.* a week, 4*s.* a week; members contributing 2½*d.* a week, 6*s.* a week.	—
Sick benefit	—	—	5*s.* a week for four weeks, then 2*s.* 6*d.* a week for four weeks.	Members contributing 3*d.* a week, 8*s.* a week for four weeks; then 4*s.* a week for four weeks.
Funeral benefit	After one year's membership, 10*s*, and 5*s.* for each additional year, to the amount of 3*l.*	—	A levy of 3*d.* a member is raised on a member's death.	—
Dispute benefit	Support is granted by the Union, unless the funds are below 50*l.*	8*s.* a week for six weeks, then 6*s.* a week for six weeks.	Members contributing 1½*d.* a week, 7*s.* a week; members contributing 2½*d.* a week, 10*s.* a week.	10*s.* a week.
Accident benefit	Not more than 4*s.* a week for five weeks, as the Committee may determine.	—	The same as sick benefit	—

	Scientific Dress-cutters' Benefit Society. (London.)	Society of Dressmakers, Milliners, and Mantle-makers. (London.)	Society of Women employed in Shirt, Collar, and Underlinen making.	Felt Hat Trimmers' and Wool Formers' Association. (Denton.)
Out-of-work benefit	Members contributing 2*d.* a week, 5*s.* a week for not more than eight weeks; members contributing 4*d.* a week, 10*s.* a week.	5*s.* a week for eight weeks in one year.	5*s.* a week for not more than eight weeks.	6*s.* a week for thirteen weeks.
Sick benefit	The same as out-of-work benefit.	The same as out-of-work benefit.	The same as out-of-work benefit.	—
Funeral benefit	A levy of not more than 6*d.* a member is raised on a member's death. Not less than 2*l.*, nor more than 6*l.* may be paid in any one case.	A levy of 6*d.* a member is raised on a member's death.	Not more than 2*l.* is allowed from the funds.	4*l.*
Dispute benefit	—	—	—	7*s.* a week for thirteen weeks. Victimised members, 8*s.* a week.
Accident benefit	—	—	—	—

[§ 765.]

[§ 765.]

	Society of Women employed in the Upholstery Trade. (London.)	Society of Women employed in Book-binding. (London.)	North Stafford Branch of the Women's Trade Union League.	Bristol Association of Working Women.
Out-of-work benefit -	5*s.* a week for not more than six weeks in one year.	5*s.* a week for not more than eight weeks in one year.	3*s.* a week for twelve weeks.	Members contributing 2*d.* or 3*d.* a week, 5*s.* a week for not more than eight weeks in one year.
Sick benefit - -	The same as out-of-work benefit.	The same as out-of-work benefit.	—	The same as out-of-work benefit.
Funeral benefit - -	A levy of 6*d.* a member is raised on a member's death.	Not more than 2*l.* is allowed from the funds.	—	Members contributing 3*d.* a week, 3*l.*
Dispute benefit -	—	—	6*s.* a week - -	As the Committee may decide.
Accident benefit -	—	—	—	—

	Edinburgh Women Workers' Federation.	Manchester and Salford Federation of Women Workers.	Amalgamated Protective and Provident Society of Women Working in Trades in Oxford.
Out-of-work benefit -	4*s.* a week for not more than four weeks in one year.	Members contributing 2*d.* a week, 4*s.* a week for not more than six weeks; members contributing 3*d.* a week, 6*s.* a week.	5*s.* or 7*s.* a week for four weeks in one year, according to the rate of contribution.
Sick benefit - -	The same as out-of-work benefit.	The same as out-of-work benefit. A sum of 10*s.* in confinement.	The same as out-of-work benefit.
Funeral benefit -	—	—	A levy of 6*d.* a member is raised on a member's death.
Dispute benefit -	6*s.* a week. Victimised members may receive an additional grant from the funds.	—	—
Accident benefit -	—	—	—

The tabulated statements show that out-of-work benefit is granted most frequently. Sick benefit ranks next, and is allowed by 11 of the associations, the rules of which have been received. In most cases it is expressly stated that members do not receive any benefit during their confinement, but one society grants a fixed sum. Funeral benefit in one case varies with the length of membership of the deceased person. In the Bristol Association it is only granted to members who pay the highest rate of contribution. The amount in dispute benefit varies with the rate of contributions, of one society. "Victimised" members receive a higher rate than ordinary members on strike, in two cases. Accident benefit is provided in two societies in the textile and clothing trades. It is not clear in all cases whether both out-of-work and sick benefit are allowed during the same year.

Dispute and other regulations.

766. Seven societies, the Nottingham Tailoresses' and Machinists' Society, the Edinburgh Women Workers' Federation, the Leeds Tailoresses' Union, the North Stafford Women's Trade Union League, the Denton Felt Hat Trimmers' and Wool Formers' Association, the Bristol Association of Working Women, and the Dundee Mill and Factory Operatives' Union, have regulations with regard to disputes with employers. The five first only require that the case shall be laid before the committee, which decides upon the course of action which the members must adopt. Arrangements for the settlement of disputed points by arbitration are contained in the rules of the Bristol Association and the Dundee Factory Operatives' Union. In the event of arbitration being refused by the employer, the committee of the Bristol Association, with the consent of two-thirds of the members, obtained by ballot, can authorise a strike. The Dundee Factory Operatives' Union, the North Stafford Women's Trade Union League, and the Leeds Tailoresses' Union do not support members who strike without the authority of the committee, or who continue out after the committee has declared a strike at an end. During a strike, the executives of the Leeds Tailoresses' Trade Union, and of the North Stafford Women's Trade Union League can increase or decrease the rates of contribution and dispute benefit, at their discretion. Employers' interests are protected, in the case of the Upholsteresses' and the Shirt and Collar Makers' Societies, and the North Stafford Women's Trade Union League, by a rule which provides that members who defraud an employer shall be out of benefit until the next quarterly meeting. The only example of hostility towards non-unionists is contained in the introduction to the rules of the Felt Hat Trimmers' Association. Members are advised "not to teach any person to trim or form, except they "promise to join the Association." In most societies a book is kept at the office, in which unemployed members sign their names daily. Work is offered to members according to the order of their names on the list, and in three cases those who refuse a post must place their names last. Members of the Felt Hat Trimmers' Association are provided with an "introductory card," which they must present at any shop where they seek employment. In addition to this register, the secretary generally enters in a book the names of any establishments where there are vacancies. The rules of the Bristol Association provide that "when practicable, "an office shall be taken where members shall attend, "and engage in some useful occupation, between the "hours of nine and five. Such work to be found by the "executive committee, and any proceeds arising from "the sale of it, to be put to the funds of the "Association." Alterations in the rules can usually be made only at a general meeting, after one month's notice has been given. The Scientific Dresscutters' Society also stipulates that all amendments shall be registered, before they are deemed valid.

[§ 767.] Objects.

767. The maintenance and protection of the rights and privileges, both of the trade, and of individual members; the regulation of the relations between employers and employed, in order to prevent trade disputes; and the formation of benefit funds, are stated to be the objects of the greater number of these societies. The Bristol Association of Working Women desires further to regulate the mutual relations between workwomen, and "to exercise a supervision over any existing and future "acts of the Legislature, which may injuriously affect "the employment of women." One of the objects of the Nottingham Tailoresses' and Machinists' Society is to "generally improve the social condition of its "members." The Felt Hat Trimmers and Wool Formers wish to "induce all employers in the trade to pay the "same price for the same kind of work," and the Edinburgh Women Workers' Federation desires "fair "wages, shorter hours of labour, and sanitary work-"shops." The North Stafford Women's Trade Union League wishes to "secure by co-operation for all its "members a just and proper wage for their labour, to "encourage efficiency, and to shield them in the "courts of law, and elsewhere, from any attempt, by "whomsoever made, to infringe their rights and "privileges."

Trades Councils and Trades Union Congress.

768 Women had for several years been admitted to trades councils in various parts of the country, before the establishment of a Women's Trades Council in London, in the year 1883. The Council is composed of delegates from the women's unions in London and the provinces, each of which is entitled to one representative for every 500 members or less. Delegates are required to attend meetings of the Council once a month. The annual contribution to the Council is 2*d.* for each member. It is intended that the Women's Council shall eventually take upon itself the work of organising women workers throughout the country, which has hitherto been carried on by the League. But this cannot be done until women's trades councils have been established in all the large towns, and the movement is still too recent for so great an advance to have been made. The Women's Council annually sends a delegate to the Trades Union Congress, to which women were first admitted in the year 1875, when the Shirt and Collar Makers', Bookbinders', and Upholsteresses' Societies each sent a delegate to the eighth congress. Since that year women delegates have regularly attended, and taken an increasing part in the business of the congresses.(1)

Results of organisation. (i.) *Economic results.*

769. In spite of the numerous difficulties which have been shown to hinder the establishment and growth of women's organisations, they may claim to have obtained considerable economic and social advantages for their members. Taking the economic results first, it is stated that through the action of the Liverpool Tailoresses' and Coatmakers' Union, the hours of labour have been reduced from 12 to 10.(2) As the result of organisation among the Glasgow brushmakers, a uniform rate of payment has been established in all but three of the shops, and "the women's union has "a price list which fixes the rates for 59 varieties of "work. . . This list shows an increase of 10 per "cent. on the rates paid two years ago."(3) It was stated in 1890 that the Dundee Mill and Factory Operatives' Union had already succeeded in securing three rises of 5 per cent. for its members, without resorting to a strike. In January of the same year meetings were held at Ipswich with a view to organising tailoresses and corset makers, and "it is a signifi-"cant fact that in February one of the largest firms "in the clothing trade made known to their workers "their intention of giving a bonus to all in their "employment."(4) [§ 769.]

The Liverpool Upholsteresses' Union, which was established in 1890, obtained an advance in wages of 2*s.* within six months of its formation.(1) It is stated by the secretary of the Nottingham Tailoresses' Society, which has only been established about 12 months, that it has already successfully resisted a proposed reduction of wages,(2) while the formation of a union among the lace-makers in this town has had the effect of greatly checking the system of fines in the factories.(3) The East London Confectioners' and Ropemakers' Unions, and other societies, have also succeeded in obtaining considerable improvements in the conditions of employment in the trades they represent. For example, after the establishment of the East London Confectioners' Union, it was stated that in one factory, although the workers were not in the Union, a share of profits or a bonus was given to the girls, all fines were stopped, a library and dining room were fitted up for them, "and things are ever so much better in that factory."(4) The social and moral advantages of organisation are equal if not superior to the economic, and the influence of the Women's Trades Union League in this direction may be said to have been very great. In 1878 it had already instituted a halfpenny-bank, a library, a swimming club, an office where advertisements could be consulted, and a journal, and in 1881 a co-operative society was established. Social gatherings have been held from the first by the members of the League and of the various societies, and these appear to do much towards creating a friendly feeling among them. As an instance of the educational influence of organisation, the secretary of a provincial society said that she "never wrote for about five years before the "society started,"(5) and a witness before the Commission stated that it had "proved an advantage indirectly, "even when it gained no advance in wages for them. "I think," she added, the "women are certainly "treated with more respect when they are organised, "and they are not quite so much afraid of the em-"ployers and forewomen as they often are else."(6) Information has been furnished respecting an employment office established at Dundee in January 1892, which was said to have proved both morally and economically advantageous to the workers. It was instituted by the honorary president of the Dundee Mill and Factory Operatives' Union, for the benefit both of the members of that association and of other workers. "A "common sight in the Dundee streets is that of groups "of working girls on their way to the various mills to "enquire of the gatekeepers whether any 'spinners' or "'shifters' or 'low mill hands' are wanted. They are "told to call again, and so they continue the weary "tramp until a foreman or manager may select them "for work. It is obvious that young women almost "destitute wandering about the streets of a seaport "town in this way are liable to meet persons of a "degraded character." The moral advantage of an office of this kind is evident from the fact that, before the employment office was started, there was no reading room or other establishment, where these girls might find shelter. The name, age, occupation, and other particulars respecting each worker are entered in a register which is kept at the office. No fee is charged, and the expenses are met by voluntary contributions. More than 1,500 names were registered during the year 1892, and, during the jute famine in the spring of that year, as many as 60 girls were sometimes kept in the office. A sewing mistress was engaged for them, and dinner tickets were given to those for whom no dinner was provided.

(ii.) *Social and moral results.*

C. TRADE DISPUTES.

Infrequency of trade disputes where only women are employed; effect of organisation on trade disputes.

770. In spite of much ill-feeling which undoubtedly exists between employers and employed in many industries, trade disputes are of comparatively rare occurrence where women are exclusively engaged. For example, it appears that no strikes of dressmakers, milliners, or upholstresses have ever yet taken place. A great contrast, however, is offered by those trades where both men and women are employed. Women have taken part in a large number of strikes, particularly in the textile industries, where in point of numbers they were in the majority. But it will be found to be almost invariably the case that these strikes were due

(1) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1883, pp. 10, 11. "Women's Union Journal," 1888, p. 68; 1890, p. 95. (2) p. 69. (3) p. 275. (4) Women's Trades Union League, Report, 1890, pp. 11, 15.

(1) "Women's Trades Union Review," January 1893, p. 6. (2) Letter from G. Noble, 14th November, 1893. (3) P. 161. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8634. (5) Women's Trades Union League, Reports, 1878, pp. 8-13; 1883, p. 12; 1885, p. 5. (6) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss Black, 8856.

[§ 770.] in the first instance to the action of the men workers. Women, one witness stated, "will go on submitting to "any imposition, rather than strike: it is only when "they are forced into it."(1) One reason for this indisposition to strike on the part of the women is the absence of organisation among them until recent years. The causes of this lack of organisation are dealt with elsewhere, but it appears evident that where women's unions exist strikes are not only more successfully conducted, but they are also more frequent.(2) Thus the East London Ropemakers' Union has had "many" strikes, by three of which it has obtained considerable improvements in the conditions of employment. With regard to one of these strikes, the secretary says, "the "conduct of these 98 women proves beyond question "that women can, under trusted leadership, combine "with a steadfastness and courage equal at least to "men."(3) "I never knew of any union of women "standing together and acting in the determined, self-"respecting and self-denying manner that they have "done."(4) The only record of picketing occurs in connection with the ropemakers' strike of 1890, when a woman over 70 years of age "took her place with the "pickets at six o'clock in the morning. Every morning "through the depth of last winter she took her place "there, and stood her four hours with the other pickets "every day."(5) On the other hand, it is clear that, although the presence of a strong union increases the women's inclination to strike, the same fact induces employers to attend to their grievances, and thus recourse to the extreme measure of a strike is not always necessary. For instance, "things are ever so "much better" in a confectioner's factory since the formation of the Confectioners' Union. "The masters "know that the workers are really awake to a sense of "their condition."(6) With regard to the dispute at the Pier Cordage Works, Millwall, the manager declared that "if he had known he was going to have an organised "strike, he would not have held out at all."(7)

Causes of strikes.

771. The majority of the strikes in which women have played a leading part were either for an advance or against a reduction of wages. The question of hours does not occupy nearly so important a place, mainly, no doubt, owing to the limitations already prescribed by the Factory Acts. In several strikes, "reduction of "hours" was included among other demands, but the only large strike for this cause alone was that of the Liverpool tailoresses in 1890. In a few cases the women have struck for a fixed time for cleaning machinery, proper meal-times, and the payment of overtime. A very large number of strikes, particularly in the textile trades, arose from disputes as to "bad material." A considerable number were due to various conditions of employment which the workers considered objectionable. The attempt to introduce a new system of weaving occasioned a strike among Glasgow weavers about 1890. In October 1889 some worsted menders at Stanningley struck against piece-work,(8) while, on the other hand, the change from piece-work to day-work caused a strike of candy-workers in the South-east of London in the following year.(9) Several disputes occurred among the fur-pullers in the same district in December 1889, one of the objects of which was to obtain "re-distribution of "work."(10) In January 1891 the fur-pullers again struck, because "the indoor pullers objected to the skins "being opened by men for the outdoor pullers."(11) "Excessive steaming" is stated as the cause of several strikes in the textile trades. A few strikes were to obtain the abolition of excessive fines; one of the most important of these was the chocolate workers' dispute in the East End in July 1890. In the textile trades the obnoxious conduct of the overlookers has given rise to several strikes, most of which were successful. On the other hand, three strikes in these trades were occasioned by the discharge of one or more overlookers. The strike of the Bradford weavers in 1891 was the most important of those due to this cause, which was called "ridiculous" by the Union.(12) Several strikes were occasioned by the dismissal of one or more women on grounds which their fellow-workers deemed insufficient. The most important of these was successfully conducted by 500 match-makers in the East End in January 1890.(13) The lock-out of the Sheffield confectioners, in September 1890, was due to their having joined the Gas Workers' Union. In January 1891 a strike of 600 ropemakers occurred at Newcastle-on-Tyne, as a protest against the "discharge of the officials "of a recently formed branch of the Union." The London Laundresses' strike in 1891 originated from a personal disagreement of the women in one establishment with their employer. The only strike which was due to a "sympathetic" cause was that of 150 tinplate workers in the South-east of London, in August 1889, who came out to support the dock labourers.(1) [§ 771.]

(1) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8283. (2) p. 175. (3) Strikes and Lock-outs of 1890, p. 219. (4) Group C., Minutes Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8283. (5) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8368. (6) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8634. (7) Group C., Strikes Abstract, Vol. I., p. 53. (8) Strikes and Lock-outs of 1889, p. 74. (9) Strikes and Lock-outs of 1890, p. 66. (10) Strikes and Lock-outs of 1889, p. 41. (11) Strikes and Lock-outs of 1891, p. 145. (12) Strikes and Lock-outs of 1889, p. 136. (13) Strikes and Lock-outs of 1890, pp. 66, 108.

Special Strikes and Lock-outs.

772. No details as to the development and conduct of several important strikes, as, for instance, that of the London match-makers, in January 1890, are contained in the oral or written evidence. Thus a complete account of the strikes organised by women is impossible with the materials at disposal. It must also be borne in mind that large numbers of women have been concerned in many strikes initiated and conducted by men. These have been treated elsewhere, and the account here given is confined to those where women alone were affected, or where the strike was entirely due to their influence.

Textile trades. (a.) *Cotton spinners, Oldham, 1886.*

(a.) A strike was caused at the Henshaw Street Spinning Company at Oldham, in 1886, by the objectionable conduct of an overlooker towards the women employed under him. The firm supported the overlooker "until the conviction in the police court, after "which they discharged him, but refused to take any "operatives who struck against him back to work." During the strike the Card and Blowing Room Operatives' Association allowed 12*s.* a week to the women and 15*s.* a week to the men who were out. The total cost of the strike was over 2,030*l.*(2)

(b.) *Nelson 1891.*

(b.) Another strike occurred at Nelson in December 1891 from a similar cause. "In this case the question "of guilt was decided by three clergymen, who were "chosen as arbitrators, both sides agreeing to this "mode of settlement." When the decision was arrived at, the overlooker left his employment, and work was resumed on March 12, 1892. The award was "printed "and distributed among the weavers in Nelson, and is "believed by them to have created a marked improve-"ment, not only in the behaviour of overlookers, but "in the attitude of employers upon this question."(3)

(c.) *Cotton weavers, Glasgow 1890 (circ.).*

(c.) About 1890 a Glasgow manufacturer attempted to introduce the three-loom system into his mill. "The "girls immediately struck work. After the strike had "gone on for some days the Glasgow Trades Council and "the Council of the Women's Protective and Provident "League took the matter up, and entered into negotia-"tions with the employer. The latter offered very fairly "to provide new machinery, to introduce the change "gradually, and to pay the wages due to increased "production. The Trades Council and the Council "of the League endeavoured to persuade the girls of "the desirability of the arrangement, pointing out to "them that it would result, not only in larger wages "to themselves, but would help in the very important "matter of keeping an industry in the district. The "workers remained unconvinced, and finally the "League and the Trades Council offered to send an "expert to Lancashire to investigate the difference in "the system there. This was arranged, and the "report brought back was that the Lancashire women "were working three and four looms of the kind used "in Scotland. The workers, however, refused even to "allow a single experiment of three looms being tried "in the weaving-shed, and only went back to their "work on condition that such should not be en-"forced."(4)

(d.) *Lancashire, 1891.*

(d.) In April 1891 a strike arose among the Lancashire cotton weavers "upon the question of a fixed "allowance of time for cleaning roving and slubbing "frames. The firm had not observed the general "custom of stopping the machinery at stated intervals, "or at least for fixed periods, and the operatives were, "in consequence, forced to clean their frames during "meal-hours, in contravention of the Act. They asked "that a time should be fixed for this purpose, and after "some delay were informed that the machinery could "be stopped, though it was not stated for what time. "Immediately after this permission was granted, a "frame-tenter was discharged for having spent one-"hour-and-a-half cleaning her frame, the overlooker "being of opinion that this was too long. . . . Several

(1) Strikes and Lock-outs of 1889, pp. 53, 83. (2) Group C., Strikes Abstract, Vol. I., p. 51; Minutes, Vol. I., Silk, 522, 529–33. (3) p. 116. Strikes and Lock-outs of 1891, pp. 179, 314. (4) p. 174.

[§ 772 (d.)] "other workers had been engaged at the same task "for a similar time. The operatives, considering the "dismissal unjust, struck in support of their com- "panion, and were then locked out. The time allowed "at another mill in the neighbourhood for cleaning "an exactly similar frame is two hours." The frame-tenter who was discharged was not taken back, but the Union undertook to support her until work should be found for her.(1)

(e.) *Cotton weavers and winders, Glasgow, 1892.* (e.) One of the most important strikes in the Glasgow cotton trade occurred in 1892 against a proposed reduction of wages. The weavers and winders were then unorganised, but 300 came out. About 1,200*l.* was subscribed by trade and other societies and by the public. A strike committee was appointed, and relief was granted at the rate of 7*s.* 6*d.* a week. The employers several times refused proposals for submitting the matter to arbitration. After 13 weeks the firm withdrew half the proposed reduction and made other concessions. "The final negotiations were conducted "by a deputation of members of the Glasgow Protec- "tive and Provident League and the workers them- "selves," who became affiliated to the League.(2)

(f.) *Linen weavers, Forfar, 1889.* (f.) In September 1889 the linen weavers in two factories at Forfar claimed an advance in wages of five per cent., "because of an increase that had been con- "ceded in Dundee." One of the firms affected granted the advance in three days, but the other refused it. "During the negotiations, the women took the law into "their own hands, and struck work." After the strike had lasted two weeks, all the other firms in the town locked out their operatives, "and for 10 weeks the "whole population of that town was out of work and "locked out." The number of women on strike was 145, but the total number of men and women on strike or locked out was about 2,400. Help was received from all parts of the country, and even from California and India, but the funds of the Union became exhausted, and its "powers of forcing the advance were exhausted "also." The strike was settled by a compromise, and although "the women were the first to strike, they were "the last to suffer." Men receiving the lower rate of wages had an immediate advance, and it was agreed that the women's claims should be "favourably con- "sidered" the following spring. As a matter of fact, nothing whatever was done for the women until February 1892, when they were granted an advance. The strike cost the Union about 2,500*l.*(3)

(g.) *Woollen weavers, Leeds, 1888.* (g.) A strike of about 300 women weavers occurred at Leeds on September 19th, 1888, against a reduction of the piece-work wage, which would have amounted to 3*s.* in some cases. Meetings were held, and a deputation of the women interviewed the firm, but it was not successful in obtaining a settlement. The Leeds Trades Council then took the matter up, and on September 25th induced the firm to agree that no worker should be discharged for having taken part in the strike, that all fines should be abolished, and that the proposed reduction should be considerably lessened. It was also determined that the women weavers should be organised as a branch of the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association.(4)

(h.) *Woollen weavers, Wakefield, 1889.* (h.) In February 1889 a strike against reduction of wages broke out at Alverthorpe, near Wakefield, among the weavers in a mill belonging to Messrs. Colbeck, who supplied cloth for army and police clothing. Two members of the West Riding of Yorkshire Power Loom Weavers' Association went to interview the firm, but were refused admission. Subscriptions were raised for the workers on strike, but after a fortnight's struggle a few weavers resumed work at a reduced wage, and the rest were replaced.(5)

(i.) *Bradford, 1891.* (i.) In May 1891 the overlookers in a mill at Bradford struck against a new arrangement which involved additional work without additional pay. About 400 weavers came out as a protest against the dismissal of the overlookers, and a lock-out resulted which lasted for a week. At the end of that time work was resumed, but "a number of the weavers failed to be re-instated "and new overlookers were engaged."(6)

(j.) *Ravensthorpe, 1892* (j.) A strike of 110 weavers occurred at Ravensthorpe against a reduction of the piece wage. "The prices "before the strike were 2*s.* lower than the Association "scale, and the average wage of a box-loom weaver "was 8*s.* 8*d.* per week, while that of a plain loom "weaver was 8*s.* 4*d.* per week. A small proportion of "the women belonged to the Weavers' Association, "and were entitled to strike pay, but the majority "were without means of support during the strike. "By Union intervention the proposed reduction was "lessened by 9*d.* in each case, and the weavers who "were unable to hold out longer than a month "accepted these terms and returned to work."(1) [§ 772 (j.)]

Clothing trades.

(k.) *Hosiers, Nottingham, 1892.* (k.) A strike and lock-out occurred simultaneously in two Nottingham hosiery firms in May 1892. The seamers in one factory struck against a reduction of $\frac{1}{8}d.$ per dozen pairs of stockings, which would reduce their price to that paid in the other factory. At the same time the lower-paid seamers struck for an advance of $\frac{1}{8}d.$ This was granted after nine days, and the strike and lock-out came to an end.(2)

(l.) *Tailoresses, Leeds 1889.* (l.) A strike occurred among the tailoresses in Messrs. Arthur's factory at Leeds in October 1889, against deductions from wages for steam-power, cooking, and charities, and the obligation to buy thread in the factory at a higher price than that paid elsewhere. Mass meetings of the women were held, assistance was received from the Leeds Trades Council and from the public, and a union was formed which soon numbered nearly 2,000 members. But after less than three weeks the strike came to an end; some workers were re-engaged on the employers' terms, others were replaced. The number of women actually on strike was 412, but 760 were affected altogether.(3)

(m.) *Liverpool, 1890.* (m.) In the summer of 1890 the Liverpool tailoresses, encouraged by the success of the men's society in obtaining a reduction of hours, formed a union, and "sent "a memorial to the Middlemen's Society asking for a "two hours' reduction. No notice was taken of their "request. They, therefore, blocked two shops, and sent "a letter to say that the reduction of hours must be "given without any reduction of wages, and without "adopting the piece-work system. They had no funds, "but had agreed to support those who were out. The "middlemen held a meeting, and decided to lock them "out, thinking that without funds they would be "frightened. The Trades Council had, however, "promised them support, and the girls kept together, "and patrolled the streets to show what respectable- "looking people they were, as statements to the "contrary had been made. The middlemen still held "out, but one firm was known to want to make the con- "cession; the girls went to this employer, and told "him that if he would pay the foreman a weekly wage "he could employ them. He dismissed his middleman, "but could not get a Liverpool man in his place. "The Manchester Tailors' and Pressers' Society, "however, sent down a foreman, and about 30 women "went into this shop. In another fortnight the "'middleman' of another large firm was persuaded to "make the concession, and then all the rest gave in." This strike cost the Union "over 70*l.*" "In one case "afterwards an outdoor shop wanted to increase the "hours; the Union took out the women, and paid them "1*l.* a week for three weeks, and places were found for "them elsewhere."(4)

Miscellaneous Trades.

(n.) *Brushmakers, Glasgow, 1890.* (n.) In 1890 some of the men engaged in brushmaking at Glasgow agitated for an increase of wages, "which they claimed had been verbally promised "them by the employers some years previously. After "some discussion the desired increase was granted "throughout the trade. It had been in force for little "over two weeks, when a reduction of from 15 per cent. "to 20 per cent. was proposed by the employers, who "stated they could not afford the increase. The men "refused this, and struck work. The employers, on "their part, locked out their women workers. The "men's union came to the assistance of the latter, "and granted them aliment from their own funds to "the extent of from 7*s.* to 10*s.* a week; at the same "time they organised the girls into a trade society. "After a three weeks' strike the men succeeded in "having the proposed reduction withdrawn, and re- "turned to work on their old terms. The women were "also taken back, and the men stipulated that they "should participate in the increase of wages. All the "brushmaking firms agreed to this, with one exception. "The employer in this case announced to his women "employees that if they returned to work it must be "at the old terms. A deputation of women waited on "him, and stated they had formed a union, and were

(1) p. 115. (2) p. 176, "Women's Trades Union Review," July, 1892, p. 6. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Roy, 11,274-5; 11,300-1; 11,332. Strikes Abstract, Vol. I., p. 53, Vol. II., p. 62. Report on Strikes and Lock-outs of 1889, p. 90. (4) "Women's Union Journal," 1888, pp. 74-6. (5) "Women's Union Journal," 1889, pp. 27-8, 35-6. Report on Strikes and Lock-outs of 1889 pp. 72, 90. (6) p. 99. Report on Strikes and Lock-outs of 1891, pp. 182, 199.

(1) p. 100. (2) p. 161. (3) "Women's Union Journal," 1889, pp. 83-4. Report on Strikes and Lock-outs of 1889, pp. 42, 78. (4) p. 70. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 875.

[§ 772 (n.)] "prepared to dispute his proposal. The employer at "first refused to accede to the wishes of the workers, "and dismissed the deputation. They were, however, "recalled, and informed that they might begin work "at the increased rates."(1)

(o.) Confectioners, London, 1890. (o.) In July 1890 the girls employed in a chocolate factory in the East End struck for the reinstatement of one of their number, who had been dismissed for refusing to pay an unjust fine. The employer would not reinstate the girl and locked out 85 of the others. They then determined to ask also for the abolition of all fines, and permission to leave the factory during the dinner hour. At that time they were quite unorganised, but during the lock-out they were formed into a union. After two weeks the lock-out was ended by the concession of the girls' demands.(2)

(p.) Sheffield, 1890. (p.) "In the latter part of 1890," about 300 or 400 women employed in the confectionery trade at Sheffield were enrolled in the local branch of the Gas Workers' and General Labourers' Union. "Immediately after "those women had joined our Union, their employer "gave them notice that, except they withdrew, they "would be discharged." He then "posted bills up "through the works to say that no unionist would be "employed," and dismissed 40 women. "In conse- "quence of the 40 being discharged, the remaining 300 "odd withdrew themselves from the Union." A borough magistrate interviewed the employer, but the latter "expressed his hostility to their unionism in an "uncompromising and threatening manner, and he "declined to entertain any idea of either truce or "negotiation." "At first he explained to me that his "objection was to unionists connected with this par- "ticular Union, on the ground of gas-workers being "connected with it. Then I pressed him on the point "of whether he would allow them either to form a "union amongst themselves or to join some union of "other workers and confectioners, and he objected to "that too . . . . he would not have them in a union at "all." The 40 women who had been discharged were not taken back, and the Union "provided them "with their wages until such times as they got employ- "ment." It was stated, however, that "the net result "was that while forty lost their employment the others "benefited by what took place," for "the hours were "reduced, and there was a considerable advance in "wages, not a general advance all round, but still a "very large number had their wages advanced." "You "will see," added another witness, "when I tell you "that the average wages of the 400 girls who joined "our Union amounted to 6s. per week, and that their "average age was a little over 20 . . . . that there was "a little room for improvement."(3)

(q.) Drysaltery, London, 1891. (q.) Evidence was given before the Commission with regard to a strike which occurred in a drysaltery to obtain payment for overtime. "There was a rule "posted in the master's office, that all overtime should "be paid for, but if a sufficient amount of work was "not done by the end of the week, they would have to "remain on Saturday until any hour to finish the "work. The girls complained that they never knew "how much work was expected of them, and the "employer admitted that it was impossible to set a "task for each day." No complaint was made until it was found that the forewoman had been paid for over- time, and then the girls came out, and refused to work overtime unless they were paid for it. The manager, when interviewed on the subject, stated that he was not under the Factory Act, and he "could work his women "any hour he liked." Application was then made to a solicitor, and the manager, "because he was afraid of "exposure, sent the girls the money for their overtime, "but of course they have not gone back again."(4)

(r.) Laundresses, London, 1891. (r.) In June 1891 the laundresses in one establish- ment at Marylebone struck on account of a personal disagreement with their employer. Other workers, to the number of about 700, joined them, and demanded better conditions of labour. The Union did not sanction the strike, but persuaded the women, who were non- unionists, to resume work after one week on condition of "advance of wages in one or two cases, reduction of "hours in another."(5)

(s.) White lead workers, Newcastle, 1890. (s.) In May 1890 the women employed in the New- castle white lead works struck for an advance in wages and a reduction of hours. At the same time they formed a society, but after a few weeks "the Union collapsed, and the women were obliged to come to work." It was stated that the strike failed "simply "because it was the wrong time; there was a fall in "the market."(1) [§ 772 (s.)]

(t.) Match- makers, London, 1388. (t.) Considerable discontent with the conditions of employment had prevailed in Messrs. Bryant and May's match factory for several years before the strike in July 1888. The girls complained of reduced wages, deductions for materials and assistance in their work, and of petty tyranny on the part of foremen and forewomen. On July 5th a girl was dismissed for refusing to sign a paper denying the existence of the system of fines and reductions in the factory, and, as a protest against her discharge, all the other girls at once struck work. A mass meeting was held a few days later, when a strike fund was instituted, and prepara- tions were made for organising the girls. Within a few days 150*l.* had been collected for distribution among the match-makers on strike, and a union was formed. A deputation of the girls waited on the London Trades' Council, which promised them support, and com- municated with the directors of the company. Meanwhile, meetings were held in all parts of London in support of the strike, and a deputation of the girls marched to the House of Commons. The result was that, after the strike had lasted about a fortnight, on the intervention of the London Trades Council for the second time, Messrs. Bryant and May conceded all the girls' demands. It was agreed that none should be discharged for having taken part in the strike, that all fines and deductions should be abolished, that a dining- room should be provided for the girls, and various other improvements should be made in the conditions of employment, and that the Union should be recognised.(2)

(u.) Ropemakers, London, 1890. (u.) A strike occurred among the East London ropemakers in November 1890, for an increase in wages of ½*d.* an hour. The women pointed out to the employer the impossibility of living on 7*s.* 6*d.* a week, but he refused the advance, "and told us that he could "get his work done in the north for 6*s.* a week by "women there, and he should do it. We gave him "another week to consider the case, and told him that, "if at the end of the week he did not come to our terms, "the women would cease working. That we carried "out, and for eleven weeks these women maintained "themselves with the help of public contributions, and "in the end we practically won our strike, with the "intervention of the London Trades Council. . . . "We wanted to make the work by the hour, and we "wanted ½*d.* an hour more. The women were getting "1¾*d.* to 2*d.* and 2¼*d.* an hour, and we wanted 2*d.*, 2¼*d.*, "and 2½*d.* an hour. After a time he has granted the "whole of our request, and the Union and the employer "are on the best of terms; there are only union women "employed in that factory." The strike cost about 382*l.*(3)

(v.) 1891. (v.) Another strike broke out at the Pier Cordage Works, Millwall, in 1891, for a supply of hot water for breakfast, and an hour instead of half an hour for dinner. These women were unorganised, but the Ropemakers' Union undertook the conduct of the strike. After a fortnight the employer succeeded in getting some women in, but they were bought off by the Union the next day. The manager then came to terms, and said that "if he had known he was going to "have an organised strike, he would not have held out "at all. He gave in to our terms entirely. No woman "was to be dismissed for taking part in the strike, they "were to have an unlimited supply of hot water, and "they were to have an hour for dinner."(4)

Proposals for preven tion and settlement of trade disputes 773. With regard to the prevention of trade disputes, the Shirt and Collar Makers' Society would have "the "workpeople form themselves into trade unions, and "be recognised by employers."(5) One witness was of opinion, however, that although "a strong trade union "will do a great deal, the grievances will never be "done away with until employers are compelled to "recognise that they are working and wearing out "human lives instead of mere machines."(6) The Dressmakers', Milliners', and Mantle-makers' Society advocates "labour bureaux or exhibitions with co- "operative workshops, worked by members of women's "trade unions in their respective trades, with the "trial of an eight hours' day, so as to equalise the "division of labour between the outdoor hands and the

(1) p. 275. (2) Group C., Strikes Abstract, Vol. I., p. 53; Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8517, 8616. Letter received from Miss James (23rd October 1893). (3) Group C., Strikes Abstract, Vol. III., p. 119, Minutes, Vol. III., 23,448, 23,643, 23,658, 23,674–5. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8592–4. (5) Group C. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 877; Strikes and Lock-outs of 1891, pp. 148, 192.

(1) Group C., Strikes Abstract, Vol. III., p. 111. (2) "Women's Union Journal," 1888, pp. 52, 58–60. (3) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Mrs. Hicks, 8242–3. Strikes Abstract, Vol. I., p. 53. Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 878. (4) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I. Mrs. Hicks, 8245–8. Strikes Abstract, Vol. I., p. 53. (5) Group C., Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 884. (6) Group C., Minutes, Vol. I., Miss James, 8515.

[§ 773.] "indoor hands." A desire for the extension of labour bureaux is expressed by the Ropemakers' Union, which also wishes that "municipal workshops be "opened."(1) Very little information has been received as to the attitude of women workers towards systems of co-operative production, industrial partnership, or profit-sharing. The Shirt and Collar Makers' Society and the Dressmakers', Milliners', and Mantle-makers' Society mention the practice of bonuses in a few establishments.(1) In several cases disputes have been settled by arbitration or mediation. The written evidence of the Laundresses' Union recommended arbitration or conciliation boards for the arrangement of disputes, and the rules of some of the women's societies require that an endeavour shall be made to settle all differences by this means before resorting to a strike.(2) [§ 773.]

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

APPENDIX IV.

ECONOMIC OPERATION OF THE ROYALTY SYSTEM.

(EXTRACTED, with alterations in the paragraphing, from the Final Report of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the subject of Mining Royalties. Report issued in 1893).

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[§ 774.] Economic operation of the royalty system.

774. The "economic operation" of the royalty system upon the mining industries of this country remains to be considered. By the royalty system in this country is meant the ownership of minerals by persons, who, as a rule, do not work the minerals themselves, but lease the right of mining to other parties in consideration of a royalty or agreed sum payable in respect of the quantity of minerals worked, as distinguished from the State ownership of minerals or the State control of the right of mining. It is true that the Crown in England owns all gold mines, and possesses in the Forest of Dean and elsewhere certain mining rights, but these rights affect such a small quantity of mineral that for our present purpose they may be neglected. As coal is the most important mineral raised in England, the subject will be considered with special reference to that commodity. The principles that apply to it are equally applicable to ironstone and iron ores. Any peculiarities specially affecting the last-mentioned products will be dealt with separately. For the purpose of the discussion, it will be assumed that such wayleave charges and similar payments as do not form part of the cost of the carriage of the mineral form part of the royalty.

The nature of a royalty.

775. A mineral lease may be regarded as conferring a right (limited amongst other things in point of time) to work and carry away the minerals specified, subject to certain payments that partake of the nature of a rent. But, as Lord Cairns has pointed out, in a lease of mines, "the contract is not in reality a lease at all in "the sense in which we speak of an agricultural lease. "There is no fruit, that is to say, there is no increase, "there is no sowing and reaping in the ordinary sense "of the term, and there are no periodical harvests. "What we call a mineral lease is really, when properly "considered, a sale out and out of a portion of the land." These words show the fundamental difference (as noticed in paragraph 63 of the Final Report) between the royalty paid for coal and the rent paid for a farm, inasmuch as the working of coal removes the substance itself, whilst the cultivation of a farm leaves, or is supposed to leave, the soil undeteriorated.(2)

[§ 776.] What determines the amount of varying royalties.

776. In practice the actual royalty is settled by an agreement between the parties, and it often happens that the royalty paid by one mine differs from that paid by another, though the coal raised may sell at the same price in the open market. This variation in royalties (save in so far as it may be due to the condition of the coal trade at the respective dates of letting) is due to, and tends to correspond with, the difference in the advantages and disadvantages of one mine as compared with another. Mr. Forster Brown says, "Mines are, in the nature of things, variable; you "cannot take even two mines as being alike, and "royalties help to equalise the circumstances, whether "the circumstances arise from one cause or from "another. It may be that they arise from geogra-"phical position, or from the different nature of the "coal, or from their lying differently, or from being "more faulty or less faulty, and so on. Royalties "operate in their practical incidence to equalise these "variable conditions."(3) But, as Sir Lowthian Bell(4) points out, "a complete equalisation of position becomes "a very complex question," and the bargain entered into between the lessor and the lessee may place the lessee in a more or less favourable position as regards his competitors. It is important therefore to draw a distinction between the royalty which a mine can fairly bear and the royalty which a lessee may agree to pay. When the price of coal is high, competition between lessees may result in royalties that prove, after coal falls in price, to be higher than the mines leased under those conditions can fairly bear, and, on the other hand, when the price of coal is low, lessees may obtain terms that result in proprietors receiving, when coal rises in price, royalties lower than the mines leased can fairly bear.(5) Similar results may follow from unforeseen changes in the physical or other conditions affecting the working of a mine. In some cases a proprietor works his own minerals. He does not actually pay a royalty, but in practice a royalty is charged against the mine in the accounts, equal to a royalty paid in the same neighbourhood for similarly situated mines. In other cases a lessee may

( ) Group C., Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 885, 888.
(2) Broomhead, 1841, Sorley, 18,423.

(1) Answers to Schedules of Questions, pp. 884-5. (2) Group C., Answers to Schedules of Questions, p. 886.
(3) Forster Brown, 14,128. (4) Bell, 1044. (5) A. Barnes, 2193.

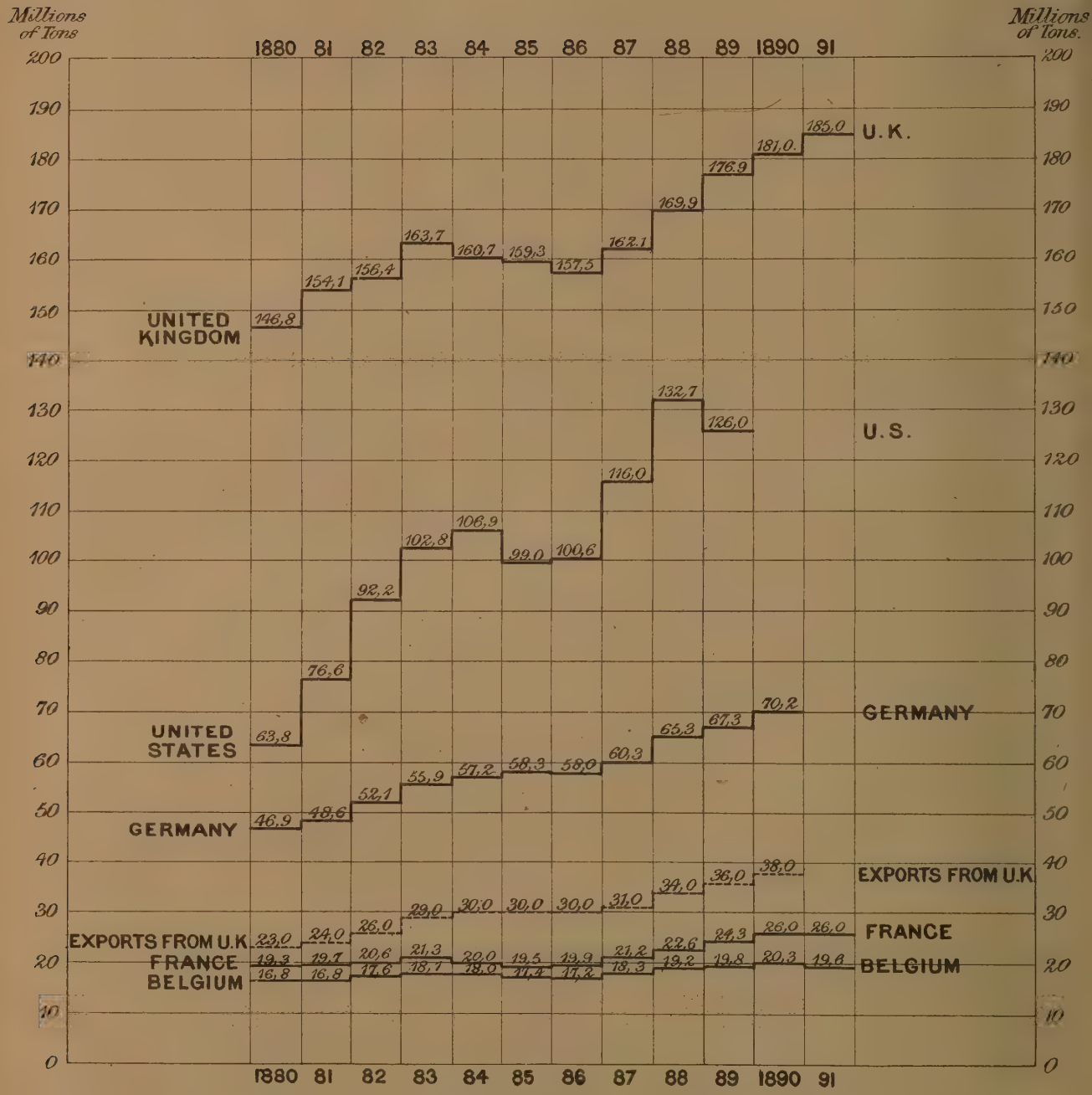
DIAGRAM.

SHOWING IN MILLION OF TONS THE PRODUCTION OF COAL IN THE PRINCIPAL COAL PRODUCING COUNTRIES OF EUROPE FROM 1880 TO 1890.

(THE FIGURES ARE TAKEN FROM THE STATISTICAL ABSTRACTS.)

(See para 777)

(00,000 omitted.)



Judd & Co Ltd, Lith. 63, Carter Lane, Doctors' Commons. (5444. 9/12/93)

[§ 776.] have obtained a long lease at a very low royalty.* Here a portion only of the royalty is paid to the proprietor; the lessee taking the remainder either in the form of rent, if he sublets, or, if he works the mine himself, as an addition to the ordinary return on his capital.(1) The evidence of Sir Lowthian Bell on the relation of the royalties to the iron ore industry confirms the above principles.(2) In the earlier part of our report we have dealt with the effect of the royalty system upon the interests of lessees of minerals. We proceed to deal with its effect—first, upon the interests of the consumer, and, secondly, upon those of the miner, including under the term *miner* all the workers in and about a mine. We shall afterwards deal with the effect which royalties are supposed to exercise over the trade in coal with foreign countries, and with some suggestions we have received for the nationalisation of minerals.

The effect of royalties on the consumer.

777. The price of coal in the wholesale market is, like the price of other commodities, determined by the supply as compared with the demand. Sometimes coal is sold at the pit's mouth, sometimes free on board, sometimes delivered at a fixed place. In the two latter cases the cost of carriage and other charges have to be added to the price at the pit's mouth. The local market, although it tends to follow the price at the pit's mouth, is subject to special variations, owing to the difficulties of delivery in unfavourable weather, and the circumstances and conditions of the particular market. The table put in by Mr. Daglish [Second Report, App. 22, p. 395, *Diagram of selling prices of coal*] illustrates the variations in the selling price of coal at the pit's mouth and in the London market, where it is largely affected by the cost of carriage. The royalty system cannot injuriously affect consumers unless it tends to restrict the supply of coal offered in the market and thus to raise its price. The figures relating to the production of coal for the last 40 years are as follows:—

Periods of Five Years.	Average Yearly production in Tons.
1855–9	66,696,328
1860–4	84,879,267
1865–9	102,970,065
1870–4	120,673,039
1875–9	133,287,745

Since 1880 the yearly production has been as follows:—

Year.	Tons.
1880	146,818,622
1881	154,184,300
1882	156,499,977
1883	163,737,327
1884	160,757,779
1885	159,351,418
1886	157,518,482
1887	162,119,812
1888	169,935,219
1889	176,916,724
1890	181,614,288
1891	185,479,126

These figures tend to support the opinions quoted in paragraph 53 (of the Final Report) to the effect that, although proprietors of minerals have the power to prevent them from being worked by refusing to let them, or by demanding excessive royalties, and to cause mines to be closed by declining to reduce royalties where leases are held on unremunerative terms, the royalty system has not checked the production of coal in the United Kingdom.

* The cases to which we particularly refer are in Monmouthshire, where an extensive mineral property was let many years ago for a long term of years at a very low rent, and has since been sub-let by the original lessees. A complaint was made to us by the persons who are now working a portion of this coalfield that the royalties they are paying are too high, and we ascertained that the lease of the colliery in question was held from a company which obtained their lease from the original lessees, so that there are two intermediaries receiving a rent between the proprietor and the actual worker of the coal. The case is very similar to the transactions which occur between a *concessionnaire* of mineral rights in Spain and the actual worker of the minerals, as described in the evidence of Mr. Broomhead. (J. Barnes, 5259. Broomhead, 1896.)

(1) Sorley, 18,404. (2) Bell, 1044.

[§ 777.] It will not be inappropriate if in this place we compare the production of coal in the United Kingdom with that in other countries.

The production in France, Belgium, and Germany since 1880 has been as follows:—

Year.	France.	Belgium.	Germany.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1880	19,361,564	16,886,698	46,973,600
1881	19,765,983	16,873,951	48,688,161
1882	20,603,704	17,590,989	52,118,595
1883	21,333,884	18,177,754	55,943,004
1884	20,023,514	18,051,499	57,233,875
1885	19,510,530	17,437,603	58,320,398
1886	19,909,894	17,285,543	58,056,598
1887	21,257,589	18,378,624	60,333,984
1888	22,602,894	19,218,481	65,386,120
1889	24,303,509	19,869,980	67,342,171
1890	26,083,118	20,365,960	70,237,808
1891	26,024,893	19,675,644	73,715,653

These figures, as well as the figures for some other countries, may be given in the form of the diagram which is appended. The above figures show that the production of coal has increased since 1880 by 6,838,436 tons in France, 2,978,302 tons in Belgium, 23,264,200 tons in Germany, and 38,660,504 tons in the United Kingdom. The increase in the 10 years in the United Kingdom is greater than the total production in France or in Belgium, and equals one-half the total production in Germany. Some evidence has been given tending to show that private ownership may cause barriers of coal of an unnecessary extent to be left between adjacent mines, but similar difficulties arise under the system of State ownership or control that prevails on the continent.(1) In some exceptional cases legal difficulties connected with the system of land settlement and the rights of copyholders and proprietors of the surface may have operated to restrict the working of minerals, or led to their uneconomical working; these difficulties have been fully discussed in the previous portion of our Report, and suggestions made with the object of removing them. They are, however, not alleged to have seriously restricted the supply of coal.(2) The opinion has been expressed by some witnesses (3) that if royalties were reduced or abolished the consumer would be benefited. It has been argued that if a lessee could obtain a reduced royalty he could afford to sell his coal at a reduced price, wages remaining the same. But we have to regard not so much what a lessee can do, as what he will do, or is accustomed to do. In ordinary times a lessee who enjoys a special advantage, owing to the lowness of his royalty, will not be disposed to sell his coal cheaper or to pay higher wages than his less fortunate competitors; in depressed times, however, a lessee, who may have the advantage of a low royalty, may reduce his price with the object of driving competitors out of the market, and in such a case the consumer might be benefited by a fall in price.(4) That the advantage arising from a low royalty, or the absence of a royalty will not of necessity go to the consumer (so long as the relation between the supply of and the demand for coal remains the same), is supported by the evidence we have received that those proprietors who work their own coal sell at similar prices to those received by lessees who work coal similar in quality, and who pay a royalty; inasmuch as the proprietor desires to earn the same return for his capital as his competitor in the trade, and at the same time to realise the marketable value of his royalty. Professor W. S. Sorley, who has made the economic aspects of royalties a special study, gave valuable evidence as to the effect of royalties on price. Pointing out that the price realised must be sufficient to repay the expenses of production at the "worst" mines that are worked, as well as the royalties at such mines, he argued that these royalties (called the minimum royalties)* affect price; but that as regards mines more advantageously situated, and consequently yielding higher royalties, the difference between such higher royalties and the minimum royalties is "a payment for the special advantages" of the mine, and, therefore, does

* By a "minimum royalty" is meant the royalty paid by the "worst mine" of a group of mines competing with one another; the "worst mine" being that which possesses the fewest advantages, and, therefore, it must be assumed, is let at a royalty lower than that paid by any other mine competing with it. *See* Sorley, 18,331, and "Mining Royalties," by W. S. Sorley, London, 1889.

(1) Smillie, 6020. (2) Paragraphs, 92 and 101. (3) Wood, 1014–6. (4) Forster Brown, 13,987.

[§ 777.] not enter into price.(1) This view of the relation of royalties to prices is generally accepted by economists, and was admitted by several witnesses representing different interests. It would follow that if existing royalties were reduced by the amount of the minimum royalties, prices, owing to the competition of lessees, would tend to fall by the amount of the reduction.* But in the opinion of those who are intimately acquainted with variations of prices in the coal industry and their causes, such competition would occur only in a falling market; in this case the consumer would get the advantage of the reduction. On the other hand, in a rising market, or in good times, the demand might be sufficient to carry off all the supply without any reduction in price, and then the advantage would go to the lessee.(2) In the above paragraphs we have considered the effect of a reduction of royalties as between the lessee and the consumer apart from the miner. We now proceed to consider the effect of any reduction upon the miner.

The effect of royalties on the miner. (a.) Introductory.

778 (*a*). The workers employed in and about a mine fall into two classes: (1) those whose wages are regulated by the quantity of the work done; and (2) those who are paid by the day. The rate of wages tends to vary with the price of coal. As a rule collieries in each district practically adopt the rates of wages prevailing at the collieries in the district on a given day as the rates to be paid when coal is sold at a given price. These rates are known as the "Standard" rates, and this price as the "Standard" price. The principle of the Standard rate permits the recognition of local customs and local variations; alterations in wages are then arranged from time to time by a percentage addition to or subtraction from the Standard rate. The method in which alterations in wages are brought about varies:—

(1.) In those districts that possess a sliding scale the amount of variation that is to take place, as coal rises or falls in price, is fixed beforehand. At fixed intervals the average price of coal is ascertained, and this price regulates wages for the ensuing interval.

(2.) In most other districts, a rise or fall in wages is settled by negotiation between the coalowners' associations and the miners' associations.

(3.) In districts where the miners are not organised into unions, and where no "Standard" rates prevail, variations in wages are due either to individual negotiation, or to the action of the employers, or to the action of the men acting in a body for the sole purpose of obtaining a rise or resisting a fall.

We have received very valuable statistics which are summarised in Appendix VI. (to the Final Report), upon the interesting question how much of the price realised for a ton of coal goes to the miner. These statistics and the evidence show that when the price of coal rises wages are generally advanced, and that in England and Wales on the average the total cost of labour varies from 50 to 60 per cent. of the selling price of coal at the pit's mouth. We have not received the statistics which enable us to give the proportion for Scotland.(3)

(b.) The effect of a reduction or abolition of royalties on wages.

(*b.*) The representatives of the miners who have given evidence, agree in thinking that a reduction in royalties would tend to raise wages. This opinion has been encouraged by some lessees who, when asked to concede a rise in wages, or to maintain existing wages, have refused to do so on the ground that the royalties they had to pay prevented them from granting the request. On the general question of the relation of royalties to wages, it would be more correct to say that wages govern royalties than that royalties govern wages, for an intending lessee in negotiating for a lease of minerals, must consider the probable cost of winning and working such minerals, as well as every other material circumstance affecting his enterprise; and inasmuch as the principal outlay in the winning and working of minerals is that of the wages to be paid to the miners, it naturally follows that the wages greatly influence the amount of royalty that the lessee can afford to pay upon the mineral worked. If royalties were adjusted at frequent intervals, while prices obtainable for the mineral remained the same, royalties would necessarily be reduced if wages were increased. There would, however, be a limit to such rise of wages, inasmuch as when the rise reached that point at which it absorbed the whole royalty that the poorest mines could afford to pay, no further rise could take place without diminishing the profits of the lessee, or increasing his losses; any further rise of wages would tend to close the poorer mines and throw the miners employed at such mines out of employment. For the same reason, if prices fell, the then existing rate of wages could only be maintained by a reduction of the royalty. No evidence has, however, been given to show that any reduction of royalties has taken place in consideration of the maintenance of, or a rise in, the rate of wages; the reductions conceded by proprietors are generally in respect of a fall in prices, the exhaustion of the better seams, or other difficulties in carrying on the mines.(1) We think it desirable, having regard to the arguments frequently brought forward by working miners, to enter at some length into the probable effect upon their interests of a reduction of royalties, or their total abolition. But it must be borne in mind that we shall have to deal principally with theoretical cases, for no practical scheme has been placed before us for the acquisition of the property in the minerals by the State so as to enable any general reduction or abolition of royalties to be carried into effect. This will be seen further on in those paragraphs of our Report in which we deal with the suggestions we received for the nationalisation of minerals.(2) In discussing this question it is desirable to distinguish between— [§ 778 (*b*).]

1. An adjustment of royalties by the substitution of a sliding scale for a fixed royalty.

2. A reduction of royalties in a particular mine or a particular district.

3. A general and equal reduction of royalties all round.

4. The abolition of royalties.

(i.) An adjustment of royalties.

(i.) During recent years the Ecclesiastical Commissioners and several proprietors in the North of England and elsewhere have adopted the principle of royalties varying according to an agreed scale as explained in the note to paragraph 18. The substitution of a sliding scale for a fixed royalty is to be regarded in these cases as an adjustment of the royalty to the varying price of coal, rather than as any actual reduction—the lessor expecting to recoup himself for the low royalties payable when prices are low by the increased royalties payable when prices are high. If it be assumed, as Mr. A. Barnes suggests, that the fixed royalty is but "the average of a sliding scale," it does not follow that it is immaterial to the miner which system is adopted.(3) Evidence has been given to the effect that the substitution of a sliding scale for the fixed royalty has in times of depression enabled a colliery to be kept going that would otherwise have been closed, and the miners have thus benefited by the lessees being enabled to afford them continuous employment; this has already been referred to in paragraph 59 *et seq.* (*See* Final Report.)

(ii.) A partial reduction of royalties.

(ii.) It has already been stated in paragraph 54 (*see* Final Report) that royalties have been reduced by individual lessors, either because of the low price of coal, or on account of the depreciation in the value of the mine. No evidence has been given to show that the benefit of the reduction was obtained by the miners in the shape of increased wages. The object of the reduction was to enable the lessee to continue working the colliery. Mr. Lamb gave an instance of a reduction of 50 per cent., and said "the lessee got the benefit of the reduction in our case, "because we were absolutely losing very largely before "we got the reduction, and the year that we got the "reduction. (4) The reduction in this instance and in "other instances prevented a loss being sustained that "year." Asked, "Do you think it affected wages?" he replied, "No, I do not think it affected wages." This instance is an example of a reduction due to a fall in the price of coal; the same result would follow in cases where a reduction occurs owing to the depreciation in the value of a mine. In both the benefit to the miner takes the form of continuation of employment, and possibly the avoidance of a reduction in wages.(5) Where the royalty that the lessee contracted to pay is greater than the royalty the mine will bear, four courses are open to the lessee:—To work at a loss; to seek a reduction in wages; to seek a reduction in royalties; or to suspend operations. When the lessee adopts the first course, it is in expectation of a rise in prices, or an improvement in the condition of the mine. As a rule, he endeavours to obtain relief by a reduction in wages,

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* How far the miner might be able to intercept any portion of the reduction before it reaches the consumer is discussed in paragraph 5. (*b.*) (iii.)

(1) Sorley, 18,331-341. "Mining Royalties" by W. S. Sorley, London, 1889. (2) Daglish, 9668-72. Raymond, 14,401. W. Small, 7410-11. Hardie, 7137-8. Sorley, 18,330. Hedley, 841. Hedley, 908. (3) Nicholson, 1292. Harrison, 2380. Kendall, 2573. Cowey, 8054. Morgan, 11,117-22. Daglish, 10,016-25. Forster Brown, 14,021-8.

(1) Cowey, 7991. J. Wilson, 8729. Woods, 8522. Morgan, 10,856. (2) Paragraph, 7. (3) A. Barnes, 2189. (4) Forster Brown, 14,016. Lamb, 285-8, 353. (5) Forster Brown, 14,017-20, 14,110.

[§ 778 (b.)] or a reduction in royalties, or in both. But, inasmuch as the contract between him and his miners may be terminated at comparatively short notice, whilst his contract with the lessor is for a longer period, the probability is that relief will first be sought by a reduction in wages. If relief cannot be obtained in either way, the only course open is to suspend operations. It was stated that in depressed times, the "colliery best "geographically situated rules the price for the rest." "We know very well," says Mr. E. Cowey, President of the Yorkshire Miners' Association, "that to-day the "colliery which is best situated geographically gains "the trade. We know that in our county there are "collieries which work every day, whilst others only "work three days a week."(1) Mr. T. Forster Brown expressed a similar view. "It is open to argument, "but my view about bad times is this: that in bad "times the selling value of coal comes down to the "price at which the best collieries can produce coal. "As long as they do not make a loss it is worth their "while to go on, and the price is regulated by their "cost or thereabouts."(2) "When times are bad with "an inferior colliery, the owner is in a position to say: "Well, I must have the royalties reduced, and I must "have the wages reduced, and I must do everything I "can to enable me to compete with my neighbour who "is working thick seams. Although he has got a "higher royalty, I cannot compete with him, because "my natural conditions are worse."(3) It is evident that Mr. Cowey and Mr. Forster Brown contemplated the case of collieries in which the royalties do not equalise the natural conditions, and they therefore suggested that in "bad times" the lessee who pays less than the royalty his mine can bear, will undersell his less favoured competitor, by giving up a part or the whole of the special advantage which his lower royalty confers. It must not be supposed that a lessee who enjoys a special advantage will, in ordinary times, permit the consumer to share the benefit of it by a reduction of prices, or the wage earner to enjoy it in the shape of increased wages.(4)

(iii.) *A general reduction of royalties.*

(iii.) We have (in paragraph 4), discussed, from the point of view of the consumer, the probable effects of a general reduction in royalties. It remains to consider how far any general reduction would affect the miner.* A general reduction of royalties might be effected by either a percentage reduction or an equal reduction. Assuming that previous to the reduction, royalties were so adjusted that all collieries competed on an equal footing, a percentage reduction would disturb the equality. For instance, a 10 per cent. reduction would, in collieries where the royalty is 10*d.* a ton, reduce the royalty by 1*d.*, but in collieries where the royalty is 5*d.* it would only bring about a reduction of ½*d.*, giving the former colliery an advantage of ½*d.* a ton. A general reduction of the same amount per ton (*e.g.*, 1*d.*, 2*d.*, &c.) would leave the equilibrium undisturbed. The immediate effect of such a reduction would, of course, be to benefit the lessee, but the evidence shows that a difference of opinion exists as to whether, in the long run, the consumer or the miner would benefit.(5) On the one hand, it was suggested that the benefit would go to the consumer, owing to the competition of lessees, who would be in a position to sell their coal at a price lower than before by the amount of the reduction. On the other hand, several witnesses expressed the belief that the miners would share in the general reduction. Beyond all doubt, were prices to remain unaltered, a general reduction would increase the margin out of which wages and profits come, and the miners might endeavour to obtain a rise in wages. Prompt action on the part of the miners' organisations might possibly intercept the whole or part of the reduction before it reached the consumer. But if prices were to fall by the amount of the reduction, wages would not tend to rise.(6)

(iv.) *The abolition of royalties.*

(iv.) Professor W. R. Sorley, author of "Mining "Royalties, and their Effect on the Iron and Coal Trades," assuming the existence of a minimum royalty, summed up his view of the probable effect of a total abolition of royalties by saying:—(7)

"In brief, my view is this: that what I have called "the minimum royalty might be expected to go to "reduce price, and that the remainder of royalties "charged on all mines paying above the minimum "would go into the pockets of the lessees or em- [§ 778 (b.)]
"ployers." In reply to the question, "Would not the "lessee, who now pays a high royalty, be likely to "reduce the price of his produce by more than the "minimum royalty, when he had no longer to pay any "royalty at all?" he replied, "I think there are circumstances which might induce him to do that to "some slight extent. If trade were in complete equilibrium, so that there was no very great competition "between employers, but they went on producing in, "what we may call, an old-fashioned way, having their "old-established well-known and hereditary customers "perhaps, and supplying them and not interfering "with the business of their neighbours, then I think "what I have previously said would hold exactly, "that there would be a very great advantage to the "lessees of the richer mines, and no advantage to "the lessees of mines who paid the minimum "royalty—I mean of course among mines which "produce the same quality, or pretty nearly the same "quality of mineral. But then there is, of course, the "most active competition for business amongst the "producers, so that an employer might be in competition with another employer or lessee who was paying, "let us say, only the minimum royalty—the first lessee "paying a very high royalty. The first lessee or employer would therefore be able, if he liked, without "being a loser, to reduce the price at which he would "sell by more than the minimum royalty. If we take "the minimum royalty to be 2½*d.*—I am only using that "figure hypothetically—he can reduce the price, let us "say, by 2¾*d.*, or by 3*d.*, or by 3½*d.* Now, if the two "competing employers have been, before royalties were "abolished, working at about just the level of profitable production, it is clear that the person who is "relieved of 2½*d.* cannot afford to reduce his produce "by 3½*d.*, and it is also clear that the person who has "been relieved of 6*d.* or 9*d.* can afford to do that; so "that the person who has been paying a high royalty "may, if he likes, gain the advantage in any case of "competition with a person who has been paying a low "royalty." Mr. Daglish agreed with the above view, namely, that the consumer would be benefited by a reduction in price, equal to the amount of the minimum royalty, at least in depressed times, but in properous times he seemed to think that the whole of the benefit would be taken by the lessees.(1) Assuming the consumer to be benefited by the amount of the minimum royalty, the question arises who would take the remainder. The first point to note is that different districts would be unequally affected. Proprietors who work their own mines could not possibly derive any benefit. Collieries where royalties are low would derive a benefit amounting to a few pence per ton, whilst collieries with high royalties would be benefited to a much greater extent. Mr. Ralph Young (2) pointed out that "some years ago the Northumberland miners were in favour of the abolition of royalties," but "it was found some time after the agitation had gone "on that as the royalties in Northumberland were less "than the average royalty paid throughout the United "Kingdom, and especially by our competitors, that it "would not be an advantage to us as Northumbrians "to go in for abolition." Assuming that the whole of the royalty would go to the lessees, it is to be noted that the lessees of the mines which pay high royalties, and, therefore, where the greatest reduction would take place, would be in a position to drive their less fortunate competitors out of the market.(3) This point was urged very forcibly by Mr. T. Forster Brown.(4) "Supposing "they are abolished altogether, for example, the effect "would be to give a monopoly to the good collieries "both of output and labour, and that would kill the "collieries which had worked their best coals and had "to depend upon thin seams, and so on; and then in "bad times there would be no royalty owner to squeeze "... If there were no royalties the good colliery "would be in a far stronger position in competition "with the bad colliery than it is to-day, because the "lessee of the good colliery would first have got a "larger benefit from the abolition of the royalty, and "then, existing under much better conditions, he would "kill the inferior colliery .... If royalties were "abolished the cost would go that much lower in the "bad times, and therefore the inferior colliery owner "would lose so much more than he does now, and "he would not be able to live, because the lessees of "the good colliery would have, in addition to their

* No general reduction could take place higher in amount than the minimum royalties.

(1) Cowey, 8016. (2) Forster Brown, 13,987. (3) Forster Brown, 13,985. (4) Vickerman, 7873-4. (5) Young, 8906: (6) Hedley, 839-52. Lamb, 289-93. Fenwick 8766, 8800. Cowey, 8018. Woods, 8510. (7) Sorley, 18,351.

(1) Daglish, 9667-70. (2) Young, 8900. (3) Sorley, 18,350. (4) Forster Brown, 13,985-8.

[§ 778 (b.)] "present position, the advantage of the extra royalty "that had been abolished." In short, the whole coal industry would be dislocated by the stoppage of the mines least favourably situated, and the consequent loss of employment on the part of the workers in such mines. But some compensation would result from the employment of additional workers in the mines that obtained the trade. In so far as the lessees of the poorer mines were driven out of the trade, it would be through the lessees of the better mines offering coal at a price that would prevent competition; to the extent of this fall the consumer would derive an advantage, but this advantage would probably be only temporary as it would probably be withdrawn as soon as the lessees of the better mines obtained control of the market. If the miners could obtain a share in the benefit of the reduction the advantage to them would be unequal, varying from district to district, and from colliery to colliery; and in so far as obtained it would diminish the benefit to the consumer.

The effect of royalties upon foreign competition.

779. An impression appears to prevail very widely amongst the miners and other workmen that the royalty system tends to increase the difficulties of the coalowners of this country in competing with foreign producers.(1) The prevalent opinion evidently is that in foreign countries no royalties exist, or that nothing equivalent to a royalty is paid, or that much lower royalties prevail on the Continent than in Great Britain, and that this gives the foreign producer a special advantage. It also appears that the miners believe that the higher royalties in the United Kingdom enhance the price of coal, and, therefore, place us at a disadvantage in the world's markets.(2) The first question to be considered is the amount of royalties levied in foreign countries as compared with the royalties payable in the United Kingdom. Very detailed information regarding royalties or State taxes levied abroad will be found in the 4th Report,(3) and a summary of such information is appended to this Report. We have, however, pointed out that it is not the total, nor even the average, royalty, but only the minimum royalty that enters into price. In so far, then, as foreign competition is a question of price between the coal producers in different countries, it follows that we have only to regard the minimum royalties in different countries. As royalties in the United Kingdom are special to mines, we must, in instituting any comparison between their effects and the effects of royalties and taxes abroad, confine our attention to such foreign taxes as are also special to mines. It is true that in some of the countries that are supposed to compete with us in the coal trade, *e.g.*, Germany, heavy imperial or local taxation is levied (in addition to the special mining taxes) on coal mines, but such taxation is common to all industries. Inasmuch as the effects of local and other forms of taxation in England do not come within the terms of our reference, we do not think it necessary or desirable to examine into the effects of taxes other than special mining taxes in foreign countries. In France the proportional tax of 5 per cent. is levied on the "net produce." This "net produce" is practically the value of the coal at the pit's mouth after the expenses of production have been deducted. When there is no "net produce," no proportional tax is levied. The same principle may be laid down as regards Belgium, excepting as regards some of the special communal taxes. In Prussia the special mining tax is 2 per cent. on the value of the coal sold, the value being calculated at a minimum selling price for the year agreed on by the concessionaires and the Government. It is evident that the amount payable per ton will vary with the minimum price of coal so agreed on. Mr. Mulvany stated that the 2 per cent. tax amounted in 1890, in a leading colliery in Westphalia, to 0·1508, or about 1¾*d.* per ton.*(4) Taking the year 1890, as to which we have the fullest statistics, it would appear that the "minimum royalties"† in the United Kingdom, France, Belgium, and Germany, were as follows:— [§ 779.]

In the United Kingdom, 2½*d.* in Northumberland and Durham; 4*d.* in West Scotland; 3*d.* in East Scotland; 4*d.* in South Wales and about the same in Yorkshire; in Westphalia,* the chief coal producing districts of Prussia, 1¾*d.*; in Belgium‡ less than 1½*d.*, and in France 0. Hence it appears that the minimum royalty in the United Kingdom is substantial in amount; in Germany it varies with the price of coal, but is lower than in this country; in Belgium it is very low, and in France it is practically nothing.(5) There are many collieries both at home and abroad which return a greater profit than the minimum royalty or the minimum charge imposed by the State. This greater profit is received in this country by the proprietor; abroad it is received by the owner of the concession. In neither case does this advantage affect the price of the coal, and no legislation can prevent its existence whoever may be the recipient. We have already referred to the relative production of coal in the United Kingdom as compared with the production in chief continental countries. Notwithstanding the increase of output in France, Belgium, and especially in Germany, the export trade from these countries is but of slow growth, whilst the exports from England have increased at a rapid rate, as will be seen from the following statistics.

Table showing exports of coal from England, France, Belgium, and Germany:—

—	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
England (*b*) - -	23,628,000	24,819,000	26,533,000	29,171,000	29,958,000	30,448,000	29,983,000	31,323,000	34,089,000	36,693,000	38,226,000
France (*a*) (*c*) - -	603,000	601,000	457,000	510,000	500,000	506,000	610,000	585,000	629,000	943,000	941,000
Belgium (*a*) (*d*) - -	4,525,000	4,477,000	4,292,000	4,441,000	4,619,000	4,338,000	4,273,000	4,591,000	4,467,000	4,597,000	4,851,000
Germany (*a*) (*d*) - -	7,236,450	7,458,250	7,631,600	8,705,000	8,816,934	8,955,629	8,655,240	8,781,377	9,460,257	8,847,202	9,145,187

(*a*) Ton of 2,204 pounds.
(*b*) The figures for England are taken from the Government returns relating to trade and navigation, and include "bunker coal." In Table 13 of Appendix VII. will be found particulars for each year supplied by the Board of Trade. These figures exclude coal shipped for steamers engaged in foreign trade.
(*c*) Taken from Statistique de l'Industrie Minerale, 1891.
(*d*) Taken from the Statistical Abstract for the principal and other foreign countries.

These figures may also be thrown into the form of the diagram which is appended. Not only is our total export trade increasing, but it is increasing with France and Belgium, and (notwithstanding the increase in German production) with Germany as well. The shipments of coal in tons to these countries from the United Kingdom for the years 1880 to 1891 have been as follows:—

—	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
France - -	3,715,762	3,603,514	4,096,953	4,481,426	4,367,333	4,215,555	4,081,343	4,218,885	4,193,185	4,036,920	5,098,250	5,258,346
Belgium - -	280,015	245,310	256,152	282,312	293,549	305,343	288,084	269,794	241,195	276,920	593,281	607,779
Germany - -	2,241,064	2,142,878	2,320,121	2,424,573	2,485,121	2,635,338	2,557,918	2,786,972	3,066,557	3,474,556	3,350,713	4,171,993

(1) Fenwick, 8744. Aspinwall, 8719. (2) Matkin, 9168-77. Haslam, 164. Evans, 10,739. Young, 8932. (3) Appendix, VIII. (4) Hubert, 18,792, 18,857, 18,949, 18,958. Fourth Report, p. 153. Fourth Report, p. 157. (5) *See* Summary of German Mining Law, Appendix VIII. Fourth Report, p. 153. First Report, Appendix, p. 220.

* The average price of coal in Westphalia was, in 1890, 11*s.* 6*d.* per ton. *See* Fourth Report, p. 161.

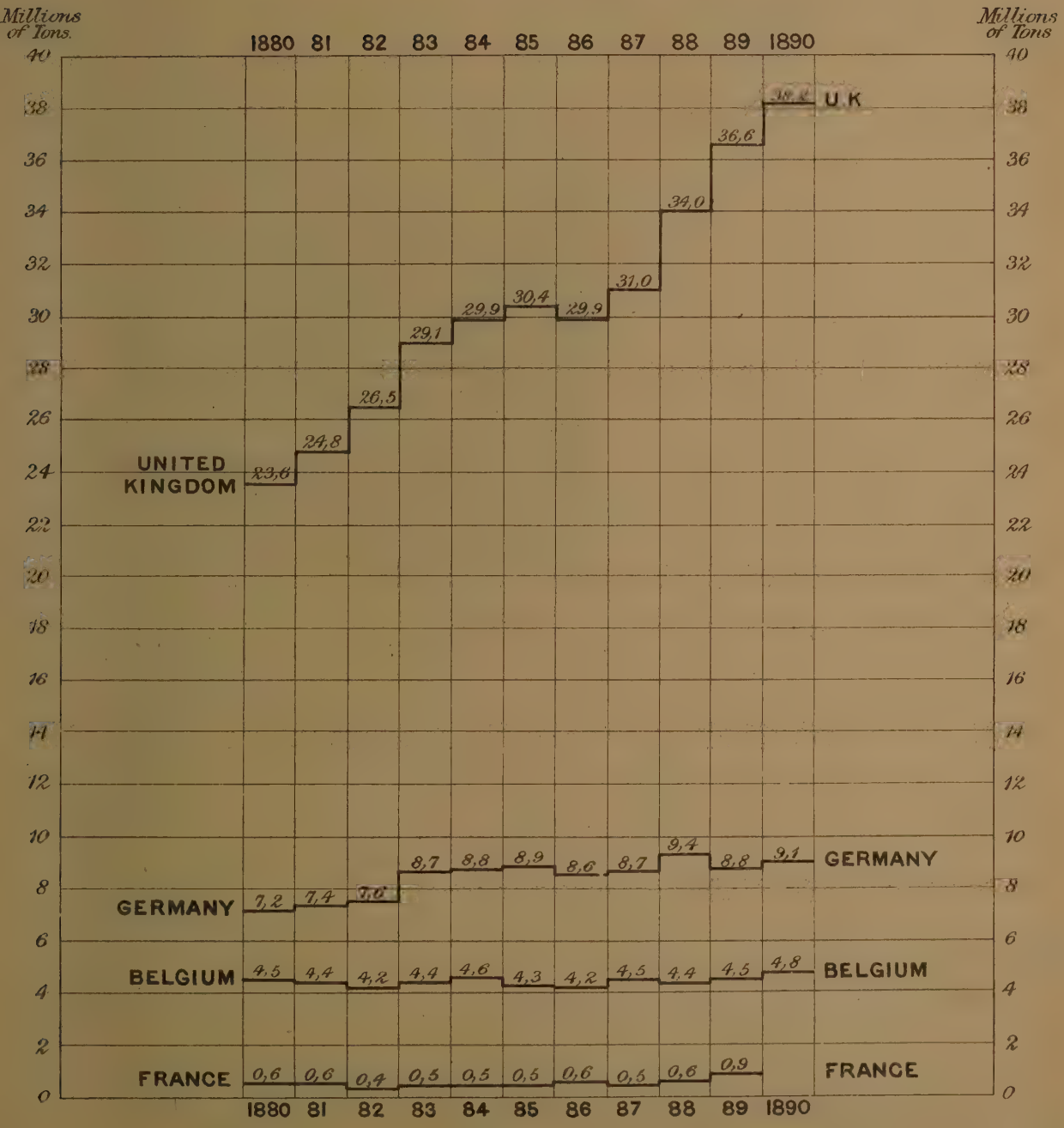
† Minimum royalties here spoken of must be carefully distinguished from the minimum fixed rents usually reserved in leases. *See ante* para. 16. Final Report.

‡ The fixed tax payable in France and Belgium is so small that it may be neglected. But it would seem that some of the special local mining taxes levied in Belgium are payable though no profit be earned. We have not been able to get evidence as to the amount of such taxes per ton, but it may be assumed that they are very low, *i.e.*, less than 1*d.* per ton. *See Hubert*, 18,795-18,800.

DIAGRAM.

SHOWING IN MILLION OF TONS THE EXPORT OF COAL FROM ENGLAND.
GERMANY, BELGIUM AND FRANCE, DURING THE YEARS 1880 TO 1890.
(See Table para 779)

(00,000 omitted)



Judd & Co Ltd; Lith. 63, Carter Lane, Doctors' Commons. (5444. 9/12/93.)

[§ 779.] The following table gives the exports of coal from the United Kingdom to other countries in 1880, 1890, and 1891 respectively:—

Countries.	1880.	1890.	1891.
Russia	1,504,000	1,493,000	1,502,000
Sweden and Norway	1,317,000	2,315,000	2,439,000
Denmark	864,000	1,352,000	1,437,000
Holland	498,000	527,000	776,000
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	339,000	627,000	624,000
Spain and Canaries	900,000	1,904,000	1,982,000
Italy	1,535,000	3,912,000	3,551,000
Turkey	289,000	431,000	393,000
Egypt	652,000	1,539,000	1,578,000
Brazil	359,000	660,000	798,000
Gibraltar	309,000	496,000	406,000
Malta	388,000	575,000	420,000
British East Indies	1,020,000	1,228,000	1,233,000
Other countries	2,508,000	4,043,000	3,905,000
Coal shipped for steamers in foreign trade.	4,926,000	8,096,000	8,536,000

NOTE.—The above particulars include the exports of cinders, coke, and patent fuel.

These figures show that (although the coal industry in this country is under a disadvantage in so far as the minimum royalty is higher in the United Kingdom than similar payments on the Continent) Mr. Forster Brown was fully justified in saying that "our coal is able to "compete successfully in practically all markets." As he points out, the figures show "an enormous advance "in all the shipments to foreign countries, except, "perhaps, in some cases where there are either excep- "tional taxes, exceptional charges introduced, or other "special reasons. Russia seems to be about the only "country to which the export has not largely increased. "To Sweden and Norway the export has increased "very largely. That is the case with Denmark and "Germany even; although the Germans have developed "their own coalfields, yet the export to Germany has "increased. The export to France has very largely "increased."(1) We have already pointed out that as far as royalties are concerned it is only the minimum royalty that tends under certain circumstances to affect prices, and therefore foreign competition. But there are other factors that have a most important effect. Amongst these, are the quality of the coal, the difficulties of mining, the means of communication between the mines and the coast, and the rate of freight. Mr. Forster Brown points out that freight is an exceptionally important element, and Mr. Daglish states that some of the freights paid during the three years ending with 1890 to certain ports to which we exported coal varied greatly.(2) To take some important ports to which we export coal, the highest and lowest freights paid from the Tyne during the three years ending June 1890, and the highest and lowest from South Wales during the 3½ years ending June 1890, were as follows:—

	From Tyne.		From South Wales.	
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Havre	4 6	to 5 6	4 3	to 7 0
Antwerp	6 3	„ 9 0	—	
Hamburg	4 6	„ 5 6	4 6	to 8 0
Genoa	6 0	„ 10 3	8 9	„ 12 0

These figures show that freights are a much more important consideration in foreign competition, at least where the competition is between British coal and foreign coal not sea-borne, than the royalty in this country. Where the competition is between British coal and foreign sea-borne coal, variations in foreign freights may bring in a disturbing or compensating element.

Nationalisation of minerals.

780. It may be convenient to allude in this place to the feeling which has been expressed by some of the representatives of miners, especially from Scotland, in favour of what is called the Nationalisation of Minerals. This term is taken by those who use it to mean the acquisition by the State of the whole of the minerals of the country, whether worked at the present time or not, and the holding of them for the benefit of the community. Several of the witnesses supported their opinion in favour of the nationalisation of minerals by the expression of a conviction that if the minerals were made national property, and thus brought directly under the control and management of the State, the safety, comfort, and well-being of the miners would be more carefully attended to than in present circumstances; and a portion of the proceeds of the mines might be applied to their benefit in shape of provision for disabled miners and their families and superannuation allowances.(1) It was further urged that mines could be worked more economically than at present; the great number of shafts necessary, owing to the division of properties, would not be required, while the State in leasing out minerals (if it did not work them itself) could impose conditions that would do away with the difficulties that arise from wayleaves, boundaries, and drainage(2). There was no suggestion, except indirectly, and in a very few instances, that the State should allow the minerals to be worked without any payment; on the contrary, it was considered by some that it would be the duty of the State to secure for the public the highest royalty it could obtain, while others thought a "fair value" should be fixed; it was suggested that if the State owned and worked the minerals the State could fix the price of coal in the same way as it fixes the price of a postage stamp, the price to be so fixed as to yield a small profit after paying all expenses; and it was urged that in that case the consumer would be benefited by a reduction in the price of coal, and a stimulus given to the industries of the country; the cost of production, in so far as it depends on the cost of coal, being materially reduced. Mr. Keir Hardie, M.P., however, pointed out that the State could only reduce the price of coal by the amount of the lowest royalty, or at the outside by the amount of such royalty plus the profit derived from mines paying the lowest royalty; to reduce the price lower would tend to close the worst mines, as they would not then yield the cost of production. It was assumed that the State would charge royalties upon a sliding scale so that the conflict believed at present to exist between wages and royalty would cease, and that they would mutually adjust themselves automatically to the circumstances of the market.(3) On the question of the terms and conditions on which minerals should be acquired by the State, a wide divergence of opinion appeared. A few of the witnesses stated that, in the opinion of those whom they represented, the State should take the minerals from their present proprietors without any compensation, on the ground that minerals originally belonged to the Crown, that private property in minerals was therefore an injustice which ought to be remedied, and that the benefit which private proprietors and their predecessors had already enjoyed at the expense of the public should be set against any claim which they might have for compensation. The Glasgow Trades Council passed the following resolution, which was brought to our notice:—"That this Council instruct the secretary to "state to the Commission that they are in favour of "mining royalties becoming national property, without "compensation being given." Mr. Keir Hardie, M.P., said he would allow no compensation "on the general "ground that no one has created minerals, that they "do not belong to any person in particular, but to the "people as a whole." He would, however, make an exception "where widows and children were dependent on royalties for their incomes."(4) When it was pointed out to him that in those colonies where the State had taken the minerals respect was paid to rights already acquired, he replied, "I think they took their traditions "from this country when this country was at its worst, "and perpetuated them there. . . . . The law that "recognised private ownership was made by the men "who were doing the wrong, and they made the law "to suit themselves," and he objected to protection being given to persons who had lent money on the security of the mineral rights, saying "If they were "foolish enough to advance their money on any such "security they would have to take the consequences."(5) But the majority of the witnesses recognised the right of the present proprietors to compensation. Those who denied that right in the abstract expressed the opinion that in cases of individual hardship some consideration should be shown, and especially to those who, in reliance on the existing law, had bought minerals within a comparatively recent time, and it was the general opinion that when either a proprietor or a lessee had sunk money in developing minerals he should be compensated for that outlay.(6) To bring the scheme into full operation within any reasonable period it was thought by some witnesses that it would be necessary

[§ 780.]

(1) Forster Brown, 14,109. (2) Forster Brown, 14,110-2. Daglish, 9926.

(1) Fludyer, 4403. Small, 7099. J. Wilson, M.P., 8851. Morgan, 10,879. Vivian, 16,518. Keir Hardie, 7896. (2) J. Wilson, 6170. Smillie, 5989-97. (3) Vivian, 16,523. Keir Hardie, 7385. Woods, 8524. J. Wilson, 6154. Smillie, 6076. Woods, 8585. Morgan, 10,985. Keir Hardie, 7385. Keir Hardie, 7409-11. R. Brown, 5815. (4) Keir Hardie, 7514 *et seq.* Patterson, 9082-8. Matkin, 9129, 9180. Morgan, 10,889. Vivian, 16,536-42. Hunter, 10,481-2, 10,497. (5) Keir Hardie, 7517, 7523, 7452. (6) R. Brown, 5813. Small, 7050. Woods, 8571, Patterson, 9082-9. Matkin, 9185. Morgan, 11,026.

[§ 780.] for the State not only to own the minerals but to work them. This raised another claim for compensation, that of the coal-owner, or lessee, whose capital has been invested in the enterprise of winning and working the minerals; one witness estimated the amount of this compensation at 100,000,000*l.*() The suggestion of the nationalisation of minerals was not approved by other representatives of the miners. Mr. Fenwick, M.P., and Mr. Young (Northumberland) dissented; Mr. Cowey denied that in Yorkshire the suggestion was approved; Mr. Aspinwall (West Lancashire) also disapproved, though he favoured the taxation of minerals with the object of thus making them over to the community; Mr. Haslam (Derbyshire) also dissented, as did Mr. Chambers (Leicestershire). No suggestion in favour of the nationalisation of minerals was made by any of the Associations representing lessees, and those witnesses whom we examined on behalf of lessees, and who were questioned on the subject, expressed a decided preference for the present condition of the law of mineral property.(1) In these circumstances, and as the nationalisation of minerals is only a portion of the larger question of the nationalisation of land, we do not consider that it is necessary for us to discuss it further. [§ 780.]

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

APPENDIX V.

MEMORANDUM ON THE EVIDENCE RELATING TO EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY.

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INTRODUCTION.

781. The relation of employer and workman, as distinguished from the relation of master and servant, was quite unknown to the law until 1875, when the Employers and Workmen Act was passed. The change in phraseology was apparently due to the fact that many "servants" had acquired rights *de facto* that they did not possess *de jure*, and it was consequently difficult to determine whether they were "servants" or whether they were "independent contractors." It was laid down by Lord Justice Bramwell, in Yewens *v.* Noakes, 6, Q.B.D., at p. 532, that the term "servant" was applicable to every person subject to the command of his master as to the manner in which he shall do his work; but this definition was framed for the particular purpose of differentiating "servants" from "contractors," and was not intended as a statement of the degree of subjection implied in every contract of service. Though in every such contract there is implied the subjection of the servant to the command of his master as to the manner in which he shall do his work, in many contracts of service there is implied a great deal more. In some, the master can also dictate what class of work the servant is to do, in others, the mode of life he is to lead, the dress he is to wear, and so on.

782. Originally, no doubt, the subjection of servant to master during the period of his service was absolute. But there has been a constant tendency for servants to acquire greater rights than they originally possessed, and Lord Bramwell's judgment would seem to mark the highest point to which an employé's rights can extend, without raising him above the position of "servant" altogether.

783. Most of the persons whom the Act of 1875 was intended to benefit, were, so to speak, on the border line between servants and contractors. Some of them would fall within Lord Bramwell's definition, while others would fall outside it. For the purpose of that Act, therefore, it was necessary to introduce a fresh term, which should include both these classes. The Act was accordingly intituled, "An Act to enlarge the "powers of County Courts in respect of disputes "between"—not masters and servants, but,—"Employers and Workmen," and a workman was, for the purpose of the Act, defined as "any person, not being "a domestic or menial servant, who, being a labourer, "servant in husbandry, journeyman, artificer, handicraftsman, miner, or otherwise engaged in manual "labour . . . . . has entered "into or works under a contract with an employer ". . . . . and be a contract of service *or a* "*contract personally to execute any work or labour.*"

784. The concluding words were intended to cover such employés as could not be brought within the definition of "servant," as stated above. In another section of the Act, however, seamen and apprentices to the sea service are expressly excluded.

785. For the purposes of the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, the definition of "workman" here laid down is retained, but extended to include "railway servants," *i.e.*, such railway servants as cannot be described as "engaged in manual labour."

786. The introduction of the new term "workman" has not done very much to make the *status* of an employé more easily ascertainable, for the following reasons. First, that it is not a general term. It does not include *every* person who has entered into a contract of service, or a contract personally to execute any work or labour, but only persons belonging to certain trades who have done so. And to differentiate trade from trade, is often more difficult than to differentiate "servant" from "contractor." Secondly, that it is differently defined for the purposes of the different Acts. At present, no doubt, the difference relates principally to the position of railway servants, but it will be considerably accentuated if the Bill now before Parliament becomes law, which enacts—"In this Act the expres- "sion 'workman' includes every person who has "entered into or works under a contract of service "or apprenticeship with an employer in the United "Kingdom, or on board a British ship (*i.e.*, a vessel or "boat of every description), but shall not be deemed "to include members of a crew of a fishing vessel "where such members, though not part owners, are "joint adventurers with the owners." And in another section, "This Act shall not apply to servants in the "Naval or Military service of the Crown, but, subject "as aforesaid, shall apply to a workman in the em- "ployment of the Crown in like manner as if the "employer of the workman were a private person."

787. A further point worthy of notice is that, though many of the "workmen" to whom the Act of 1880 applies are not "servants" in the eye of the law, but "persons who have contracted personally to execute "any particular work or labour," it is held that such persons can take advantage of that Act only on the assumption that their contract is a contract of service. Thus, the doctrine of common employment—or, more accurately, the doctrine of common service—is held to apply, for the purposes of the Act, not only to masters and servants, but to employers and workmen as well.

788. Finally, it appears expedient to refer to a point made by Sir Godfrey Lushington in his memorandum on employers' liability, regarding the manner in which the Act of 1880 has modified the doctrine of common employment. The Act does not define the doctrine in question, and state that it is to be inapplicable in

(1) Dagger, 17,279. Smillie, 6049. Steele, 6902. Small, 7052. Small, 7061.

(1) Fenwick, 8823. Cowey, 8064, 8109. Aspinwall, 8670. Haslam 8216. Young, 9041. Chambers, 13,844-7. Lamb, 180. Adamson, 608.

[§ 788.] certain cases, but says: "Where, after the commence-
" ment of this Act, personal injury is caused to a work-
" man . . . . . the workman
" . . . . . *shall have the same right of*
" *compensation and remedies against the employer as if*
" *the workman had not been a workman of, nor in the*
" *service of the employer, nor engaged in his work.*"
Sir Godfrey Lushington pointed out that these words did more than merely abolish the doctrine of common employment, for, apart from that doctrine, liability for negligence at common law was not so great in the case of an employé as in the case of a person "not in the service of the employer." Indeed, the liability varied according as the plaintiff was a servant, a contractor, a licensee, an invitee, or a volunteer.

789. It is proposed in the following paragraphs to give as concise a statement as possible of what the law is, how the law works, and what, according to the witnesses, the law ought to be. That statement is based on the assumption that the Bill now before Parliament will not have become law before this memorandum is in the hands of the Commission.

PART I.—WHAT THE LAW IS.*

790. An employer is a person or body of persons, corporate or unincorporate, towards whom another person stands in the relation of servant, workman, or independent contractor.

791. The employer of a servant is also called a master.

792. A servant is a person bound to conform to all his master's orders during the period of his service, or with respect to the process of his work.

793. The term "menial servant" includes all servants whose main duty it is to do actual bodily work for the personal comfort, convenience, or luxury of their master, his family, and guests.

794. A domestic servant is a menial servant residing in the master's dwelling-house.

795. The term "workman" is applied to servants and to persons who have contracted to personally execute any work or labour in certain specified employments.

796. A contract of service is a contract whereby the relation of master and servant is created.

797. An independent contractor is a person who has contracted to produce a certain result, but is not bound to conform to his employer's orders with respect to the process.

798. An employer or master is liable for injuries due to these acts, neglects, and defaults of his workman or servant in the course of the employment.

799. This, under certain conditions, may include wilful acts and defaults, such as assault and fraud; but for the present purpose Employers' liability may be taken as being practically part of the law of negligence.

800. Negligence means failure in the duty of taking such care as may reasonably be required in the circumstances of the case.

801. One of the "circumstances of the case" is the position of the person injured by the negligence, be he servant, contractor, licensee, invitee, or volunteer.

802. In an action for negligence, the burden of proof lies on the plaintiff, who, accordingly, has to show—
(*a*) negligence;
(*b*) injury as the consequence of negligence.

[§ 803.] 803. Compensation for negligence is measured by the extent of the mischief which the defendant's negligence has caused to the plaintiff.

804. Defences to an action for negligence are ordinarily—
(*a*) no negligence, but accident;
(*b*) acquiescence;
(*c*) contributory negligence.

805. Acquiescence is the defence when the plaintiff voluntarily encountered the risk.

806. Contributory negligence is the defence when the injury suffered by the plaintiff was due to his own negligence as the immediate or decisive cause.

807. An action for negligence can be maintained, in case of fatal results, by the personal representatives of the deceased plaintiff. This is a statutory right under an Act commonly called Lord Campbell's Act, with subsequent amendments of detail.

808. Every person is responsible for his own personal negligence.

809. An employer is responsible also for the negligence of his workmen, if acting within the scope of their employment, but the employer's responsibility does not relieve the workmen of their personal responsibility, and, except as hereafter stated, it does not exist where the plaintiff is also a workman in the same employment as the negligent workman.

810. The absence of the employer's responsibility in this last case is called the doctrine of common employment. This doctrine is of quite modern origin.

811. In an action for negligence, brought by a workman against his employer, the defences, therefore, are—
(*a*) no negligence, but accident;
(*b*) acquiescence;
(*c*) contributory negligence; and
(*d*) common employment.

812. Where the plaintiff is a railway servant or a workman engaged in manual labour, not being a menial or domestic servant, and not being a seaman or apprentice to the sea service, and where the negligent workman in the same employment is a foreman, and where the circumstances correspond to one or other of the five classes of circumstances specified in the Act of 1880, then the plaintiff is given the same right of action as if he had not been a workman of, nor in the service of the defendant, nor engaged in his work.

813. This right is a statutory right, and can be exercised only subject to certain restrictions which do not apply to actions for negligence at common law.

814. These restrictions affect the amount of compensation recoverable, the limit of time for the recovery of compensation, the tribunal before which the action may be tried, and the mode of serving notice of injury.

PART II.—HOW THE LAW WORKS.

A.—CASES UNDER THE EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT, 1880.

815. The extent to which workmen have enforced, or attempted to enforce, claims under the Act by proceedings in the law courts has been thus summarised by Sir Godfrey Lushington from the Parliamentary Returns, 1884, No. 151; 1885, No. 320; 1880, No. 226; 1888, No. 290; 1889, No. 303; 1890, No. 336; 1891, No. 337.

	In 1881, 1882, and 1883.		In 1884.		In 1885.		In 1886.		In 1887.	
	No.	£	No.	£	No.	£	No.	£	No.	£
Total number of cases tried in County Courts.	443	—	99	—	340	—	161	—	170	—
Amount of compensation claimed.	—	76,337	—	30,845	—	49,466	—	25,559	—	31,196
Amount awarded - -	—	18,124	—	8,882	—	7,356	—	4,791	—	6,669
Number of cases in which the application to remove the case for trial from the County Court to the Superior Court has been granted, *i.e.*, number of removals.	22	—	7	—	2	—	3	—	1	—
Number of cases not tried -	192	—	76	—	166	—	—	—	—	—
Of which struck out - -	59	—	35	—	84	—	—	—	—	—
,, settled - -	133	—	41	—	75	—	—	—	—	—
,, pending on Dec. 31, 1885.	—	—	—	—	57	—	—	—	—	—
Appeals - - - -	12	—	3	—	3	—	5	—	2	—

* The following statement is derived from Sir Frederick Pollock's and Sir Godfrey Lushington's Memoranda on Employers' Liability (Appendices CLVIII. and CLIX., Whole Commission), from "The Duty and Liability of Employers" (Roberts and Wallace), and from the following Acts of Parliament: Lord Campbell's Acts, 1846 and 1864, the Employers' and Workmen's Act, 1875, and the Employers' Liability Act, 1880.

[§ 815.]

—	In 1888.		In 1889.		In 1890.	
	No.	£	No.	£	No.	£
Total number of cases in County Courts.	331	—	361	—	389	—
Amount claimed	—	49,300	—	53,590	—	63,070
„ awarded	—	7,559	—	8,186	—	8,679
Number of removals into High Court.	5	—	8	—	7	—
Cases not tried: Struck out	29	—	48	—	38	—
Cases not tried: Settled and withdrawn	55	—	69	—	89	—
Cases not tried: Pending at the end of year.	45	—	47	—	54	—

*816. It must not be supposed that the table exhibits the whole of the operation of the Act. In the first place, it takes no account of cases to which the Act could have applied but for the parties having contracted out of it; next, when there is no contracting out no account is taken of cases under the Act not carried into court, though in many of them claims are made and compensation given; and with respect to cases which are brought into court, though the table states the total of the claims made, the amount awarded does not include compensation paid under compromise effected out of court after action brought, but before adjudication.

817. Still less can the number of plaints be taken as fairly representing the number of injuries caused by the negligence of foremen. The truth is that, to the workmen, litigation under the Act has more than its usual terrors. It is not merely that litigation is expensive, and that he is a poor man, while his employer is comparatively rich. It is that, when a workman goes to law with his employer, he, as it were, declares war against the person on whom his future probably depends; he seeks to compel him by legal force to pay money, and his only mode of doing so is the odious one of proving that his employer or his agents, his own fellow workmen, have been guilty of negligence. Add to this that the legal proof of such negligence is often extremely difficult. The broad result is that a legal claim for damages only answers where the injury is very great, and the workman is prepared to leave his master's service. It is quite unsuitable as a remedy to meet the common case of a trifling injury which befalls a workman in the course of his employment and temporarily disables him. Wherever the service is good, as is that of a railway company, for instance, a man who enters it comes to stay, and it would never be worth his while to institute legal proceedings against his employer for small damages for a slight accident when the result would be to make unpleasantness for himself, and possibly to endanger his continuance in the service.

[§ 817.]

B.—CONTRACTING OUT.

818. By contracting out is meant an arrangement between employers and employed, whereby the latter renounces the right conferred on him by the legislature (and often also his right under the common law) to be indemnified for injury, the result of negligence. The usual consideration given by an employer to his workmen for "contracting out" is a contribution to their accident insurance fund, and these funds sometimes pay compensation for accidents in respect of which the employer would not be liable either at common law or by statute. The Act of 1880 does not prohibit contracting out, and a court of law has declared the practice to be legal.

819. The evidence affords no instance of "contracting out" being enforced without some consideration other than the mere fact of employment being given by the employer, and, at present, the practice does not appear to have resulted in any pecuniary loss to the workmen. The following statement, prepared by Sir Godfrey Lushington, shows the extent to which "contracting out" has been resorted to in the various industries. It is based upon the evidence given before the Select Committee of 1886, supplemented by that taken before the Royal Commission on Labour.

820. *Mining.*—The majority of miners have not "contracted out," and object to doing so, and even to being allowed to do so. This is the official view of the Central Board of the Miners' National Association, representing 200,000 miners. But there is a strong minority who have contracted out, and who resent any proposal to deprive them of their liberty in this matter. Official statistics are wanting; the following were forwarded to the Select Committee by the Central Association for dealing with Distress caused by Mining Accidents, an association which, in 1885, represented 209,306, and, in 1891, represented 268,985 miners. This association is itself neutral on the question, as it is open to the relief societies in affiliation with it to contract out, or not, as they please; some do and others do not. In most districts (through the operation of the miners' trade union, or the influence of the mine owners) there is a uniform rule for all the men of the same pit, if not for all the men of the same county, that they should or should not contract out. Thus, West Lancashire is mainly and North Wales almost exclusively a contracting out district, whereas in Yorkshire, Cleveland, and Northumberland, there is very little, if any, contracting out. In South Wales, however, there is no rule at all. There the majority do not contract out, but there is a large minority who do, and those who do work in the same pit side by side with those who do not.

TABLE showing the NUMBER of PERSONS EMPLOYED at the COLLIERIES in GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND, and the NUMBER of PERSONS who have made ARRANGEMENTS with their EMPLOYERS in view of the EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY ACT, 1880:—

Districts.	1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.	
	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.	Under Arrangement.	Not under Arrangement.
Northumberland, Cumberland, and North Durham.	—	53,611	—	52,548	—	53,057	—	53,906	—	56,777	—	61,385	—	65,034
South Durham, Westmoreland, North Riding of Yorkshire, and Cleveland.	—	62,484	—	60,903	—	61,223	—	62,422	—	65,205	—	69,198	—	72,272
Yorkshire and Lincolnshire.	—	63,677	—	65,840	—	67,015	—	67,009	—	70,062	—	76,893	—	82,165
Lancashire and North Wales.	44,398	28,807	46,533	27,479	48,001	27,132	48,882	27,081	51,906	27,187	57,802	28,680	61,542	29,800
Ireland	—	860	—	864	—	849	—	779	—	751	—	772	—	742
Derbyshire, Leicestershire, Nottinghamshire, Warwickshire, Cheshire, Staffordshire, and Shropshire.	1,059	99,130	1,308	98,548	393	98,452	395	101,895	398	107,036	411	115,486	—	121,869
Monmouthshire, Somersetshire, ports of Glamorgan and Brecon, and South Wales.	37,459	59,817	41,117	55,961	42,168	56,812	39,281	64,034	45,932	65,673	52,774	70,036	57,580	72,346
Scotland, East	—	46,022	—	46,557	—	47,732	—	46,734	—	42,602	—	46,819	—	50,238
Scotland, West	—	23,908	—	22,252	—	23,443	—	22,527	—	30,206	—	32,977	—	34,862
	82,916	437,716	89,018	430,952	90,562	435,715	88,558	446,387	98,236	465,499	110,987	502,246	119,122	529,328

* Paragraphs 816 and 817 are taken from Sir Godfrey Lushington's memorandum.

[§ 820.] TABLE compiled from the Reports of HER MAJESTY'S INSPECTORS, showing the NUMBER of PERSONS EMPLOYED per Death by ACCIDENT in MINES under the COAL MINES ACT:— [§ 820.]

Year.	West Lancashire and North Wales.	South Wales.	Yorkshire.	South Durham and North Riding.	Northumberland.	All Districts.
	One death in	One death in	One death in	One death in	One death in	One death in
1873	338	385	496	702	496	479
1874	380	384	558	733	722	510
1875	349	404	234	771	686	430
1876	348	396	872	748	696	551
1877	318	367	566	595	727	409
1878	128	357	738	638	890	336
1879	407	246	527	885	716	490
1880	443	208	576	220	834	368
Average for the 8 years	339	343	571	661	721	446

Year.	West Lancashire and North Wales.	South Wales.	Yorkshire.	South Durham and North Riding.	Northumberland.	All Districts.
	One death in	One death in	One death in	One death in	One death in	One death in
1881	262	402	807	645	740	519
1882	426	379	648	294	672	447
1883	502	325	586	378	691	488
1884	460	349	660	764	793	552
1885	428	275	757	715	583	452
1886	449	391	502	662	938	545
1887	485	319	603	685	769	529
1888	471	433	760	755	586	602
1889	400	480	666	707	757	530
1890	570	338	754	1,080	667	528
Average for the 10 years	445	369	674	718	719	519

821. *Railways.*—The London and North Western Railway Company, on the passing of the Act of 1880, gave to the men in their employ the option of contracting out in return for certain contributions to be made by the Company to the men's insurance fund. The men, with very few exceptions, accepted these terms, and for all who have since joined contracting out is the rule of the service. The Company has now in their employ over 50,000 men, all of whom have contracted out; and a large number of these men have petitioned Parliament against any change in the law which might prevent them from doing so. The London and North-Western Railway Company is the only railway company in which contracting out is the obligatory rule of the service.

822. In the London and Brighton Railway Company, the men do, as a matter of fact, contract out; but, on a month's notice, any man can regain his legal position without leaving the service, simply by renouncing the insurance benefits. Very few have thought it to their advantage to do so. In the Great Eastern Railway Company the men do not contract out; but, if a man claims and obtains damages by legal process, there is a certain deduction made from the Company's contribution to the men's insurance fund. In all other railway companies there is no contracting out.

TABLE showing, from 1877–89, the Proportion of Accidents to Number of Railway Employés.

Railway Company.	1877.		1878.		1879.		1880.		1881.		1882.	
	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.
	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in
London and North-Western	411	94	432	78	561	113	500	102	525	61	504	62
London, Brighton, and South Coast.	580	107	303	111	464	88	497	107	366	82	409	44
Great Eastern	454	92	604	102	408	68	454	75	395	74	395	73
Great Western	402	76	406	82	766	93	585	84	609	72	725	74
Great Northern	466	123	558	119	999	128	424	129	464	94	559	77
Midland	423	124	525	143	693	140	575	150	610	248	588	210
Lancashire and Yorkshire	322	47	464	53	544	60	292	47	376	47	378	47
Average of above six railways	451	95	477	103	646	75	471	99	470	102	507	87

(*Continued*)

Railway Company.	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.	
	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.	Fatal.	Total.
	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in	One in
London and North-Western	834	117	697	107	1,001	121	983	134	949	114	1,058	92	916	66
London, Brighton, and South Coast.	819	40	702	117	756	218	1,228	351	702	223	1,638	239	924	254
Great Eastern	740	115	714	149	1,111	99	1,183	206	714	175	688	181	1,405	144
Great Western	637	112	1,163	116	1,040	125	1,501	146	1,198	131	1,163	143	1,188	124
Great Northern	927	91	755	93	849	98	1,359	98	1,133	142	1,133	219	806	225
Midland	874	231	950	261	971	361	926	370	1,249	331	1,214	361	1,024	239
Lancashire and Yorkshire	615	73	410	62	675	62	550	58	598	63	698	61	799	89
Average of above six railways	768	127	782	133	900	160	1,125	205	932	178	1,089	200	1,028	195

[§ 823.] 823. *Other Trades.*—Throughout the building trade there is no contracting out; and Mr. Shipton, the Secretary to the Amalgamated Society of House Decorators, represented to the Select Committee that contracting out should be prohibited. In the trades connected with the Iron Trades Employers' Association, representing the employment of 50,000 men, spread over 18 districts, with their centre in Manchester—that is, the trades of general engineering, steam boiler making, textile machine making, and iron and brass founding—there is no contracting out. In the large alkali works of Messrs. Chance, and in the ironworks of Messrs. Pearson and Knowles, the men do contract out. As to other trades, there is no evidence that there is contracting out.

824. No case was established before the Select Committee or the Royal Commission on Labour of workmen contracting out for no consideration. But where there is contracting out, it is usually made the rule of the service; and this, it was stated in general terms, means coercion. The reply made by employers was to point to the benefits conferred on workmen contracting out, to the numerical strength of the persons alleged to be so coerced, and to the number of persons contracting out in places, like the South Wales coal-field, where it was not the rule of the service.

C.—INSURANCE.

825. Insurance against accidents in trade is allowed to exist side by side with the law relating to employers' liability. It may be effected (*a*) by men's relief societies, to which the men alone contribute; (*b*) by men's relief societies, to which both men and masters contribute; (*c*) by insurance companies; and (*d*) by masters' mutual assurance societies.

826. With reference to the first class, Mr. Brabrook, the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies, explained that such societies were independent friendly societies, affiliated orders, dividing societies, shop clubs, trade societies, collecting societies, and the trade unions themselves; but his evidence on this point had no immediate bearing upon the liability of employers, and may here be dismissed with a passing reference.

[§ 827.] 827. Concerning societies of the second class, which generally exist where the workmen have contracted out of the Act, Mr. Brabrook gave the following information: —"A large number of these societies," he said, "are "debarred from registration under the Friendly "Societies' Act, because they have among their rules "one providing that 'a member ceasing to be em- "'ployed at works, shall cease to be a "'member of society.' By means of such a rule, an "employer can enforce restrictive conditions on the "conduct of his business by the workmen. A rule, "however, to the effect that 'a member ceasing to be "'employed at works shall cease to participate "'in the funds arising from the contributions of "'employers as honorary members,' does not prevent "registration, although a practical difficulty arises in "cases where the funds derived from the contribu- "tions of employers and employed respectively "cannot be distinguished. Another arrangement "inconsistent with registration is one whereby the "funds of the society are deposited with the employer, "inasmuch as the Friendly Societies Act requires "them to be invested only in concerns giving such "security as trustees can accept. The policy of the "Act in this respect is a sound one, for the prohibited "arrangement has the mischievous effect of putting "all the workmen's eggs into one basket, so that if "their employer fails, they lose not only their "employment but their past savings also, and it "places them, in addition, into a position of undue "dependence upon the employer. At the same time, "the societies often prefer to forfeit registration by "investing their funds with an employer, either "because they get an exceptionally high rate of "interest, or because they like to have a stake in the "employer's business, or because much trouble is "saved in the matter of buying and selling stock and "in the keeping of accounts. Where the employer "in question is a public company, and, as such, "able to give by debenture or otherwise security "of the type which trustees are authorised by "statute to accept, the difficulty as to registration "is removed. A third bar to registration is where "membership of the society is made a condition of "employment. But registration has not hitherto "been refused to societies having among their rules "one providing that members may direct the "amount of the subscription to be deducted from "their wages, provided that the sum deducted be "actually handed over to the society's treasurer, and "paid by him to the credit of the trustees. The "general result of the legal requirements as to regis- "tration has been to cause many societies to forego "its benefits. Those benefits are conferred rather "upon the individual members than upon the society "as a whole. They relate to the right of members "to inspect the books of their society, to apply to the "Chief Registrar for an official inspection, to call "upon the treasurer and trustees to render accounts, "&c., &c."

828. Referring to the same class of societies, Mr. Ludlow, the former Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies, said:—"Judging from the condition of the mining in- "dustry, the existence of a friendly society in exclusive "connexion with a particular employment, does not "appear to prevent trade disputes. Many railway "companies have obtained special Acts of Parliament "compelling the men to subscribe to the sick and "benefit funds established by their employers. The "men object to such enactments, because they are "obliged to choose both between giving up their own "societies and supporting two, and also between "continuing in the company's service longer than they "may perhaps desire to do, and forfeiting the benefits "towards which they have been subscribing. The "Court of Appeal, however, decided, in Hewlett *v.* "Allen and Sons, that deductions from wages for the "purposes of benefit funds were illegal, unless "expressly sanctioned by Act of Parliament. Except "where absolute confidence already exists between "employers and employed, the existence of funds "supported by both parties tends not to improve, but "to injure the relations between them. Such funds, "moreover, are in many cases actuarially unsound, "because they depend upon the employers' contribu- "tions, which in their turn, depend upon the vote of a "body of shareholders, and because the employers' "contributions remain fixed, irrespective of fluctua- "tions in the membership. Where the employers' "contributions vary with the membership, the funds "are financially sounder. Personally, I am adverse to "the practice of contracting out of the Employers' "Liability Act, which usually accompanies the "establishment of those funds. If the Act be good, "it should be relied on."

829. The best instance of an insurance company is the Employers' Liability Assurance Association. This association issues two kinds of policies.

(*a.*) Separate policies in which the employed have no part. The company insures the master only against such accidents as the master is liable for; not, however, against accidents caused by the master's personal negligence, and, before insuring, the association makes inquiries to ascertain that the master is careful, &c.

The figures* are:—

Total number of accidents reported	10,217
Of these no claim is made in 76 per cent., or	7,750
Total number of claims	2,467

Thus accounted for:—	
Claims admitted	1,188
Claims abandoned	952
Claims litigated	327
Total	2,467

Of the 327 litigated cases there were:—	
Won by workmen	136
Lost by workmen	191
Total	327

Also of the 327 litigated cases there were:—	
Appealed by master	35
Won by men	29
Won by master	6
Total	35
Appealed by men	32
Won by men	9
Won by master	23
Total	32

* The figures are taken from Appendix D. of Sir Godfrey Lushington's memorandum, where no mention is made of the period to which they apply. In fact, the whole of paragraphs 829-32, inclusive, is transcribed from that memorandum, with but few slight alterations.

[§ 829.]

(b.) Joint policies, in which employers, in the first place, pay the entire premium, but to a certain extent recoup themselves by a deduction from the men's wages; in this way the men contribute, and, by the policy, the insurance company undertake to indemnify the workmen against all accidents whatever. There is no contracting out.

As to these policies the statistics* are :—

Total number of accidents reported -		26,188
Of these there were—		
Claims admitted -	26,087	
Claims abandoned	97	
Claims litigated about - -	4	
Total - -	26,188	

Had these policies been separate instead of joint, the company, instead of paying on 26,087, would probably have paid only on 3,026, which might represent the number of accidents for which the employer might be held liable. The insurance company, however, do not provide relief beyond a certain limited time.

830. The Iron Trades Employers' Association, spread over 18 districts, with its centre in Manchester, and representing the employment of 28,000 men, engaged in general engineering, iron shipbuilding, marine and locomotive engineering, steam boiler making, textile machine making, and iron and brass founding, is an association in which the members mutually insure each other against claims made under the Employers' Liability Act, 1880; the only object is to cover expenses. For the period between October 1881 and May 1886 the statistics were :—

Number of notices received of injuries - -		788
Number of claims compensated by agreement -	81	
Number of claims litigated and lost by men - -	6	
Number of claims litigated and won by men - -	3	
Remainder arranged between employed and the individual employer, without reference to the association - - -	698	
Total - - -	788	

The rates of insurance were threefold :—

	Per cent. of Wages in the First Year.
	s. d.
Machine makers (who have small machinery) -	1 3
Engineers (with larger machinery) - -	1 9
Shipbuilders who work out in the open and have a great deal of scaffolding.	2 3

831. In the building trade the masters have formed a mutual insurance society, each paying 4*s.* for every 100*l.* of wages. In the south district, comprising London and counties south of Birmingham, during the five years 1881 and 1885, the average number of policies in force was 290, and the total number of cases (accidents) reported was 1,315, of which 349 were settled as under :—

How settled.	Amount.	No. of Cases.
	£ s. d.	
Settled without intervention of solicitors for - - -	2,416 14 2	245
Settled after notice of action for	1,952 4 2	62
Contested claims being made for 6,727*l.* :—		
In 20 of which damages were awarded for -	1,607 7 6	42
In 22 the verdict was for defendant - -	—	
Total - -	5,976 5 10	349

* Here again no mention is made of the period to which the figures apply.

[§ 832.]

832. In Northumberland and Durham mines the owners have a mutual assurance association. In five years their premiums amounted to 2,000*l.*; if they had contributed to the men's fund, their contributions would have amounted to 50,000*l.*

PART III. — WHAT THE LAW OUGHT TO BE IN THE OPINION OF THE WITNESSES.

833. Mr. W. Becket Hill, of the firm of Messrs. Allan Bros. & Co., shipowners, considered that employers should be held responsible for such accidents only as resulted from their personal negligence, from the orders given by themselves or their representatives and from defective gear, on the ground that the injured man had the actual tortfeasor to fall back upon.

834. Mr. S. Sims, representing the Amalgamated Stevedores' Labour Protection League, desired section 1, sub-section 2, of the Act of 1880, to read as follows :— "By reason of the negligence of any person in the "service of the employer who has *any* superintendence "entrusted to him." The ground of the proposal was that it was not sufficient to limit the employers' liability to the negligence of "persons whose sole or "principal duty is that of superintendence, and who "are not ordinarily engaged in manual labour."

835. It was the opinion of Messrs. G. J. Davis and F. Chandler, representing the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, that the principal employer should be held liable even where the work in connexion with which the accident occurred is sub-let. The reason given was that the sub-contractors were often men of straw and unable to pay compensation.

836. Mr. Salter, representing the Dockers' Union, considered that employers should be held responsible in all cases where contributory negligence was not proved.

837. A large number of the men's representatives were of opinion that contributory negligence should no longer be a bar to the men's claims under the Act. Petty negligence, they contended, should no longer be allowed to excuse the grave negligence to which it might contribute.

838. The men's representatives were almost unanimous in condemning the doctrine of common employment, as virtually making the Act of 1880 inoperative. Mr. R. Knight, of the Boilermakers' and Iron Shipbuilders' Union, was an exception to the rule. He thought there would be some difficulty about eliminating the doctrine of common employment altogether. The employers were all opposed to the abolition of the doctrine, which they contended was the only contradiction to the growing idea that employers were general insurers against accidents.

839. An almost equal number of the men were opposed to employers being allowed to insure themselves against their liability. A poor man, they urged, had no chance against the insurance companies in the law courts, and was ruined by the excessive litigation in which they involved him. Mr. Falvy, of the South Side Labour Protection League, said that, even if insurance were permitted, the companies should, at any rate, be compelled to satisfy the verdict if their clients were defeated.

840. It appeared to be the almost universal policy of the trades unions to oppose the practice of "contracting out," and of the employers to support it. The latter stated that in no case did contracting out prevail without ample consideration being given by the employer. The representatives of the former did not dispute the fact, but pointed out that the men's organisations were weakened when their members had an interest in funds over which they themselves had no control, and that if the unions were weakened now, the men would suffer for it hereafter.

841. Mr. Keir Hardie, the late President of the Ayrshire Miners' Union, desired employers to be made criminally liable for accidents due to their own or their servants' negligence, and be punishable by imprisonment, instead of by a money penalty. He argued that at present employers did not personally feel their liability at all, and were, therefore, careless.

842. A variety of other proposals were made, with a view to making the benefits of the Act more widely and easily accessible. Thus, it was proposed to extend its application to seamen, to remove the legal limit to the amount of compensation, to forbid employers from offering, and the employed from accepting, compensation before the case was taken into court, to extend the

[§ 842.] period of notice and the period within which the action must be commenced. It was further proposed to allow either party to apply to a Government department to take up the case free of charge, to cancel the right of appeal from a county court to a higher tribunal, except where a large sum of money was at stake, and to appoint working men inspectors of dock machinery with administrative powers under the Act.

843. It is possible to detect a feeling in favour of a policy the direct contrary of that which prompted the proposals hitherto mentioned, in the evidence of Mr. Davis, of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, who said:—"I hold that the only just and "lasting settlement of the question is to place the "whole affair under the common law, even though it "were to deprive the workman of the privilege he at "present possesses of getting compensation (from his "employer) for accidents resulting from the negligence "of his (superior) fellow servants." The argument on which this proposal was based seemed to be that the more liability for accidents was dissociated from negligence, the more careless did negligent persons become. [§ 843.]

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

APPENDIX VI.

MEMORANDUM ON THE EVIDENCE RELATING TO THE COAL MINES REGULATION ACT, 1887.

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INTRODUCTION.

844. Mr. M. W. Peace has prefaced his edition of the Act with observations to the following effect:—The law relating to coal mines has at last received a definite solution by the passing of the Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887, which repeals all previous enactments for the regulation of coal mines, so we must look to it, as from the 1st January, 1888, for the law on the subject.

845. It applies to the whole of Great Britain and Ireland, and embraces within its authority mines of coal, stratified ironstone, shale and fire clay. Should there be a doubt whether any particular mine is comprehended, the Secretary of State has power to decide the question otherwise than in legal proceedings.

846. For the purposes of Government inspection, these mines are divided into the following districts:—

1. Manchester district, comprising North and East Lancashire and Ireland.
2. North Staffordshire district, comprising North Staffordshire, Cheshire and Shropshire.
3. Midland district, comprising the counties of Derby, Leicester, Nottingham and Warwick.
4. Yorkshire and Lincolnshire district, comprising Yorkshire, exclusive of the North Riding and Lincolnshire.
5. Newcastle district, comprising the counties of Cumberland, Northumberland, and part of Durham.
6. Durham district, comprising the county of Westmoreland, part of Durham, and the North Riding of Yorkshire.
7. Liverpool district, comprising the counties of Anglesey, Denbigh, Flint and West Lancashire.
8. South Staffordshire district, comprising South Staffordshire and Worcestershire.
9. South-western district, comprising the counties of Devon, Dorset, Gloucester, Monmouth, Somerset and portions of Brecon and Glamorgan.
10. South Wales district, comprising the counties of Carmarthen, Pembroke, and portions of Brecon and Glamorgan.
11. Scotland, East district, comprising the counties of Clackmannan, Edinburgh, Fife, Haddington, Kinross, Linlithgow, Perth, Sunderland, the upper and middle wards of Lanark, and part of Stirling.
12. Scotland, West district, comprising the counties of Argyle, Ayr, Dumfries, Dumbarton, Renfrew, and portions of Lanark and Stirling.

847. The inspector in charge of each of the above districts has also a district or districts assigned to him under the Metalliferous Mines Regulation Acts, and there are two special inspectors under those Acts for North Wales and the Isle of Man, and for Cornwall and Devon respectively.*

848. Under the Coal Mines Regulation Act of 1887, large responsibilities are thrown upon the various persons employed, as well as upon owners, agents, managers and undermanagers.

849. A *primâ facie* liability for dereliction of duty by any person whomsoever is thrown upon owners, agents, and managers, but summary proceedings against them for offences not committed by them personally can be taken only by an inspector, or with the consent in writing of the Secretary of State.

850. The interpretation clause defines the term "owner," when used in relation to any mine, to mean any person or body corporate who is the immediate proprietor, or lessee or occupier, of any mine or of any part of a mine. It does not, however, include a person or body corporate who merely receives a royalty, rent or fine, from a mine, or who is merely the proprietor of a mine subject to any lease, grant, or licence for its working, or who is merely the owner of the soil and not interested in the minerals of the mine. It is true that any contractor for the working of a mine is subject to the Act as if he were an owner; but this liability of the contractor does not remove the liability of the owner as here defined.

851. The term "agent," when used in relation to any mine, means any person appointed as the representative of the owner in respect of any mine or part of a mine, and, as such, superior to a manager appointed in pursuance of the Act.

852. The terms "manager" and "under manager" are not defined in the interpretation clause, but their qualifications are fully set out in another part of the Act.

853. The statutory interpretation of the word "mine" includes every shaft in the course of being sunk and every level and inclined plane in the course of being driven, and all the shafts, levels, planes, works, tramways and sidings, both below ground and above ground, in and adjacent to and belonging to the mine. But there is a provision to the effect that two or more parts of a mine may be worked separately, subject to the approval of the Secretary of State.

854. The Act is divided into three parts with four schedules annexed.

855. The first part regulates the employment of boys, girls, and women, the mode of ascertaining and paying wages, the appointment and removal of checkweighers, the arrangements as to shafts and communications, the

* Since Mr. Maskell Peace published his book the Cornwall and Devon Mines have been added to the South-Western District (*see* No. 9 above). There is therefore now only one special inspector under the Metalliferous Mines Regulation Acts.

[§ 855.] division of a mine into parts, the enactments as to certificated managers, returns, plans and notices to be given by owners, agents, or managers, with the steps to be taken on the opening, abandonment, or recommencement of a mine or seam, the provisions relating to inspectors and inspection, the formal investigation as to accidents, and provisions as to arbitration and coroners' inquests.

856. The second part is devoted to—

(*a.*) The general rules to be observed in every mine to which the Act applies;

(*b.*) The establishment of special rules for each mine; and

(*c.*) The publication of the Abstract of the Act and the special rules.

857. The third part deals with the penalties for offences and the mode of their enforcement and application. It also comprises certain miscellaneous provisions, including the interpretation of terms and transitory provisions and repeal.

858. The First Schedule relates to the proceedings of boards of examiners, the Second to the maximum fees payable in respect of managers' and under-managers' certificates, the Third contains the form for the annual return in two parts, and the Fourth a list of the statutes repealed.

PART I.—WHAT THE LAW IS.

859. In this Act the term "boy" means a male under the age of 16.

860. No boy under the age of 12 years, and no girl or woman of any age, shall be employed in or allowed to be for the purpose of employment in any mine below ground.

861. A boy of or above the age of 12 years shall not be employed in or allowed to be for the purpose of employment in any mine below ground for more than 54 hours in any one week.

862. Where the amount of wages paid to any of the persons employed in a mine depends on the amount of mineral gotten by them, those persons shall be paid according to the actual weight gotten by them of the mineral contracted to be gotten.

863. But the owner, agent, or manager of the mine may enter into an agreement with the persons employed in the mine authorising deductions to be made from the wages in respect of foreign substances mixed with the mineral contracted to be gotten.

864. The miners paid according to the weight of the mineral gotten by them may, at their own cost, station a person called a "checkweigher" at each place appointed for the weighing of the mineral.

865. A checkweigher shall have every facility afforded to him for enabling him to fulfil his duties.

866. A checkweigher shall not be authorised in any way to impede or interrupt the working of the mine.

867. It shall be lawful for the owner or manager of any mine to agree with the miners to stop the checkweigher's salary out of their wages.

868. Managers must hold first class certificates of competency or of service, and under-managers first or second class certificates either of competency or service.

869. Where the timbering of the working places is done by the workmen employed therein, suitable timber shall be provided at the working place, gate end, pass bye, or siding, or other similar place convenient to the workmen.

870. The persons employed in a mine may from time to time appoint two of their number, or any two persons not being mining engineers, who are practical working miners to inspect the mine at their own cost.

871. No person not now employed as a coal or ironstone getter shall be allowed to work alone as a coal or ironstone getter in the face of the workings until he has had two years' experience of such work under the supervision of skilled workmen, or unless he shall have been previously employed for two years in or about the face of the workings of a mine.

872. No prosecution shall be instituted against the owner, agent, manager, or under-manager of a mine for an offence under this Act not committed personally by such owner, agent, manager, or under-manager, which can be prosecuted before a court of summary jurisdiction, except by an inspector or with the consent in writing of the Secretary of State.

873. The administration of the Act is vested in a Department of the Home Office.

PART II.—HOW THE LAW WORKS.

[§ 874.]

874. On the whole, the Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887, must be pronounced a great success. Thus, Mr. Jacques, a Northumberland miner of "advanced" views, said, "The legislation we have already has been "of immense benefit to us," and Mr. Keir Hardie, the secretary of the Ayrshire Miners' Union, said, "With a "few trifling exceptions, the provisions of the Act are "quite satisfactory."

875. In some respects, however, the benefits conferred by the Act are not unmixed. Take, for example, the provisions restricting the employment of boys. In many mining districts, the scarcity of boy labour is a very serious problem. How this comes about may be stated as follows:—The actual work of coal-getting is dependent upon the performance of several subsidiary operations, and the proper relative proportion of coal-getters or "hewers" and other labourers must always be preserved, unless the hewers will consent to do some of the less highly-paid subsidiary work for themselves. There is, accordingly, an urgent demand for boy labour in order to enable as many men as possible to be employed as "hewers" and as "hewers" only, as soon as they arrive at man's estate. This demand for boy labour is obviously intensified by the law limiting its supply, and, in spite of the regulations as to hours, it would seem that the Act has, if anything, tended to increase the pressure placed upon the boys employed in mines.

876. Again, the provisions relating to checkweighers leave many loopholes for evasion. Thus, although employers are obliged to allow the men to appoint checkweighers, there is apparently nothing to prevent them dismissing all their hands and offering to re-engage them on condition that any given appointment which they may have made be cancelled. At any rate, this mode of evading the law has been declared legal by the Scotch Court of Session. The words "every facility" moreover seem to be too vague, and so does the clause prohibiting the checkweighers from "interfering with the workmen." The provision giving the workmen the right of appointing two persons to examine the pits has been taken advantage of in only 10 per cent. of the mines in the kingdom. Some of the men's representatives attributed failure to appoint examiners to fear of being "victimised," but the evidence did not show any ground for such fear, and the real obstacle appeared to be the expense. According to Mr. Keir Hardie, the miners "had no mind to undertake duties "that fell primarily upon their employers, and which "the Government inspectors also were well paid to "discharge."

877. By an error of draughtsmanship, the section relating to "inexperienced" men is probably capable of being interpreted to mean that, though "inexperienced" men may not work in solitude, two or more of them may work in company without supervision. Owing, moreover, to the migratory habits of colliers as a class, it is impossible to determine whether candidates really possess the experience required by the Acts which they invariably claim.

878. If it be conceded that the responsibility for the safety of the mines and the observance of the Acts rests primarily upon the colliery officials, and on the Government inspectors only in a secondary degree, the administration of the Acts must be pronounced adequate and effectual. It is true that many complaints were made, but they were obviously due to the desire of the men to make out a case for the appointment of "practical men" to inspectorships.

PART III. — WHAT THE LAW OUGHT TO BE IN THE OPINION OF THE WITNESSES.

879. That "boy" should mean a male under 18 or 21 years. (Advocated by employed.)

880. That no boy under the age of 13 years should be allowed to be employed, or allowed to be, for the purpose of employment, in any mine below ground. (Advocated by employed and school teachers.)

881. That boys should be eligible for underground work at 11. (Advocated by employers.)

882. That boys should be allowed for work underground for 60 hours a week. (Advocated by employers.)

[§ 883.] 883. That the permission extended to employers and employed to enter into an agreement respecting deductions for stone or substances other than the mineral contracted to be gotten should be withdrawn. (Advocated by employed.)

884. That no such agreement should be deemed to exist unless expressly made in definite terms. (Advocated by employed.)

885. That it should be made illegal for an employer to make the removal of a particular checkweigher a condition of employment. (Advocated by employed and inspectors.)

886. That the term "facility" in sub-section 2, section 13, should include the provision of shelter other than that supplied by the pit's head. (Advocated by employed.)

887. That checkweighers should be forbidden to give information to a third party about a man's time or output without that man's consent. (Advocated by employers.)

888. That it should be compulsory, and not merely lawful, for the owner or manager to agree to deduct the checkweigher's salary from the men's wages. (Advocated by employed.)

889. That certificates of competency should be introduced for firemen and roadsmen. (Advocated by employed.)

890. That the words "gate-end, pass-bye, siding, or "other similar place convenient to the workmen," should be omitted from the 22nd general rule under section 49. (Advocated by employed.)

891. That the words "or have been" should be inserted between the words "who are" and the words "practical working miners" in the 38th general rule under section 49. (Advocated by employed.)

892. That the words "or persons" should be inserted after the words "no person" in the 39th general rule under section 49. (Advocated by employed.)

893. That no man should be regarded as "experienced" unless he has obtained a certificate from a joint examining board of employers and employed. (Advocated by employed.)

[§ 894.] 894. That managers should be required to demand from all applicants for employment certificates signed by their previous employer, showing the duration and conditions of their former occupation, and, conversely, that they should be required to give such certificates to all men leaving their service. (Advocated by colliery officials.)

895. That the qualifying period should be reduced from two years to 18 months, and that the experience of six of the 18 should be specialised. (Advocated by colliery officials.)

896. That a manager or overman should be liable to prosecution, without the consent of the inspector or of the Secretary of State being obtained, in respect of the acts done by the "inexperienced" men they may employ. (Advocated by employed.)

897. That the administration of the Act should be entrusted to a special Minister of Mines. (Advocated by employed and a factory inspector.)

898. That a clause should be inserted forbidding the double shift system. (Advocated by employed.)

899. That the number of men and sections that each fireman may superintend should be defined. (Advocated by employed.)

900. That the firemen should be officially subordinated to the Government inspector of the district. (Advocated by employed.)

901. That employers should be forbidden to sell coal at a lower price than would enable them to pay a certain fixed minimum wage. (Advocated by employed.)

902. That a maximum rate of profits should be fixed. (Advocated by employed.)

903. That eight hours from bank to bank should be the maximum daily labour for all underground workers in mines. (Advocated by employed.)

904. That eight hours of coal drawing per day should be the maximum. (Advocated by employed.)

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

APPENDIX VII.

MEMORANDUM ON THE EVIDENCE RELATING TO THE MERCHANT SHIPPING ACTS, 1854–1890.

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INTRODUCTION.

905. The following statements are mainly derived from Stephen's Commentaries on the Laws of England.

906. The Merchant Shipping Acts have chiefly in view, the great national object of promoting the increase of our mercantile marine, of securing its efficiency and discipline, and of affording the sailors all due encouragement and protection. And, in furtherance of these objects, the Acts provide that local marine boards shall be established at certain of the seaports of the United Kingdom for the purpose of carrying into effect the provisions of the law under the general superintendence of the Board of Trade. In every such seaport the local marine board is required to establish a mercantile marine office or offices, under the management of superintendents, whose business it is to afford facilities for engaging seamen by registering their names and characters, to superintend and facilitate their engagement and discharge, to provide means for securing the presence on board, at the proper times, of men so engaged, to encourage the making of apprenticeships to the sea service, and generally to perform such other duties relating to merchant seamen and merchant ships as may be committed to them by the Board of Trade. Examinations also are instituted for persons intending to become masters or mates of foreign-going ships or home-trade passenger ships, before examiners appointed by the local marine board; and no person is to be employed in a foreign-going ship as master, or as first or second or only mate—or, in a home-trade passenger ship, as master, or first or only mate—unless he possesses either a certificate of competency as the result of such examination, or a certificate of service, either of which certificates (according to the nature of the case) is to be granted by the Board of Trade to such persons as it finds to be entitled to them.

907. In addition to these provisions, there are a variety of others, intended for the protection of seamen and for promoting their health and comfort, among which may be noted the following, namely, that the master of every ship, except those of less than 80 tons burthen, exclusively employed in the coasting trade of the United Kingdom, shall, in the case of every seaman whom he carries to sea from any port of the United Kingdom, enter into an agreement with him in a form sanctioned by the Board of Trade, and signed by both master and seaman, setting forth the nature and duration of the voyage, or else the maximum period of the voyage or engagement, and the places or parts of the world (if any) to which it is not to extend, the number and description of the crew, the time at which each seaman is to be on board, or to begin work, the capacity in which he is to serve, and the amount of his wages,

[§ 907.] together with a scale of provisions, regulations as to conduct, and such punishments for misconduct as the form issued by the Board of Trade may sanction, and as the parties adopt.

908. The Acts also provide that no right to wages shall be dependent on the earning of the freight—an innovation upon the common law, which regarded freight as the mother of wages; and that every stipulation on the part of the seaman for abandoning his right to wages, in the event of the loss of the ship, or any right which he may have or obtain in the nature of salvage, shall be wholly inoperative; that all seamen (other than those engaged in the home trade) shall be engaged and discharged, and their wages paid before a marine superintendent, or in foreign waters before a consular officer, and that seamen and apprentices in any ship shall have such space allotted to them as in the Acts is specified, which space is to be kept free from stores or goods of any kind (not being the personal property of the crew in use during the voyage), and is to be securely constructed, properly lighted and ventilated, properly protected from weather and sea, and properly shut off and protected from effluvia caused by cargo or bilge water; also that every ship navigating between the United Kingdom and any place out of the same shall be properly supplied with medicines, to be examined by medical inspectors appointed for the purpose. (No such inspectors have, I believe, been appointed.) Under the Act of 1867 (30 & 31 Vict. c. 124, s. 10) medical inspectors of seamen may be appointed, and these shall, on application by the owner or master of any ship, report upon the fitness of any seaman applying for employment. The Acts also provide that official log-books shall be kept in every ship in such form as is prescribed by the Board of Trade either in connection with, or distinct from, the ordinary log-books; and that in all cases entry shall be made in the official log-books (as soon as possible after the occurrence) of every offence committed, and of every case of illness, injury, or death.

909. Careful provisions have also been made to protect seamen as well as others from the dangers which arise from ships being sent to sea in an unseaworthy and unsafe condition. Thus, in the first place, it is enacted by the 34 & 35 Vict. c. 110, s. 7., that when any seaman or apprentice is proceeded against for deserting his ship, or for neglecting or refusing to join, or for being absent or quitting her without leave, and it shall be alleged by a certain proportion of the seamen belonging to such ship that by reason of unseaworthiness, overloading, improper loading, defective equipment, or for any other reason, she is not in a fit condition to proceed to sea, or that the accommodation therein is insufficient, the court, having cognisance of the case, may inquire into such allegations, and, in case of doubt, may order a survey of the vessel, and the costs of such survey are directed to follow the event thereof. And, by 39 & 40 Vict. c. 80. s. 6., whenever the Board of Trade has reason to believe, on complaint or otherwise, that any British ship is, by reason of the defective condition of her hull, equipment, or machinery, or of her overloading or improper loading, unfit to proceed to sea without serious danger to human life, having regard to the service for which she is intended, the Board may direct that the ship shall be detained for the purpose of being surveyed by some competent person, and on his report the Board may make such further order as it shall think requisite either as to the detention of the ship or as to her release, and absolutely or upon such conditions as the Board may impose. And if upon such survey it is reported by the "Court of Survey," that there was not reasonable and proper cause for the detention of the ship, the Board of Trade is made liable to pay the owner his costs, and also compensation for any loss or damage sustained in consequence of the detention; but, if the report is to the effect that the ship was unsafe, then the Board of Trade is to have its costs from the owner, which costs are recoverable as salvage; and it is further enacted by the 39 & 40 Vict. c. 80, s. 4. that a master who shall knowingly take, and an owner who shall send, or attempt to send, a ship to sea in such an unseaworthy state as is likely to endanger the life of any seaman or other person, shall be guilty of an indictable misdemeanour, unless he proves that he used all reasonable means to ensure her being sent to sea seaworthy, or that her going to sea in an unseaworthy state was, under the circumstances, reasonable and justifiable.

The Acts also provide that the surveyors appointed by the Board of Trade shall ascertain on each voyage a vessel makes that the vessel is properly provided with lights and fog-signals, is supplied with the necessary [§ 909.] number of boats, life-boats, and life-buoys, is fitted with an efficient fire-extinguishing apparatus, is marked with the correct load-line, and is not loaded below such load-line, and that proper precautions are taken in the stowage of grain cargo likely to endanger the safety of the ship.

In addition to the Board of Trade surveyors, there are surveyors appointed by the Port Sanitary Authorities, who have the same powers over all vessels in port as Inspectors of Nuisances have over property on shore.

910. The Merchant Shipping Acts have further provided that there should be in the port of London a "General Register and Record Office for Seamen," and that, as regards every foreign-going ship, the master thereof shall, within 48 hours after her arrival at her final port of destination in the United Kingdom, or upon discharge of the crew (whichever first happens), deliver to the superintendent of the Mercantile Marine Office before whom the crew is discharged, a list containing, *inter alia*, the number and date of the ship's register and her registered tonnage; the length and general nature of her voyage or employment; the names, ages and places of birth of the master, the crew, and the apprentices; their qualities on board their last ships or other employment; and the dates of their joining the ship; and, further, that as regards every home-trade ship, the master or owner thereof shall, every half-year, transmit or deliver to some mercantile marine superintendent in the United Kingdom a similar list for the preceding half-year, and that all such lists, together with other documents in the Acts particularised, shall be transmitted by the superintendents, by whom they have been received, to the Registrar-General of Shipping and Seamen, to be by him recorded and preserved, and produced to any person desirous of inspecting the same; and, in addition to all these provisions, it is further directed that there shall be transmitted by the proper authorities, every half-year, to such Registrar-General a list of all ships which shall be registered in any port in the United Kingdom, and also of all ships whose registers have been transferred or cancelled in such port since the last preceding return.

PART I.—WHAT THE LAW IS.

911. There shall be local marine boards and officers appointed by the Board of Trade for carrying into effect the provisions of the Acts.

912. Every local marine board shall be constituted as follows:—

(*a*) the mayor or provost and the stipendiary magistrate shall be members *ex officio;*

(*b*) the Board of Trade shall appoint four members from persons residing or having places of business at the port or within seven miles thereof;

(*c*) the owners of foreign-going ships, and of home-trade passenger ships registered at the port, shall elect six members.

913. If the Board of Trade or any local marine board have reason to believe that any master, mate, or engineer, is from incompetency or misconduct, unfit to discharge his duties, the Board of Trade may either institute an investigation or direct a local marine board to do so.

914. If any unlicensed person, other than the owner, master, or mate of the ship, or some person who is *bonâ fide* the servant, and in the constant employ of the owner, or a superintendent of a mercantile marine office duly appointed, engages or supplies any seaman or apprentice to be entered on board any ship in the United Kingdom, he shall for each seaman or apprentice so engaged or supplied incur a penalty not exceeding 20*l.*

915. The master of every ship shall enter into an agreement with every seaman whom he carries to sea from any port in the United Kingdom, which agreement shall contain certain specified particulars.

916. In the case of all foreign-going ships, such agreements shall be signed by each seaman in the presence of a superintendent of a mercantile marine office.

917. All stipulations for the allotment of any part of the wages of a seaman shall be inserted in the agreement.

918. A payment under an allotment note shall begin at the expiration of one month, or, if the allotment is in favour of a savings bank, of three months from the

[§ 918.] date of the agreement, and shall be paid at the expiration of every subsequent month.

919. The persons in whose favour an allotment note is drawn may sue for, and recover, the sums due under it.

920. Every agreement between master and seaman shall contain a scale of the provisions which are to be furnished to each seaman, as well as any regulations as to short allowance of provisions or other lawful punishments for misconduct which have been sanctioned by the Board of Trade as regulations proper to be adopted, and which the parties agree to adopt. The inspectors appointed by the Board of Trade shall examine the provisions and water intended for the use of the crew on vessels trading on long voyages, and on the complaint of three or more seamen on any vessel, wherever trading, as to the quality or quantity of the provisions or water on board, that complaint may be investigated by an officer of the Board of Trade, or, in foreign waters, by a consular officer, and, if any deficiencies are then found and are not remedied, the master of the vessel shall be liable to a fine, and the owners to make compensation to the seamen. If, however, the complaint is found to be frivolous, each of the parties complaining shall be liable to forfeit to the owner out of his wages a sum not exceeding one week's wages.

921. Every master shall keep on board proper weights and measures for the purpose of determining the quantities of the several provisions and articles served out.

922. Before any "passenger ship" shall be cleared out, the emigration officers at the port of clearance shall survey the provisions and water required by the law to be kept on board.

923. Certain hospital and medical expenses incurred by the master in respect of seamen invalided abroad may be deducted from the wages; but if the seamen be injured in the service of the ship, the owner shall, at his own cost, provide the necessary surgical and medical advice and attendance and medicine, and pay for the subsistence of the seaman until he is cured, or dies, or is brought back to the United Kingdom. In the event of the seaman's death, the owner shall bear the expenses (if any) of his burial.

924. Every place in any ship occupied by seamen and appropriated to their use shall have for every such seaman or apprentice a space of not less than 72 cubic feet, and of not less than 12 superficial feet, measured on the deck or floor of such place.

925. In every contract of service, express or implied, between the owner of a ship and the master or any seamen thereof, and in every instrument of apprenticeship whereby any person is bound to serve as an apprentice on board any ship, there shall be implied, notwithstanding any agreement to the contrary, an obligation on the part of the owner of the ship, that all reasonable means shall be used to insure the seaworthiness of the ship.

926. If a seaman, after being lawfully engaged, deserts from his ship, he shall be liable to forfeit all or any part of the clothes and effects he leaves on board, and all or any part of the wages which he has then earned, and also, if desertion takes place abroad, all or any part of the wages he may earn in any other ship in which he may be employed until his return to the United Kingdom, and to satisfy any excess of wages paid to any substitute engaged in his place at a higher rate of wages than the rate stipulated to be paid to him.

927. If a seaman, after being lawfully engaged, neglects or refuses, without reasonable cause, at any time during his engagement, to join his ship, or to proceed to sea in his ship, or is absent, without leave and without sufficient reason, from his ship or his duty at any time within 24 hours of the ship's sailing from a port, either at the commencement or during the progress of a voyage, he shall, if the offence does not amount to desertion or is not treated as such by the master, be liable to forfeit out of his wages a sum not exceeding the amount of two days' pay, and, in addition, for every 24 hours of absence either a sum not exceeding six days' pay or any expenses which have been properly incurred in hiring a substitute.

928. If a seaman or apprentice to the sea service intends to absent himself from his ship or his duty, he may give notice of his intention either to the owner or to the master of the ship, not less than 48 hours before the time at which he ought to be on board his ship.

[§ 929.] 929. If a ship, British or foreign, arrives between the last day of October and the 16th day of April, at any port in the United Kingdom from any port elsewhere, carrying as deck cargo any wood goods of a certain specified description, the master of the ship, and also the owner, if privy to the offence, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 5*l.* for every 100 cubic feet of wood goods carried illegally.

930. Upon the discharge of any seaman, the master shall sign and give him a certificate of discharge in a form sanctioned by the Board of Trade, specifying the period of his service and the time and place of his discharge.

931. A seaman is not entitled to the rating of an able-bodied seaman unless he has served for four years before the mast.

932. No person not duly authorised by law for the purpose may, without the permission of the master, go on board any ship on its arrival at a port before the seamen lawfully leave the ship.

PART II.—HOW THE LAW WORKS.

933. The immense mass of the legislation relating to merchant shipping and the world-wide diffusion of the industry it controls, makes its administration a matter of some moment and considerable difficulty. The Secretary of the National Amalgamated Sailors' and Firemen's Union made several complaints as to the manner in which the Board of Trade performed its administrative duties, and stated that one of the objects of his organisation was to call the attention of the Board of Trade to infringements of the law.

934. With regard to the composition of local marine boards, he complained that in the majority of cases the Board of Trade nominated shipowners instead of independent persons or persons in sympathy with the seamen, who were certainly indirectly interested in the proper working of these boards. Failing reform in this respect, Mr. Plimsoll suggested that seamen should be enabled to secure the transfer of such cases as concerned their interests from the jurisdiction of the boards to that of either a stipendiary magistrate or the nearest magistrate not a shipowner.

935. It was also pointed out that the Shipping Federation and other corporations and individuals constantly broke the law by illegally supplying men to ships, and Sir Henry Calcraft, of the Board of Trade, considered that it would be impossible to do away altogether with the practice of "crimping," as offences against this law are called.

936. The system of allotment notes was also adversely criticised. It was pointed out that, under the present system, the men were in the habit of getting tradesmen, Jews, and other persons to cash their allotment notes, and that these persons took the first month's payment for themselves and so compelled the persons in whose favour the notes were drawn to wait two months for their money instead of one. Mr. Key, of the Sailors' Union, went so far as to say that the long intervals during which the seamen's wives had to wait for the wages amounted to a premium on prostitution.

937. Provisions formed the subject of much controversy. The law provides that every agreement shall contain a statement of the scale of the provisions to be given to each seaman, and that such scale shall be subject to the general approval of the Board of Trade. The Board of Trade has, accordingly, drawn up a minimum scale, which the men's representatives agreed in condemning; but it was pointed out by the representatives of the employers that the minimum was never taken as a standard, and that the provisions actually provided were, in most cases, superior both in quantity, quality, and variety, to those authorised in the said scale. Indeed, the bill of fare authorised by the Board of Trade was rigidly adhered to only when necessitated by the exigencies of long voyages, and by way of punishment for insubordination, &c. The men's representatives, however, while admitting the truth of these statements in some cases, denied that they held good universally, and added that he considered penal reduction of the men's allowance to be "a very bad plan."

938. It was also pointed out that the local marine boards neglected to avail themselves of their statutory power of appointing medical inspectors of stores. Mr. Plimsoll detailed at some length the sufferings inflicted upon sailors by being obliged to consume food of inferior quality, and referred the Commission to a Blue Book on

[§ 938.] the health of crews, dated August 1876. The representatives of the employers, on the other hand, agreed in declaring that the supply of inferior provisions was quite exceptional, and Mr. Raeburn, who represented the Clyde District Committee of the Shipping Federation, maintained that the real ground for complaint, where any such ground existed at all, was not the bad quality of the food itself, but the spoiling of good food by bad cooking. Mr. T. Scrutton, moreover, who represented the Chamber of Commerce of the United Kingdom, denied the truth of Mr. Plimsoll's allegations, and pointed out that Mr. Plimsoll himself had qualified them by the remark:—"I should mislead "your lordship (the Earl of Derby), if I wanted you "to suppose that that is in existence now." Personally, Mr. Scrutton entertained no objection to the inspection of provisions as a matter of principle, but he contended that there were several obstacles to its more general adoption.

939. With reference to cases of illness, Mr. Manton, representing the National Federation of Fishermen, complained that the Grimsby employers charged the fishermen for the use of the medicine chests placed on board the boats belonging to the North Sea fishing fleet, which charge, he contended, was illegal, inasmuch as the North Sea might fairly be construed as being "a place out of the United Kingdom" within the meaning of the Act.

940. It was the unanimous testimony of the seamen's representatives that the legal requirements as to the sanitary and other internal arrangements on board ships were not fulfilled, although one of them admitted that this was partly due to the slovenly habits of the men themselves. In spite of the provisions of the Acts, paint, liquors, and oil stores were said to be habitually placed in the men's sleeping places, where the ventilation was defective, the protection against wind and weather inadequate, and the general sanitary arrangements positively unwholesome. The representatives of the employers, on the other hand, contended that in all these respects there was a marked and steadily increasing improvement throughout the merchant service, and that, as applied to vessels belonging to first-class firms, the charges of bad accommodation preferred by the men's representatives were quite unfounded.

941. The men's representatives urged that ships were often undermanned, but the employers denied that such was the case; while the men themselves stated that their complaint on this score was mainly motived by a desire to absorb the unemployed.

942. Desertion, formerly a criminal offence, and punishable as such by fine or imprisonment, became, under the terms of section 10 of the Act of 1880, amenable only to a civil action for damages. It was, however, pointed out by Mr. Graffunder, representing the Amalgamated Seamen and Tradesmen's Union, that accessories both before and after the fact continued to be criminally liable under section 257 of the Act of 1854. Some difference of opinion prevailed among the seamen's representatives as to the effect of the Act of 1880 upon the number of desertions, and all the shipowners' representatives concurred in condemning the change in the law then made. They complained that the abolition of the punishment of imprisonment had, in effect, deprived them of all protection against desertions. Theoretically they could get damages from the offenders, but practically they could not do so, because the seamen had no money to pay. Sir Henry Calcraft, however, declared that the re-imposition of the penalty of imprisonment was a sheer impossibility; but, at the same time, he pointed out that a seaman accepting an advance note with the deliberate intention of neglecting to join his ship was still liable criminally for obtaining money under false pretences.

943. Deck cargoes were illegal from 1839 to 1862, when, by a repeal of sections 170, 171, and 172 of the Customs Consolidation Act, they were once more permitted. In 1876, however, the prohibition was revived in the case of timber conveyed during the winter months from foreign or colonial to home ports, with an exception in favour of light wood goods to the height of three feet above the deck. Mr. Plimsoll complained of the habitual reluctance of the Board of Trade to prosecute owners for offences against the law on this point; but Sir Henry Calcraft replied to this charge by submitting a return of the prosecutions undertaken by the Board of Trade between 1883 and 1892 in respect of vessels improperly laden, and stated that the Load Line Act of 1890 had exercised considerable influence in diminishing the length of the seamen's death-roll.

944. The men's representatives complained that the employers granted the rating of A.B. to men that were not legally entitled to it, and Sir Henry Calcraft pointed out that, under the present system, seamen were able to suppress those of their discharges that were not to their credit, and to exchange the good ones among themselves. But he also pointed out that continuous discharges would only be a revival of the old register tickets, which were abolished in 1853, because they proved inconvenient in practice. [§ 944.]

945. Over-insurance was said to be frequently practised. But the employers contended that this was not the case, because it would be "a decidedly losing game."

946. Mr. G. A. Laws complained that the law relating to the presence of unauthorised persons on board ships did not extend to vessels on the point of departure, and that Union pickets were in consequence enabled with impunity to enter the ships and tempt the crew to break their agreements.

947. The Act of 1888, relating to life-saving appliances had, in the opinion of Sir Henry Calcraft, exercised a beneficial influence in reducing the number of lives lost at sea, and Mr. Manton desired it to be extended to fishing vessels.

PART III. — WHAT THE LAW OUGHT TO BE IN THE OPINION OF THE WITNESSES.

948. That the persons nominated by the Board of Trade to sit on local marine boards should be persons not interested in shipping, either directly or indirectly. (Advocated by employed.)

949. That six additional members should be elected to sit on those boards by the properly qualified A.B.'s belonging to the Seamen's Union at each port. (Advocated by employed.)

950. That seamen should be enabled to secure the transfer of such cases as concern their interests from the jurisdiction of the local marine boards to that of the nearest magistrate who is not a shipowner. (Advocated by employed.)

951. That the word "agent" should be inserted in place of the word "servant," in section 147 of the Act of 1854. (Advocated by employers.)

952. That the words "and in the constant employ" should be omitted in the same section. (Advocated by employers.)

953. That seamen should be forbidden, under penalty, to sign on for one ship before they are clear of their engagements for another. (Advocated by employers.)

954. That shipowners should have perfect liberty of contract as to the terms of their engagements with their men. (Advocated by employers.)

955. That shipowners should have perfect liberty to sign their agreements with their employees when and where they please, and without the presence of an officer of the Mercantile Marine Office. (Advocated by employers.)

956. That allotment notes should be abolished and the full wages paid weekly to the seaman's family direct. (Advocated by employed.)

957. That the forms of allotment notes should be sold only by authority of the Board of Trade. (Advocated by employed.)

958. That cashiers of advance notes should be empowered to garnishee the future earnings on proving their claim before a magistrate or the Board of Trade. (Advocated by tradesmen.)

959. That the power of allotment should be extended from one-half to two-thirds of a seaman's wages. (Advocated by employed.)

960. That allotment notes should be made payable also to any registered trade union or friendly society. (Advocated by employed.)

961. That payments under an allotment note should begin at the end of a week. (Advocated by employed.)

962. That the said payments should be made weekly. (Advocated by employed.)

963. That allotment notes should be made payable to any savings bank.* (Advocated by employed.)

* As stated in evidence by Sir Henry Calcraft (Permanent Secretary of the Board of Trade), the Merchant Shipping Act, 1880, section 3, already provides that an allotment may be made on certain conditions, and through certain savings banks named in the Schedule to the Act (see Evidence, Group B., question 14,775).

[§ 964.] 964. That the items of the authorised scale of provisions should be expressly stated in the text of the Act. (Advocated by employed.)

965. That a captain should no longer have the power of inflicting punishment by reducing the allowance of provisions. (Advocated by employed.)

966. That section 31 of the Act of 1855 should be extended to ships that don ot carry passengers.* (Advocated by employed.)

967. That the expenses of sending home seamen invalided abroad should be paid by the shipowners, without deduction from the wages.† (Advocated by employed.)

968. That the wages of seamen invalided abroad should re-commence at the moment they leave the hospital and embark on their homeward voyage, and should continue until the moment of their arrival in the United Kingdom.† (Advocated by employed.)

969. That seamen's hospital and medical expenses incurred abroad should be paid by the shipowners, without deduction from the wages.† (Advocated by employed.)

970. That the minimum accommodation per man should be extended from 72 to 120 cubic feet. (Advocated by employed.)

971. That an open space of not less than 250 cubic feet should be set apart in the forecastle for the men to dry their clothes in. (Advocated by employed.)

972. That no shipowner should be deemed to have "used all reasonable means" to make his vessel seaworthy, unless it is manned according to a specified scale proportioned to its tonnage. (Advocated by employed.)

973. That shipowners should have the same power of arresting the wages of seamen deserting or failing to join in home ports as they possess in foreign ports. (Advocated by employers.)

974. That accessories after the fact in the case of desertions should cease to be criminally liable. (Advocated by employed.)

975. That desertion or failure to join should be once more made a crime and summarily punishable as such by fine or imprisonment. (Advocated by employers.)

976. That desertion or failure to join should be criminally punishable, provided that the deserter had no intention of fulfilling the terms of the articles when he signed them. (Advocated by employers.)

977. That sub-sections 3 and 4 of section 10 of the Act of 1880 should read as follows: "If a seaman or apprentice to the sea service intends to absent himself from his ship or his duty, he may give notice of his intention either to the owner, master, mate, or engineer in charge, or other agent connected with the ship, not less than 12 hours previous to the sailing of the ship, provided that he has been on the articles 24 hours prior to the sailing of the vessel. [§ 977.] Should he have been signed on a lesser period than 24 hours prior to the ships' sailing, three hours shall be deemed sufficient before the time at which he ought to be on board ship. And in the event of such notice being given, the court shall not exercise any of the powers conferred on it by section 247 of the Merchant Shipping Act of 1854." (Advocated by employed.)

978. That masters should be required to give the same notice as the men for cancelling the contract of hiring after articles have been signed. (Advocated by employed.)

979. That seamen should be permitted to cancel their contracts by giving forty-eight hours' notice only when they have a reasonable excuse for so doing. (Advocated by employers.)

980. That deck-loading on both British and foreign ships within the jurisdiction should be altogether prohibited during the winter, and allowed during the summer only to the extent of 3 feet. (Advocated by employed.)

981. That deck loading on both British and foreign ships within the jurisdiction should be altogether prohibited for winter voyages across the Atlantic ocean. (Advocated by employed.)

982. That, in the case of outgoing vessels, the issue of clearance papers should be made contingent upon the requirements of the law as to loading being satisfactorily carried out, and, in the case of incoming vessels, the magistrates should be empowered to confiscate all the timber carried illegally. (Advocated by employed.)

983. That discharges should be exchanged for certificates of competency, similar to those issued to officers, and obtainable by a practical examination. (Advocated by employed.)

984. That it should be made a penal offence to employ as an A.B. a seaman unprovided with such a certificate. (Advocated by employed.)

985. That similar certificates should be issued under similar conditions to firemen, cooks and stewards. (Advocated by employed.)

986. That discharges should be "continuous" *i.e.* should contain a record of the whole of a seaman's career, instead of merely his last voyage. (Advocated by employed.)

987. That section 300 of the Act of 1854, relating to water-tight compartments, which was repealed by the Act of 1862, should be re-enacted. (Advocated by employed.)

988. That the provisions relating to the presence of unauthorised persons on board ship, should be extended to vessels on the point of departure. (Advocated by employers.)

989. That the Merchant Shipping Life-saving Appliances Act, 1888, should apply to fishing boats. (Advocated by employed.)

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

* This is now done in the case of long voyage ships by the Act of 1892.
† Cf. paragraph 923. It would appear that the employed wish the provisions of the Act extended to all cases of sickness.

APPENDIX VIII.

MEMORANDUM ON THE EVIDENCE RELATING TO THE FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACTS, 1878–1891.

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INTRODUCTION.

990. Mr. Alexander Redgrave and Mr. J. A. Redgrave have prefaced their edition of the "Factory Acts" with the observations to the following effect:—

991. The first Act which was passed to regulate labour in factories was the 'Act for the preservation of 'the Health and Morals of Apprentices and others 'employed in Cotton and other Mills, and Cotton and 'other Factories' (42 Geo. III. c. 73); and the last Act previous to the consolidating Act of 1878 followed upon the lines of the first Act; it was intituled 'An Act 'to make better provision for improving the Health of 'Women, Young Persons, and Children employed in

[§ 991.] 'Manufactories, and the Education of such Children, 'and otherwise to amend the Factory Acts' (37 & 38 Vict. c. 44).

992. The Act of Geo. III. was, in fact, directed in the first place to the due cleansing of the factories by two washings with quicklime yearly, to the admission of fresh air by means of a sufficient number of windows, and to the yearly supply to every apprentice of sufficient and suitable clothing. It next prohibited night-work, and excessive labour in the day; and, lastly, required all apprentices to be instructed in the principles of the Christian religion, and that those who were members of the Church of England should be examined annually by a clergyman, and be prepared at the proper age for confirmation.

993. These regulations existed upon the Statute Book until repealed by the consolidating Act of 1878; but with the exception of those parts relating to a sufficiency of clothing and supervision of morals, which from the altered character of the system of apprenticeship are now altogether unnecessary, all the main intentions of this statute are carried out by the consolidating Act.

994. The movement in 1802 was sanitary as well as educational; it was the first step in the course of sanitary improvement, and it is to the influence of factory legislation, and to the inquiries into the employment of women and children, that subsequent legislation for the health of towns may be credited.

995. That to which public attention was first called in 1802, was the labour in cotton and woollen factories in which more than 20 persons were employed. It was not until power was employed to move spinning frames, and afterwards looms, that the evils of excessive labour became so painfully evident. Hence legislation first dealt with spinning and weaving factories moved by power. Then with other cognate occupations, in which steam or water power was used,—print-works, bleachworks, dyeworks, and lace factories. Next, in 1864, to certain occupations in which mechanical power might or might not be used; and, lastly, by the Acts of 1867, various enumerated trades were legislated for as factories, and all others as workshops.* These later Acts, embracing within their far-extending definitions nearly every trade and occupation in the country, were necessarily incomplete and experimental. Exceptions and modifications were authorised which might possibly be requisite, rather than upon proof that they were indispensable, so that, by the time the last of these several Acts had received the Royal Assent, there was a perfect chaos of regulations—all good in themselves when enacted—all having a direct purpose, which most of the trades had outlived, and which required constant care and consideration to prevent an application of them which would have imperilled that impartiality and that uniformity of administration which are absolutely essential to secure harmonious and cheerful co-operation.

996. It was assigned to a Royal Commission, in the latter part of the year 1875, to take all these statutes under review, to consider their various enactments, modifications, and exceptions, to take such evidence as they thought requisite, and then to submit a proposition for bringing into harmony the incongruous mass of provisions which encumbered the statute book. The Commissioners set to work with the utmost activity, and took evidence upon all the points submitted to them, both in London and in various manufacturing localities in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and in February, 1876, their Report, with a volume of evidence, was laid before Parliament. The Report dealt exhaustively with the question; it traced clearly and distinctly the course of legislation, and the causes of the differences of regulations in different trades; it pointed out wherein some differences might cease, and others be mitigated, and, by a series of resolutions laid down the groundwork for the consolidation of the various statutes.

997. The groundwork thus laid down is, in its main features, the groundwork of the Act of 1878. That Act deals with three main classes of works:—

(*a.*) Textile factories.
(*b.*) Non-textile factories.
(*c.*) Workshops.

The definition of a textile factory remains the same as that of a "factory" under the former Acts, viz., an establishment in which cotton, wool, and certain other substances, are operated upon by the aid of steam or water power. And the regulations affecting textile factories continue the same as before as to hours of work and meals, and the education of children, lime-washing, holidays, &c. In one or two particulars, moreover, the precise enactments of the old Factory Acts have been varied and made applicable to non-textile factories. [§ 997.]

The term "non-textile factory" is applied to the occupations expressly included in the Acts of 1864 and 1867, whether using power or not. The term also includes all unnamed occupations, in which power is used. This definition releases from the special factory regulations all such occupations in which no "power" was used, as were factories under the Act of 1867, by reason of 50 persons being employed. The works which were expressly included in the Acts of 1864 and 1867, and are, therefore, non-textile factories, are the following:—

(*a.*) Earthenware works.
(*b.*) Lucifer match works.
(*c.*) Cartridge works.
(*d.*) Percussion caps works.
(*e.*) Paper staining works.
(*f.*) Fustian cutting works.
(*g.*) Blast furnaces.
(*h.*) Copper works.
(*i.*) Iron mills.
(*j.*) Foundries.
(*k.*) Machinery works.
(*l.*) Metal works.
(*m.*) India rubber or gutta-percha works.
(*n.*) Paper mills.
(*o.*) Glass works.
(*p.*) Tobacco works.
(*q.*) Letter-press printing works.
(*r.*) Bookbinding works.

998. All the unnamed occupations in which no "power" is used are defined to be workshops.

999. The above definitions appear to mark very clearly the course of factory legislation. The first principle was that, where power was used, and where the large majority of persons employed were women and children, labour required regulation, sanitary conditions demanded supervision, and education must be made compulsory. What are now called the textile factories came within this category.

1000. Then other occupations came under review, in which the proportion of women and children employed was not so large as in "textile factories," in some of which the labour was not so hard, and, in others of which the attention and strain in waiting upon the moving power was not so continued or so uninterrupted. In these, the limits of the hours of work have been somewhat relaxed, but the great principles of sanitary conditions and education of the young are as rigidly enforced as in textile factories. Such are the non-textile factories.

1001. Finally, it was decided to extend the Acts to other manufacturing establishments. These were those in which no "power" was used, and which are now called workshops. They are divided into three classes:—

(*a.*) Workshops, where women, young persons and children are employed.
(*b.*) Workshops where women are employed, but not young persons and children.
(*c.*) Workshops carried on in a private house, room or place, in which the only persons employed are members of the occupying family.

1002. In workshops of the first class the hours of work and meals and education are as strictly provided for as in factories, but, unless circumstances satisfy the Secretary of State that they are required, registers and certificates of fitness are not compulsory.

1003. In workshops of the second class the actual number of hours of work and meals is the same as in non-textile factories, but there is more elasticity of arrangement.

1004. In workshops of the third class, or "domestic workshops," as they are technically called, the hours of work and meals for children are the same as in non-textile factories but, here again, there is more elasticity of arrangement, and the employment of women is quite unrestricted.

1005. There are specially exempted, even from the regulations applicable to "domestic workshops," the

* The Act of 1864 was, I believe, passed in consequence of the recommendations contained in the First Report of the Children's Employment Commission, 1862.

[§ 1005.] following occupations, when carried on in a dwelling house by the family dwelling therein :—

(*a.*) Straw-plaiting.
(*b.*) Pillow-lace making.
(*c.*) Glove-making.
(*d.*) Other light occupations to which the Secretary of State may extend the exemption.

1006. Flax scutch mills, moreover, in which only women are employed, and employed intermittently, and for not more than six months in the year, are exempted from the regulations as to hours of labour and meals, while any handicraft which is exercised in a dwelling house by the indwelling family at irregular intervals, and does not furnish the whole or the principal means of their livelihood, is exempted altogether.

PART I.—WHAT THE LAW IS.

1007. A factory is any place where manufacturing processes are carried on by the aid of steam or water power, or other mechanical power, and any place where any of the 18 manufacturing processes enumerated above (par. 997) are carried on, whether "power" is used or not.

1008. Every other place where manufacturing processes are carried on is called a workshop.

1009. Workshops situated in private houses, rooms, or places in which the only persons employed are members of the same family dwelling therein are called domestic workshops.

1010. The Factory Acts apply to factories irrespective of the class of hands employed, and workshops where women, young persons, or children are employed.

1011. A woman is a female person over the age of 18.

1012. A young person is a male or female person between the ages of 14 and 18.

1013. A child is a male or female person under the age of 13.

1014. Children of the age of 13 can become young persons on passing a certain educational standard, as fixed by the local authorities, provided that such standard is as high as the fourth in England and Wales and the fifth in Scotland.

1015. The employment of children under 13 is conditional upon the passing of a lower educational standard, fixed for Scotland by Act of Parliament at the third, but left in England to the discretion of the local authorities.

1016. The employment of children under 11 in a factory or workshop is altogether prohibited.

1017. A child or young person may not be employed in the silvering of mirrors by the mercurial process, or in the making of white lead.

1018. A child or female young person may not be employed in melting or annealing glass.

1019. A female under 16 may not be employed in brickmaking or saltmaking.

1020. A child may not be employed in dry grinding in the metal trades, or where lucifer match dipping is carried on.

1021. Every workshop is to be kept in a cleanly state, free from effluvia, &c., to be well ventilated, and not overcrowded.

1022. The administration of this provision is vested in the local sanitary authorities.

1023. If an inspector under the Factory Acts observe a "nuisance" in a workshop, remediable under the Public Health Acts, or in a factory, remediable under the law relating to health, but not under the Factory Acts, he must report the matter to the local sanitary authority instead of dealing with it himself.

1024. The administration of all the succeeding provisions is vested in the inspectors under the Factory Acts.

1025. Every factory is to be kept in a cleanly state, free from effluvia, &c., to be well ventilated, and not overcrowded.

1026. The inside of every factory is to be washed once in 14 months with lime, or painted in oil or varnished once in seven years, and washed once in 14 months with hot water and soap.

1027. The Secretary of State may exempt from the above provision any class of factory, or part thereof, not requiring it for the purpose of cleanliness.

1028. Bakehouses are to be washed with lime once in six months, or, if painted in oil, with hot water and soap.

1029. A child, young person, or woman shall not be employed in wet spinning, unless means are taken [§ 1029.] to prevent their being wetted, and to prevent the escape of steam.

1030. Where dust is generated by grinding, glazing, or polishing in a factory or workshop, a fan shall be provided to prevent the inhalation of dust.

1031. Every hoist, teagle, steam engine or water wheel, and all mill-gearing and dangerous machinery is to be securely fenced.

1032. The employment of a child in cleaning machinery in motion, and of a child, young person or woman in cleaning mill-gearing in motion, is prohibited.

1033. The employment of any child, young person, or woman between fixed and traversing parts of a self-acting machine is forbidden.

1034. Notice of all fatal accidents in factories or workshops must be sent to the inspector and to the certifying surgeon.

1035. Notice of all accidents in factories caused by machinery moved by power, and being of a sufficiently serious nature to prevent the injured person returning to work for at least five hours on any day during the next three days after the accident, must be sent to the inspector and certifying surgeon.

1036. Notice of all accidents in factories or workshops caused by an unfenced vat or pan, and being of a sufficiently serious nature to prevent the injured person returning to his work for at least five hours on any day during the next three days after the accident, must be sent to the inspector and certifying surgeon.

1037. The certifying surgeon must make a report to the inspector of the nature of the injuries sustained in such cases.

1038. If any person suffer bodily injury from neglect of fence, the occupier of the factory or workshop is liable to a penalty of 100*l.*, which may be applied by the Secretary of State for the benefit of the injured person.

1039. Sufficient means of escape from fire must be provided in every factory.

1040. The Secretary of State may require special rules to be adopted in any factory or workshop where the incidents of employment are specially dangerous.

1041. Except as respects young persons in paper mills, no child, young person, or woman may be employed in a factory or workshop on Sunday; but, if the occupier be of the Jewish religion, and close his factory on Saturday, both before and after sunset, he may employ any Jewish young persons and women on Sunday as if Sunday were Saturday.

1042. Women, young persons and children may be employed only during the statutory periods of employments.

1043. For women and young persons, the statutory period of employment in factories and workshops is ordinarily either between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m. or between 7 a.m. and 7 p.m. including the statutory meal hours mentioned below (par. 1056 *et seq.*)

1044. For women and young persons employed in the works named in Schedule 3, Part I., the period of employment may be between 8 a.m. and 8 p.m.

1045. The Secretary of State may add other establishments to those enumerated in the Schedule.

1046. On Saturday, if work commences at 6 a.m., and if not less than one hour is allowed for meals, all manufacturing processes in textile factories must cease at 1 p.m. and all other work at 1.30 p.m.

1047. On Saturday, if work commences at 6 a.m., and if less than one hour be given for meals, all manufacturing processes in textile factories must cease at 12.30 p.m. and all other work at 1 p.m.

1048. On Saturday, if work commences at 7 p.m., all manufacturing processes in textile factories must cease at 1.30 p.m. and all other processes at 2 p.m.

1049. On Saturday, all work in non-textile factories in workshops must cease at 2 p.m. in all cases, with the following exceptions.

1050. When the period of employment is between 8 a.m. and 8 p.m., or between 9 a.m. and 9 p.m., work in non-textile factories and workshops may continue on Saturday until 4 p.m.

1051. When working in day and night shifts, male young persons may be employed in non-textile factories and in workshops on Saturday for the same period as on other days of the week.

1052. In Turkey red dye works, work may continue on Saturday until 4.30 p.m.

1053. The Secretary of State is authorised under certain circumstances to permit another half-holiday for Saturday in the case of non-textile factories and workshops.

[§ 1054.] 1054. Where the hours of work have not exceeded eight in any one week, they may be extended to eight hours on Saturday in a non-textile factory or workshop.

1055. If the occupier of a factory or workshop be of the Jewish religion, and close his establishment on Saturday until sunset, he may employ young persons and women, but not children, between sunset and 9 p.m. on that day.

1056. All young persons and women employed in textile factories must be given two hours for meals during the period of employment on ordinary days, and at least one of these hours must be given before 3 p.m.

1057. All young persons and women employed in non-textile factories and in workshops must be given one hour and a half for meals during the period of employment, and at least one hour before 3 p.m.

1058. No young persons or women may be employed in a textile factory for more than 4½ hours, or in a non-textile factory or a workshop for more than five hours without an interval of half-an-hour, except in the case of the establishments named in Schedule 3, Part 7, of the Act of 1878, and those placed in the same category by order of the Secretary of State.

1059. In all factories, other than those named in Schedule 3, Part 2, of the Act of 1878, all children, young persons, and women are to have their meal-times at the same periods of the day.

1060. In all factories other than those named in the said part of the said Schedule, a child, young person, or woman shall not remain in any room where a manufacturing process is being carried on, or be employed during a meal-time.

1061. Meals are not to be taken in certain parts of glassworks, lucifer match works, and earthenware works.

1062. The Secretary of State has power to prohibit meals being taken in places injurious to health.

1063. Children may be employed in factories or workshops only in morning and afternoon shifts, or in alternate whole day shifts.

1064. Otherwise, the ordinary period of employment for children coincides with that of young persons and women.

1065. But in no case may a child be employed after 8 p.m.

1066. If children are employed in morning and afternoon shifts, the morning set must cease work at the commencement of the dinner hour or 1 p.m., whichever is the earliest, and the afternoon set may begin at the end of the dinner hour or at 1 p.m., whichever is earliest.

1067. In non-textile factories and workshops, if children are employed in morning and afternoon shifts, the morning shift must end and the afternoon shift may begin at the same times on Saturdays as on other days.

1068. In textile factories a child may not be employed on Saturday in two successive weeks, nor on Saturday in any week, if on any other day in the week he has worked more than five hours and a half.

1069. In non-textile factories and in workshops a child may not be employed in two successive weeks in a morning shift, or in two successive weeks in an afternoon shift.

1070. Children employed in alternate whole day shifts may work as young persons, but they must always have at least two hours for meals, must not work on two successive days, or on the same days in two successive weeks.

1071. No child may be employed for more than four-and-a-half hours in textile factories not mentioned in Schedule 3, Part 2, or five hours in the textile factories mentioned in that Schedule, or in non-textile factories and in workshops, without an interval of half an hour.

1072. Every child, young person, and woman employed in a factory or workshop shall be allowed the following holidays:—Christmas Day, and either Good Friday, or the next public holiday under the Holidays' Extension Act, 1875; but, in Scotland, other days may be substituted for Christmas Day and Good Friday, and, in Ireland, the 17th of March or Easter Tuesday may be substituted for Good Friday.

1073. In a factory or workshop where both employer and employed are all Jews, any two Bank Holidays may be substituted for Christmas Day and Good Friday.

1074. In addition to these whole holidays, during no part of which may children, young persons and women be employed, there must be eight half-holidays, or four extra whole holidays, of which one-half must be given between March 15th and October 1st.

[§ 1075.] 1075. A half holiday shall comprise one half of the period of employment on some other day than Saturday.

1076. Notice of holidays must be fixed up in the factories and workshops.

1077. The Secretary of State is authorised to permit the holidays under certain conditions to be given to different sets on different days.

1078. Male young persons working in day and night shifts need not have the eight half-holidays.

1079. The parent of every child employed in a factory or workshop shall cause such child to attend a recognised efficient school for one school attendance on each day of every week during any part of which he may be employed.

1080. A child employed on alternate days must attend school for two school attendances on each alternate day.

1081. Attendance at school must be made between 8 p.m. and 6 p.m.

1082. A child is not required to attend schools on Saturdays, or on any holiday or half-holiday in pursuance of this Act.

1083. When there is not a certified efficient school within 2 miles of the child's residence, the child may attend some other school, temporarily approved by an inspector.

1084. A child who has failed to attend school regularly cannot be employed the following week, unless the deficient attendances be made up.

1085. The occupier shall procure certificates from a schoolmaster of the school attendances of the children employed in his factory or workshop, and keep such certificates for two months, and produce the same to the inspector.

1086. The school managers may apply in writing to the said occupier to pay the school fees, not exceeding 3*d.* per week, or one-twelfth of the wages of a child, which the occupier may deduct from the wages of the child.

1087. When a child of thirteen has obtained a certificate of proficiency, either of having passed the prescribed standard, or of having attended school the prescribed number of attendances, he is deemed to be a young person.

1088. A person under 16 shall not be employed in a factory for more than seven, or, if the certifying surgeon resides more than three miles from the factory, 13 working days, unless the occupier has obtained a certificate in the prescribed form, of the fitness of such person for employment.

1089. The Secretary of State may require similar certificates to be obtained in workshops.

1090. The occupier of a workshop may require the certifying surgeon to grant certificates as if his workshop were a factory.

1091. A certificate of fitness shall not be given unless a certificate of birth be produced, or other proof of real age.

1092. When an inspector considers any person under 16 unfit to work in a factory, he may give notice to the occupiers, and the person shall not be employed more than seven days, unless pronounced by the certifying surgeon to be fit for work.

1093. An inspector may annul a certificate of a certifying surgeon, if the certificate of the age of the person named therein was not produced.

1094. When a child becomes a young person, a fresh certificate of fitness must be obtained.

1095. A certificate of fitness shall be granted only on personal examination.

1096. The same certificate of fitness may be valid for all the factories in the occupation of the same occupier in the district of the same certifying surgeon.

1097. A certifying surgeon shall examine persons only at the factory where such persons are employed, unless the number of children and young persons is less than five, or unless specially allowed by an inspector.

1098. The certifying surgeons are to be appointed by the inspectors.

1099. The occupier shall pay the certifying surgeon according to a specified scale of fees.

1100. Where there is no certifying surgeon within 3 miles, the poor law medical officer shall act as such.

1101. Male young persons of 16 years of age may be employed in lace factories between 4 a.m. and 10 p.m. under certain conditions.

1102. Male young persons of 16 years of age may be employed in bakehouses between 5 a.m. and 9 p.m. under certain conditions.

[§ 1103.] 1103. If the occupier of a factory or workshop be of the Jewish religion, and keep his factory closed on Saturday, both before and after sunset, he may employ the young persons and women one extra hour on every other week day, but not before 6 a.m. or after 9 p.m.

1104. The Secretary of State may authorise the employment of young persons and women to recover lost time in water mills, at the rate of one hour per day, for not exceeding 96 days in case of drought, and not exceeding 48 days in case of flood.

1105. Where cleanliness, &c., is deficient the Secretary of State may, by order, direct the adoption of special means as a condition of the exceptional employment in any factory or workshop.

1106. Where an exception has been authorised, and it is found to be injurious to health, the Secretary of State may, by order, rescind such authorisation.

1107. Young persons and women may be employed for 14 hours, including two hours for meals, between 6 a.m. and 8 p.m., or between 8 a.m. and 10 p.m., in the works named in Schedule 3, Part 3, for not more than five days in a week, and 48 in a year, and in the works named in Schedule 3, Part 5, for 96 days in a year.

1108. The Secretary of State is authorised to extend these provisions to other factories and workshops under certain conditions.

1109. If a process be incomplete at the end of the period of employment in the works named in Schedule 3, Part 4, children, young persons, and women may be employed for 30 minutes beyond the period of employment, provided that the hours of work do not exceed the hours of work allowed by law.

1110. The Secretary of State is authorised to extend these provisions under certain conditions.

1111. Young persons and women may be employed, so far as is necessary to prevent damage from spontaneous combustion, in Turkey-red dyeing, and from atmospheric influence in open air bleaching.

1112. Male young persons may be employed on day and night shifts in the factories named in Schedule 3, Part 6.

1113. The Secretary of State is authorised to permit the employment of male young persons under 16 years of age, in night shifts.

1114. Male young persons of 16 years of age may be employed at night in any printing office in which the process of printing newspapers is carried on, on not more than two nights in a week.

1115. Male young persons may be employed in glass works according to the accustomed hours of the works under certain conditions.

1116. The Secretary of State may authorise the employment of male young persons of 16 years of age as adult males in bakehouses.

1117. There are to be hung up in every factory and workshop notices of the times of work and meals, an abstract of the Act, and the names of inspectors and certifying surgeons. Also, a clock by which the hours of work are regulated.

1118. Notices of special exceptions are to be hung up, and overtime worked under a special exception is to be entered in a register.

1119. A register of young persons under 16 years of age is to be kept in every factory, with details as prescribed by the Secretary of State, and extracts from this register are to be sent to the inspector when required.

1120. The Secretary of State may require similar registers to be kept in workshops.

1121. The hours of work are to be regulated by a public clock in all factories and workshops.

1122. Any person found in a factory while machinery is in motion, or while a manufacturing process is carried on, is deemed to be employed unless the contrary is proved.

1123. The occupier of every newly opened factory or workshop is to send notice of the fact to the inspector within a month.

1124. Inspectors of weights and measures are authorised to examine all instruments used for checking wages, &c., in factories and workshops.

1125. The following are the special provisions governing workshops conducted on the system of not employing children and young persons:—(*a.*) The period of employment shall be for a specified period of 12 hours, between 6 a.m. and 10 p.m., and eight hours between 6 a.m. and 4 p.m. on Saturdays. (*b.*) There shall be allowed to each woman for meals and absence from work, one hour and a half between such periods of employment, except on Saturday, when any interval not less than half an hour shall suffice.

[§ 1126.] 1126. The only regulations which apply to domestic workshops are the following:—

(*a.*) The period of employment for a young person shall be between 6 a.m. and 9 p.m. on ordinary days, and on Saturdays between 6 a.m. and 4 p.m.

(*b.*) There shall be allowed to each young person between such periods of employment, four hours and a half, except on Saturday, and, on Saturday, two hours and a half.

(*c.*) The period of employment for a child shall be between 6 a.m. and 1 p.m. or between 1 p.m. and 8 p.m., or 4 p.m. on Saturdays.

(*d.*) A child shall be employed in morning and afternoon sets changing every week.

(*e.*) The parent of a child must cause his child to attend school.

(*f.*) A child shall attend school daily for one school attendance.

(*g.*) A child shall not be employed for more than five hours without an interval of half an hour.

(*h.*) No child or young persons shall work on Sunday.

(*i.*) No overtime shall on any account be worked.

1127. The enactments respecting inspection, legal proceedings, fines, definition of terms, &c., apply both to workshops conducted on the system of not employing young persons and children, and, with the exception of the maximum amount of the fines, to domestic workshops.

1128. The labour of women in domestic workshops is unrestricted.

1129. In flax scutch mills, in which women only are employed intermittently, and for not more than six months in the course of the year, their labour is entirely unrestricted, but the mills are subject to the sanitary regulations, and those relating to the fencing of machinery, &c.

1130. The occupations of straw-plaiting, pillow-lace making, glove-making, and the manufacture of light articles, where the labour is exercised at irregular intervals, and does not furnish the principal means of living to the family exercising them in a private house, are entirely exempted from the provisions of the Factory Acts.

PART II.—HOW THE LAW WORKS.

1131. Most of the evidence dealing with the general operation of the Factory Acts was given before the witnesses had experienced the effect of the changes made by the Act of 1891. The following précis of the Annual Report of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector for 1892 may, therefore, prove of interest.

1132. The provisions of the Act of 1891 established an important division of duties in connexion with workshop inspection. To the local authority has now been delegated the enforcement of sanitary regulations in all workshops, and though too much importance cannot be placed on the advantages which would arise from harmonious working between the factory inspectors and the local authorities, such co-operation is very far from being universal.

1133. Until recently, the inadequate number of Her Majesty's Inspectors hindered an effective enforcement of the law, but the addition of inspectors' assistants promises to make a material improvement in this respect, especially in the metropolis.

1134. With respect to the fencing of machinery it is universally acknowledged that the insertion of the words "dangerous parts of the machinery" in section five, sub-section three, is one of the most valuable and important amendments in the 1891 Act, the benefit of which to the operatives is very great.

1135. The enactment requiring the notice as to overtime to be hung up in the workroom has been a most useful check on illegal overtime, as it enables the workpeople to see for themselves how many days have been reported to the inspector of factories.

1136. The order for lists of out-workers to be kept by the occupiers of factories or workshops in various occupations has been readily complied with; but warehousemen or others who only give out the materials, but do nothing in the way of manufacture on their premises not being included, leaves a gap which may be worthy of consideration in future legislation. These

[§ 1136.] lists, moreover, should be specially useful to the sanitary authorities.

1137. Mr. T. Birtwistle has been appointed to administer section 24 of the Act of 1891, which requires particulars to be supplied to the worker in cases of payment by the piece, and his reports show that there has been a general compliance with the requirement, which has proved of great benefit to the operatives.

1138. Much good has been accomplished under the Cotton Cloth Factories Act, 1889.

1139. There is a very general demand for the effective registration of all workshops, and the present regulations do not appear to meet the case. The Act of 1891, which by section 26 requires a notice of the opening of every workshop, as well as of every factory, to be sent to an inspector, was a great advance in the right direction, but the Chief Inspector does not think it will accomplish the object in view without a system of certificates or licenses granted by the local authorities. Recommendations for better registration come from all quarters, trade unions, masters' associations, and inspectors all agreeing with the following remarks in paragraph 9 of Lord Dunraven's draft report:—"In "times of great pressure of work, houses of considerable eminence seem to be occasionally driven "to the employment of sweaters. In compulsory "registration and the rigid enforcement of sanitary "regulations can alone be found the means of "effectually coping with an evil which may at any "time set an epidemic raging in the heart of London "or one of our great towns."

1140. Compulsory registration of new workshops is now part of the law, but the Chief Inspector thinks that the main points aimed at would be better secured by a provision requiring all workshops to be licensed or certificated. The granting of such certificates, he considers, could be easily carried out by the appointment of a registrar by every local authority.

1141. In fact, the recommendations of the Chief Inspector are as follows:—

1st. That the occupiers of workshops should be required to obtain a certificate or license from a registrar to be appointed by the local authority, for which they should pay a small fee.

2nd. That, within three months from the granting of the certificate, the workshops should be visited by the sanitary authority, and the license signed by him to show the date of his visit.

3rd. That if the workshop should be found not to be in such a sanitary condition as is required by the Public Health Act, the medical officer of health should be empowered to take proceedings at once against the owner of the property.

4th. That not only occupiers of factories and workshops, but all contractors and shopkeepers who employ out-workers should keep lists of such out-workers, and be only permitted to employ those who occupy licensed factories or workshops. If the name of any out-worker be omitted from the list, or if any person be employed as an out-worker whose workplace is unlicensed, the employer of such out-worker should be liable to a substantial penalty.

5th. That the sanitary officer of the local authority should report to the medical officer of health such places as employ females, young persons, or children, whose hours of labour are restricted by the Factory Acts, and that lists of such places only should be forwarded to Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Factories, Home Office.

1142. The Chief Inspector's report concludes as follows:—"Public opinion has become, and is becoming "growingly sensitive to the evils against which State "inspection is aimed, and proportionately vigilant and "exacting as to the manner in which it is worked. "It would not be possible for the present staff of "inspectors of factories to visit the lower class "of workshops and trace the out-workers. With "proper supervision a lower class of officers would be "sufficient to fulfil the duties, which are now left "to the Factory Department, since the sanitation "of all workshops has been transferred to the local "authorities."

1143. "The arrangements" recently "made for the "appointment of such a class of inspectors in "London, who will be under the superintendence "of Mr. Lakeman, and who will examine the lists of "out-workers and visit where necessary, will, I believe, "meet the requirements of the case, so far as London "is concerned, and I hope in my next report, that "I shall be able to show that the results justify the [§ 1143.] "system being carried further than in London and "Glasgow, to which centres the work is at present "to be mainly confined."

1144. "The proposed appointment of two women "inspectors, one in London and one in Glasgow, who "are to be peripatetic, will enable me to send a female "inspector to make special inquiries amongst female "operatives, where from the nature of the complaint, "it may be considered desirable, and I hope good "results will follow from the change."

1145. "It is of great importance that there should be "recognised permanent public offices in the principal "centres of industry. The exhibition of notices at "the post office and police stations, the publication "of orders in the Board of Trade Journal, and, above "all, the valuable assistance of the public press have "contributed to greater publicity, and the establishment of the proposed offices, in different centres for "Her Majesty's Superintending Inspectors, will aid in "making the provisions of the Act and the sources "whence information can be obtained more generally "known."

1146. "The increase of the population, especially in "the large centres of industry, naturally leads to a "proportionate increase in the number of factories "and workshops, and the staff which was able to some "extent to meet the requirements of the smaller "number is insufficient to deal adequately with the "increased demands made upon it; consequently, to "enable the department properly to fulfil its duties, "it will be needful to make from time to time an "addition to the number of inspectors. The addition "to the staff made during the year have strengthened "the department, but I think it will be necessary to "add to the number of assistants who would aid "Her Majesty's Inspector of Factories in clerical work "(which now occupies too much of their time) as well "as in the general visitation of the workshops, including "those of the out-workers."

PART III. — WHAT THE LAW OUGHT TO BE IN THE OPINION OF THE WITNESSES.

1147. Both the factory inspectors and the men's representatives were almost unanimous in thinking that the factory inspectors should have the same power in regard to the sanitary condition of workshops as they possess in regard to that of factories.

1148. The representatives of the textile workers desired the use of shuttle guards to be enforced, and Mr. E. P. Arnold Forster, representing the Bradford Chamber of Commerce, said that he considered it to be a protection which the workpeople might justly demand.

1149. Several witnesses desired the hours within which machinery should be stopped and cleaned to be specified in the text of the Act.

1150. The representatives of the Sheffield Federated Trades' Council wished to re-enact section 3 of the Act of 1878, repealed in 1891, relating to the use of faulty grindstones, but without the seven days' notice proviso.

1151. The same witnesses desired the inspectors to have power to deal with the faulty construction of workshops.

1152. The representatives of the Boilermakers' and Iron Shipbuilders' Society desired the jurisdiction of the factory inspectors to be extended to all spars and planks used in the construction of staging, and to all ropes and chains upon which staging is suspended.

1153. The representatives of the Boilermakers' and Iron Shipbuilders' Society wished all users of boilers to be obliged to have them inspected by certificated boilermakers appointed for the purpose.

1154. Several witnesses desired Union officials to be given independent legal standing at inquests.

1155. It was also proposed to give the relatives of the deceased, in addition to the right of attending inquests and examining witnesses, either personally or by counsel, the further right, at present conferred only upon a majority of the fellow workmen, of appointing Union officials, instead of solicitors, to represent them.

[§ 1156.] 1156. Some witnesses, moreover, desired to confine the composition of coroners' juries to persons connected with the trade in which the fatal accident occurred.

1157. All the Scotch Trade Union representatives wished to render unnecessary the fifth sub-section of section 33 of the Act of 1891 by a complete assimilation of Scotch to English law on the subject of inquests into the causes of fatal accidents.

1158. Several of the representatives of the textile workers wished to enforce the issue to weavers of cards containing full particulars as to their rate of payment.

1159. On the other hand, the employers considered the law on the point to be too strict already, and desired it to be made more elastic.

1160. A large number of witnesses, especially from the nail-making and other similar industries, desired to compel employers to find accommodation for all their workpeople instead of sending work to domestic workshops.

1161. Some witnesses, however, would prefer to bring every place where more than one person worked, even if no wages passed, under the definition of a workshop proper.

1162. Mr. C. Booth proposed to make owners of houses used for industrial purposes responsible for the observance of the Factory Acts on the part of their tenants.

1163. Mr. Sidney Webb further proposed to make every giver-out of work responsible for the observance of the Factory Acts in whatever place he allowed the work to be done.

1164. The employers wished a similar latitude to be allowed for steaming in factories under the Cotton Cloth Factories Act as for overtime.

1165. The representatives of the red-lead workers wished the Act of 1883, relating to white-lead factories to apply to their industry also.

1166. The representatives of the Amalgamated Society of Bakers proposed—

(*a.*) To prohibit underground bakeries.
(*b.*) To cause all bakeries to be registered.
(*c.*) To cause all bakeries to be built inside of white glazed brick.

1167. A large number of witnesses, notably Mr. J. Bignold, the Factory Inspector for Devon and Cornwall, wished overtime to be abolished unconditionally.

1168. Several of the employers, on the other hand, desired greater elasticity in the law relating to this matter, and this opinion was endorsed by Mr. J. Henderson, the Superintending Inspector for Scotland and the North of England.

1169. Some of the Trade Union representatives were in favour of one or other of the following proposals:—

(*a.*) To make the medical examination of factory children periodical.
(*b.*) To let one registration and one certificate hold good permanently.
(*c.*) To require medical certificates in workshops as well as in factories.
(*d.*) To make the certifying surgeons as thoroughly independent of the millowners as the inspectors.
(*e.*) To appoint a medical inspector to judge whether women are capable of performing the tasks allotted to them without physical injury.

1170. A large number of witnesses, notably Dr. Tatham, a medical officer of health, wished the period during which young mothers are excluded from factories, to be extended, and a similar period of exclusion to be specified before, as well as after confinement.

[§ 1171.] 1171. The Nailmakers' Trade Unions desired female nailmakers to be forbidden to point nails larger than half an inch.

1172. Mr. Shortt and Mr. Tees, representing the barmen, desired to bring public-houses under the Factory Acts, and prohibit the employment of barmaids.

1173. The tailors' representatives wished employers to be compelled to provide separate rooms for male and female workers in the trade.

1174. The representatives of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers desired the definition of "young person" to apply to all persons under the age of 21.

1175. Several proposals as to the employment of children were made by Trade Union, school teachers' and employers' representatives, as their respective interests required. They were as follows:—

(*a.*) To raise the age of half-timers to 12.
(*b.*) To raise the age of half-timers to 13, and so to abolish the half-time system.
(*c.*) To fix an educational standard instead of an age as the qualification for half-time work.
(*d.*) To let such standard be the fourth.
(*e.*) To let age and attendances be the sole qualification for half-time work, and to let such attendances be the aggregate for a school career instead of so many per annum.
(*f.*) To make the methods by which half-timers attend school more uniform.
(*g.*) To provide separate schools for half-timers.
(*h.*) To prohibit the employment of children under 13 before 8.0 a.m. between October 1st and March 31st.
(*i.*) To prohibit all child labour under 14.
(*j.*) To allow children to enter the mills at 10 years of age.
(*k.*) To raise the age of full-timers.
(*l.*) To fix an educational standard instead of an age for full-timers.
(*m.*) To let the said standard be the sixth.
(*n.*) To let age and attendances be the sole qualification for full-timers, and to let the attendances be an aggregate for a school career, instead of so many per annum.

1176. It was proposed to extend the Acts in the following manner:—

(*a.*) To warehouses.
(*b.*) To outdoor work in shipyards.

1177. Mr. J. Rawlinson, representing the North-east Lancashire Cotton Manufacturers' Association, wished penalties under the Act to be imposed upon the actual wrongdoer, and not necessarily on the employer.

1178. Mr. Murray Davis, representing the Irish National Federation of Bakers, desired the administration of the Factory Acts in small Irish provincial towns to be vested in the police.

1179. Several witnesses, including Mr. J. Henderson, the Superintending Factory Inspector for Scotland and the North of England, desired the Factory Department to be made independent of the Home Office.

1180. Mrs. Amie Hicks, representing the London Ropemakers' Union, desired employers under the Factory Acts to be obliged to furnish balance-sheets to the Board of Trade, to be used as indicating what wages they could afford to pay.

1181. The employers all desired the administration of the Acts to be made more elastic.

1182. The men's representatives all desired it to be made more strict; and, with this end in view, proposed a large increase in the staff of inspectors, especially by the addition of working men and women in sympathy with the Trade Unions.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.

APPENDIX IX.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF CERTAIN IMPORTANT INDUSTRIAL ENACTMENTS.

The Secretary was directed to draw up, for the use of the Commission, a Tabular Statement under the following heads with regard to certain Acts of Parliament, and the Administrative Orders relating to the said Acts, showing what Authority is in each case competent.

[*The Acts relating to Arbitration and Conciliation and Employers' Liability, the Artisans and Labourers' Dwellings Act, the Housing of the Working Classes Act, the Trade Union Act, the Bank Holiday Act, etc. have not been dealt with, as they do not fall under the heads in question, which were selected in order to show the variety of Departments exercising authority with regard to the enforcement of certain important industrial enactments.*]

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[§ 1183. A. 1 (a).] 1183. PROTECTION OF CHILDREN, YOUNG PERSONS, AND WOMEN. [§ 1183 A. 1 (a)

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
		A.—FACTORY AND WORKSHOPS.		
		1. GENERAL LAW.		
		(a.) *Sanitary Provisions.*		
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891 (54 & 55 Vict. c. 75).	3 (3)	Notice by medical officer of health to inspector of factories of employment of child, young person, or woman, in workshop.	Home Department.	—
		(b.) *Safety.*		
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16).	9	Restrictions on children, young persons, and women cleaning machinery in motion.	"	—
		(c.) *Restrictions on, and periods of, Employment; Meal Hours; Holidays.*		
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	Ss. 11–5(1) 17.	Period of employment, and regulations as to meal times in case of children, young persons, and women employed in the textile factories, non-textile factories, and workshops.	"	—
The White Lead Factories and Bakehouses Act (46 & 47 Vict. c. 53).	14			
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	13, 15			
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	16	Children and young persons belonging to same family employed in domestic factory or workshop.	"	—
Ditto -	19	Fixing and notice of period of employment, meal times, and mode of employment of children.	"	—
Ditto -	20	Prohibition of employment of children under 10, and of children under 11, unless in employment on January 1st, 1893.	"	—
The Factory and Workshop Act 1891.	18			
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	21	Prohibition of employment of children, young persons, or women on Sunday.	"	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	17	Prohibition of employment of women after child-birth.	"	—
The Elementary Education Act, 1880.	4	Further restrictions as to employment of children, enforcement of restrictions by inspector.	Education Department.	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	22	Days to be observed as holidays and half-holidays in factories and workshops.	Home Department.	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	16			
		(d.) *Education of Children.*		
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	23–5	Attendance of children at school; payment of occupier of factory, &c. for schooling, and deduction from wages.	Home and Education Departments.	1878, Dec. 24. Order of Secretary of State (England) defining "Attendance," "London Gazette," 31st Dec. 1878, p. 7433. 1878, Dec. 24. Order of Secretary of State (Scotland) defining "Attendance," "Edinburgh Gazette," 31st Dec. 1878, p. 1077. 1879, Feb. 15. Order of Secretary of State (Ireland) defining "Attendance," "Dublin Gazette," 4th March 1879, p. 169.

[§ 1183. 1 (d.)]

1183. Protection of Children, Young Persons, and Women—*continued.*

[§ 1183. A. 1 (d.)]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	26	Employment as young persons of children of 13 obtaining certificates of proficiency, or of due attendance at school.	Home and Education Departments.	1893, Aug. 7. Order of Secretary of State fixing the "Standards" as regards England from and after 1st Sept. 1893, "London Gazette," 8th Aug. 1893. 1892, Feb. 20. Order of Secretary of State fixing the "Standards" as regards England. Statutory Rules and Orders, 1892, p. 465. 1892, Aug. 16. Order of Secretary of State postponing operation of Order of 20th Feb. Statutory Rules and Orders, 1892, p. 467. 1879, Feb. 15. Order of Secretary of State postponing operation of Order of 20th Feb. (Ireland), "Dublin Gazette," 4th March 1879. 1879, Feb. 15. Order of Secretary of State postponing operation of Order of 20th Feb. (England), "London Gazette," 25th Feb. 1879. 1879, Feb. 15. Order of Secretary of State postponing operation of Order of 20th Feb. (Scotland), "Edinburgh Gazette," 29th Feb. 1879. 1886, Feb. 1. Order of Secretary of State rescinding Order of 15th Feb. 1879, "Edinburgh Gazette," 16th Feb. 1886
		(e.) *Certificates of Fitness for Employment.*		
Ditto -	27	Children or young persons under 16 not to be employed in factories without certificates of fitness.	Home Department.	——
Ditto -	28	Power to occupiers of workshops to obtain certificates of fitness of children and young persons under 16 employed therein.	„	——
Ditto -	29	Power to inspector to require surgical certificate of capacity of child or young person under 16 for employment.	„	——
Ditto -	30	Supplemental provisions as to certificates of fitness, certificate of birth.	Home Department and Local Government Board.	1891, Oct. 20. Order of the Local Government Board prescribing form of requisition for copy of Certificate of Birth.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	20			
		2. Special Provisions.		
		(a.) *Special Sanitary Provisions.*		
Ditto -	8–12	Special rules as to dangerous and unhealthy processes.	Home Department.	1892, May 9. Certificate of Secretary of State. Statutory Rules and Orders, 1892, p. 472. 1892, May 9. Certificate of Secretary of State. "Edinburgh Gazette," 17th May 1892, p. 643. 1892, May 9. Certificate of Secretary of State. "Dublin Gazette," 17th May 1892, p. 559. 1892, June 2. Certificate of Secretary of State. Statutory Rules and Orders, 1892, p. 473. 1892, June 2. Certificate of Secretary of State. "Edinburgh Gazette," 10th June 1892, p. 725. 1892, June 2. Certificate of Secretary of State. "Dublin Gazette," 10th June 1892, p. 681. 1892, Dec. 24. Certificate of Secretary of State. Statutory Rules and Orders, 1892, p. 474. Special rules of Chief Inspector of Factories relating to white lead works, lucifer-match making, manufacture of explosives, paints, colours, and in the extraction of arsenic enamelling of iron plates.

[§ 1183. A. 2 (a.)]

1183. Protection of Children, Young Persons, and Women—*continued.*

[§ 1183.]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	37	Prohibition of children, young persons, and women employed in wet spinning.	Home Department.	——
The White Lead Factories and Bakehouses Act, 1883.	2–6			
		(b.) *Special restrictions as to Employment, Meals, and Certificates of Fitness.*		
Ditto	38, Sch. I.	Prohibition of employment of children or young persons in certain factories and workshops where silvering of mirrors, white lead, brickmaking, finishing of salt, metal grinding, and match dipping is carried on.	,,	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	39, Sch. II.	Prohibition of taking meals or remaining during meal time in certain parts of factories or workshops.	,,	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State extending prohibition to parts of other factories and workshops. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6525.
Ditto	40	Period of employment and time for meals in print works and bleaching and dyeing works.	,,	——
Ditto	41	Power to require certificates of fitness for employment of children and young persons under 16 in certain workshops.	,,	——
		(c.) *Special Exceptions from General Law.*		
		(i.) *Period of Employment, Meal Hours, and Overtime, and Night Work.*		
Ditto	42, 43, Sch. 3, Pt. I.	Provision for alteration of period of employment for young persons and women in certain factories and workshops.	,,	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State extending the exception to the factories and workshops named therein. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6525. 1884, Aug. 30 Order of Secretary of State extending the exception to the factories and workshops named therein. "London Gazette," 2nd Sept. 1884, p. 3958. 1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State fixing the hours of work. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6526. 1887, April 27. Order of Secretary of State fixing the hours of work. "London Gazette," 3rd May 1887, p. 2446. 1884, Jan. 12. Order of Secretary of State fixing the hours of work in bookbinding factories in London. "London Gazette," 18th Jan. 1884, p. 292. 1884, April 15. Order of Secretary of State fixing the hours of work in drapers' retail establishments in Manchester and Salford. "London Gazette," 18th Apr. 1884, p. 1769.
Ditto	44	Power of working of male young persons above 16 in lace factories.	,,	——
Ditto	45	Power of working of male young persons above 16 in bakehouses.	,,	——
Ditto	46	Power of Secretary of State to substitute another half-holiday for Saturday.	,,	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State authorising. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6526.

§ 1183. A. 2 (c), i.]

1183. Protection of Children, Young Persons, and Women—*continued.*

[§ 1183. A. 2 (c).]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	47	Employment of young persons and women in Turkey red dyeing on Saturday up to 4.30 p.m.	Home Department.	——
Ditto	48, Sch. 3, Pt. 7.	Power of Secretary of State to permit the hours of work of young persons and women in textile factories to be continued for five hours.	„	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State permitting same. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6526.
Ditto	49	Giving half-holidays and holidays on different days to different sets of children, young persons, and women.	„	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State authorising same. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6527.
Ditto	50–51	Employment on Sunday of young persons and women by Jewish occupiers in factories or workshops.	„	——
Ditto	52, Sch. 3, Pt. 2.	Exception as to meal times being simultaneous, and as to employment or remaining in room where manufacturing process is carried on during meal times.	„	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State authorising. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6527. 1887, Feb. 24. Order of Secretary of State authorising. "London Gazette," 1st Mar. 1887, p. 1092.
Ditto The White-Lead Factories and Bakehouses Act (46 & 47 Vict. c. 53).	53 Sch. 3, Pt. 3. 13 (*a*).	*Employment of Overtime:* Of women and young persons in certain cases.	„	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State imposing such condition. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6529. 1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State extending such condition. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6528. 1883, Nov. 22. Order of Secretary of State extending such condition. "London Gazette," 27th Nov. 1883, p. 5861. 1884, Mar. 12. Order of Secretary of State extending such condition. "London Gazette," 14th Mar. 1884, p. 1263. 1884, Aug. 27. Order of Secretary of State extending such condition, "London Gazette," 2nd Sept. 1884, p. 3958. 1887. April 26. Order of Secretary of State extending above exception (partially rescinding Order of 27th Aug. 1884). "London Gazette," 10th May 1887, p. 2581. 1888, Mar. 28. Order of Secretary of State extending above exception. "London Gazette," 1st Apr. 1888, p. 2030. 1889, Sept. 10. Order of Secretary of State. "London Gazette," 17th Sept. 1889, p. 4992. 1889, Sept. 10. Order of Secretary of State. "Dublin Gazette," 20th Sept. 1889, p. 1018. 1889, Sept. 16. Order of Secretary of State. "London Gazette," 17th Sept. 1889, p. 4993. 1889, Sept. 16. Order of Secretary of State. "Dublin Gazette," 20th Sept. 1889, p. 1018. 1890, Oct. 13. Order of Secretary of State. Statutory Rules and Orders, 1890, p. 648. 1893, Aug. 18. Order of Secretary of State extending above exception to preparers of cream, butter, and cheese. "London Gazette," 22nd Aug. 1893.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	54, Sch. 3, Pt. 4.	Of children, young persons, and women, where the process is incomplete.	„	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State extending the exception. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6529.
Ditto	55	Of young persons and women in Turkey red dyeing and open air bleaching.	„	——

[§ 1183. A. 2 (c), i.]

1183. Protection of Children, Young Persons, and Women—*continued.*

[§ 1183. A. 2 (c), i.]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	56, Sch. 3, Pt. 5.	*Employment of Overtime:* Of women for 14 hours a day, to preserve perishable articles.	Home Department.	1893, Aug. 18. Order of Secretary of State extending special exception. "London Gazette," 22nd Aug. 1893.
The White-Lead Factories and Bakehouses Act, 1883.	13 (*b*)			
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	57	Of young persons and women in factories liable to be stopped by drought or flood.	„	1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State authorising the recovery of time lost. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6528.
Ditto	58, Sch. 3, Pt. 6.	Employment of male young persons at night in certain cases.		1882, Dec. 20. Order of Secretary of State authorising extension. "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6529.
Ditto	59	Of male young persons under 16 at night in printing newspapers in certain cases.	„	1882, June 26. Order of Secretary of State authorising extension. "London Gazette," 29th June 1888, p. 3563. 1882, June 26. Order of Secretary of State authorising extension. "Dublin Gazette," 3rd July 1888, p. 656. 1889, June 11. Order of Secretary of State authorising extension. "London Gazette," 14th June 1889, p. 3227. 1889, June 11. Order of Secretary of State authorising extension. "Dublin Gazette," 18th June 1889, p. 653.
Ditto	6	Of male young persons at night in glass works.	„	—
		(ii.) *Domestic and certain other Factories, &c.*		
Ditto	61	Exception of factories and workshops where only members of same family are employed from certain provisions.	„	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	21			
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	62	Exception of certain flax, scutch mills, from regulations as to employment of women.	„	—
		(iii.) *Supplemental.*		
Ditto	63	Power to require special sanitary provisions.	„	—
Ditto	64	Power to rescind order granting or extending exceptions which is injurious to health of children, young persons, and women, or which is no longer necessary.	„	—
Ditto	66	Notices, registers, reports, &c. by occupiers availing themselves of the employment, overtime, of a child, young person, or woman, in pursuance to an exception.	„	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	14			
		3. Administration of Law.		
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	73	Regulations as to grant of certificates of fitness to children and young persons.	„	—
Ditto	77	Registers of children and young persons and of outworkers to be kept in certain factories and workshops.	„	1892. Order of Secretary of State requiring occupiers of certain factories and workshops to keep such lists. Statutory Rules and Orders, 1892, p. 476–8; "Edinburgh Gazette," 8th Nov. 1892, p. 1222; "Dublin Gazette," 8th Nov. 1892, p. 1242.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	27			
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	83	Penalties for employing children, young persons, or women, contrary to the provisions of the Act.	„	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	28			

[§ 1183. A. 3.] 1183. PROTECTION OF CHILDREN, YOUNG PERSONS, AND WOMEN—*continued.* [§ 1183. A. 3.]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	84	Penalty on parents for allowing improper employment of children and young persons contrary to the Act, or neglecting to cause children to attend school.	Home Department.	—
		B.—MINING.		
The Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887 (50 & 51 Vict. c. 58).	4	Employment in any mine below ground of boys under 12 years of age and of girls and women prohibited.	„	—
Ditto -	5	Hours of employment of boys over 12 below ground limited to 54 in any one week, or more than 10 hours in any one day.	„	—
Ditto -	6	Regulations as to periods of employment of boys below ground. (*See also* limitation of the hours of labour.)	„	—
Ditto -	7	Regulations as to employment of boys, girls, and women above ground. (*See also* under limitation of the hours of labour.)	„	Power of the Secretary of State to exempt mines from certain provisions of the Act; these powers are more or less frequently exercised, but as the exemptions are local in character they are not published in this table.
Ditto -	8	Registration of boys, girls, and women employed in connexion with the mine.	„	—
Ditto -	75	Interpretation of "boy," "girl," and "woman."	„	—
The Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act, 1872 (35 & 36 Vict. c. 77).	4	Employment in any mine of whatever description (other than a mine to which the Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1872, applies) of boys under 12, and girls and women of any age prohibited.	„	—
Ditto -	5	Hours of employment of boys of the age of 12 and under 13, and of the age of 13 and under 16, below ground, limited to 54 hours per week, or more than 10 hours in any one day. (*See also* under the "limitation of the hours of labour.")	„	—
Ditto	6	Registration to be kept by owner, &c. of boys and male young persons employed in mines.	„	—
Ditto	7	Prohibition of employment of young persons under 18 in connexion with engines.	„	—
Ditto -	8	Penalty for employment of women, girls, young persons, or boys contrary to the Act.	„	—
		C.—MISCELLANEOUS.		
The Public Health (London) Act, 1891 (54 & 55 Vict. c. 76).	27	Medical officer of health to give notice to inspector of factories respecting child or woman in workshop in London.	„	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1883 (46 & 47 Vict. c. 53).	17 (2)	Duty of the medical officer of health to give notice to factory inspector of the district of the employment of any child, young person, or woman in any retail bakehouse.	—	—
The Shop Hours Act, 1892 (55 & 56 Vict. c. 62).	Whole Act	Regulation of hours of young persons in shops and warehouses not being employed as members of and servants in a family.	—	—

[§ 1183. C.] 1183. PROTECTION OF CHILDREN, YOUNG PERSONS, AND WOMEN—*continued.* [§ 1183. C.]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Children Dangerous Performance Act, 1879 (42 & 43 Vict. c. 34).	Whole Act	Penalty, not exceeding 10*l.*, for employment of any child under 14 in dangerous performances, and compensation for accident to any child under such age.	—	—
The Prevention of Cruelty to, and Protection of, Children Act, 1889 (52 & 53 Vict. c. 44).	3 and 13	Power for local authority to make byelaws, subject to confirmation by the Secretary of State, appointing places of safety, extending or restricting the hours during which the employment of children in streets or in licensed premises are prohibited. Provision also for byelaws for Scotland and Ireland.	Local Authority.	The byelaws issued and confirmed are excluded on account of their local character.
The Merchant Shipping (Fishing Boats) Act, 1883 (46 & 47 Vict. c. 41).	4	Apprenticeship to sea-fishing service. Agreements with boys under 16 to be entered into before a Superintendent of a Mercantile Marine Office, and with consent of the nearest relations or guardians.	Board of Trade.	—
Ditto -	6	Prohibition to boys under 13 entering into indenture of apprenticeship to the sea fishing service.	„	—
The Canal Boats Act, 1879 (40 & 41 Vict. c. 60).	6	Education of children dwelling on board canal boats.	Local Government Board and Education Department.	—
The Canal Boats Act, 1884 (47 & 48 Vict. c. 75).	5	Power given to the Education Department to make regulations as to school certificates.	„	—

1184. DIRECTIONS RELATING TO THE METHOD OF PAYMENT OF WAGES.

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
		(a.) *Manner and Place of Payment.*		
The Master and Servant (Truck Payment) Act, 1831 (1 & 2 Will. IV. c. 37).	I.	In the contracts for the hiring of artificers, the wages must be paid in the current coin of the realm.	Home Department (in so far as it applies to the duties of inspectors in factories and mines).	—
	II.	And must not contain any stipulations as to the manner in which the wages shall be expended.		
	III.	That the entire amount of the wages in any of the trades (enumerated) must be paid to the workmen in coin, any payment in goods declared illegal.		
	IV.	That artificers in any of the trades enumerated may recover wages, if not paid in the current coin.		
	V.	In an action brought to recover wages, no set-off shall be allowed for goods supplied by the employer, or by any shop in which the employer is interested.		
	VI.	No employer shall have any action against his artificer for goods supplied to him on account of wages.		
	VII.	If the artificer, or his wife, or children, become chargeable to the parish, the overseers may recover any wages earned within the three preceding months and not paid in cash.		
The Truck Amendment Act, 1887 (50 & 51 Vict. c. 46).	13	Duty of inspectors of factories and inspectors of mines to enforce the provisions of the principal Act so far as respects factories, mines, &c.	„	—
	2	Application of the above Act to workmen as employed in the Employers' and Workmen Act, 1875, section 10.		
	3	Illegal for the employer to withhold advance or make any deduction in respect of such advances in wages on account of poundage, discount, or interest, &c.		
	4	Contracts with servants in husbandry for giving food, drink, cottage, &c., in addition to money wages excepted.		
	5	Orders for goods supplied to workmen by employer or agent as a deduction for wages, illegal.		
	6	Contracts with workmen as to spending wages at any particular shop, &c., illegal. No employer or agent, moreover, shall dismiss any workmen from his employment for such reasons.		

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Truck Amendment Act, 1887 (50 & 51 Vict. c. 46.)	7	Deduction for education allowed.	Home Department (in so far as it applies to the duties of inspectors in factories and mines).	—
	8	No deduction from workmen's wages allowed for sharpening or repairing tools, except by agreement, not forming part of the condition of hiring.		
	9	Audit of deductions from wages for the education of children, medicine, medical attendance, tools by workmen's auditors provided for.		
	10	Articles made by a person at his own home or otherwise without the employment of any person, except a member of his own family, must be paid in cash and not by way of barter.		Power of Her Majesty by Order in Council to suspend this section in any county or place. This power has (Jan. 1st, 1893) not been exercised.
The Master and Servant (Ireland) Act, 1846 (9 Vict. c. 2).	20	Provides that contractors shall pay labourers in money and not in goods, and at intervals of not more than four days.	—	—
The Excise Duty upon Licenses for the Sale of Liquors, &c. (Ireland) Act, 1815 (55 Geo. III. c. 19).	64	Penalty (enacted) on persons agreeing to pay servants or workmen partly in money and partly in spirits.	—	—
	65	Penalty on persons paying servants or workmen in public-houses.		
The Payment of Wages in Public Houses Prohibition Act, 1883.	3	No wages shall be paid to any workmen at or within any public-house, beer-shop, &c., except such as are paid by the occupier to workmen, *bonâ fide* employed by him	—	—
		(b.) *Recovery at Law.*		
The Preferential Payments in Bankruptcy Act, 1888 (51 & 52 Vict. c. 62).	1	(*b.*) All wages and salaries of any clerk or servant in respect of services rendered to the bankrupt or the company during four months before the date of the receiving order or winding-up not exceeding 50*l.* to be paid in full, and in priority to all other debts (except Queen's and local taxes). (*c.*) And the same also to apply to all wages of labourers and workmen not exceeding 25*l.* for services rendered within two months of the receiving order or winding-up. Wages of labourers in husbandry contracted to be paid in a lump sum at the end of the year of hiring shall be payable in priority in respect of the whole of such sum, or a part thereof, as the court may decide.	Board of Trade (through Official Receivers, who are also officers of the High Court and the County Courts).	—
	Rule 220 of Bankruptcy Rules, 1886 and 1890.	Provision for collecting proofs to be made for workmen's wages, so as to avoid expense. Such proofs are also exempt from stamp duty.	,,	Order as to fees of 18th December 1890, Table A.
The Preferential Payments in Bankruptcy (Ireland) Act, 1889 (52 & 53 Vict. c. 60).	4	Provisions same as 51 & 52 Vict. c. 62 (above) - -	—	—
The Bankruptcy (Scotland) Law Amendment Act, 1875 (38 & 39 Vict. c. 26).	3	All wages of clerks, shopmen, and servants shall be entitled to the same privilege as the wages of domestic servants to the extent not exceeding four months wages, prior to the date of sequestration not exceeding the sum of 50*l.*, and the wages of workmen to the extent not exceeding two months.	—	—
The Employers and Workmen Act, 1875 (38 & 39 Vict. c. 90).	3	Power of the County Court to order payment of money as to wages, &c. set off, and recission of contract, and taking security.	—	—
The Recovery of Small Debts (Scotland) Act (1 Vict. c. 41).	—	All wages of labourers and manufacturers shall, so far as necessary for their subsistence be deemed alimentary, and, in like manner as servants' fees and other elementary funds, not liable to arrestment.	—	—

[§ 1184 (b).] 1184. DIRECTIONS RELATING TO THE METHOD OF PAYMENT OF WAGES—*continued.* [§ 1184 (b).]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Exercise of Authority.	
			Administrative Authority.	References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Summary Jurisdiction (Ireland) Act, 1851 (14 & 15 Vict. c. 12).	16	Lawful for any justices to hear and determine any dispute concerning any sums which may be due for wages, &c., and may order payment of sums due. . . and award compensation to servants, &c. as compensation (not exceeding 40*s.*) for loss of time in recovering wages . . . and make order for recovery of wages in cases of absence of their masters.	—	—
		(c.) *Attachment of Wages.*		
The Wages Attachment Abolition Act, 1870 (33 & 34 Vict. c. 30).	1	No order for the attachment of the wages of any servant, labourer, or workman shall be made by the judge of any court of record or inferior court, after the passing of this Act.	—	—
The Wages Arrestment Limitation (Scotland) Act, 1870 (33 & 34 Vict. c. 63).	1	Wages of all labourers, artificers, &c. shall cease to be liable to arrestment for debts contracted subsequent to the passing of this Act.	—	—
	2	But if the amount of wages exceeds 20*s.* per week, any surplus above that amount shall still be liable to arrestment as before the passing of this Act.		
	3	And also such debts incurred before the passing of the Act above the like amount.		
The Act to Amend the Law of Arrestment of Wages in Scotland, 1845 (8 & 9 Vict. c. 39).	Whole Act.	Arrestment of wages not competent on dependence of action.	—	—
		(d.) *Particular Industries.*		
The Hosiery Manufacture (Wages) Act, 1874 (37 & 38 Vict. c. 48).	1	The full and extra amount of all wages in the hosiery manufacture to be paid in current coin of the realm without any stoppages whatsoever, except for bad and disputed workmanship.	-	—
	2	All contracts to stop wages and for frame rents and charges declared illegal.		
	5	No action, &c. shall be allowed between employer and artificer for any deduction or stoppage of wages.		
The Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887 (50 & 51 Vict. c. 58).	10	Payment of school fees (not exceeding 2*d.* per week) may be deducted from the wages payable to the girl or boy.	Home Department.	—
	11	Prohibition of payment of wages at public-houses, beer-shops, &c.		
	12	(1.) Payment of wages to persons employed in mines according to the actual weight gotten by men allowed; deductions to be determined by an agent of the manager and a check-weigher appointed by the men.		
The Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act, 1872 (35 & 36 Vict. c. 77).	9	Prohibition of payment of wages at public-houses, beer-shops, &c.	,,	—
The Administration of Estates Act, 1705 (4 & 5 Anne c. 19).	16	All suits and actions in the Court of Admiralty for seamen's wages, which shall become due after the first day of Trinity term, shall be commenced and sued within six years next after the cause of such suits or actions shall accrue, and not after.	—	—
The Mercantile Law Amendment Act, 1856 (19 & 20 Vict. c. 97).	10	Absence beyond the seas . . . not a disability to any action or suit with respect to the period of limitation.	—	—
The Merchant Shipping Act, 1854 (17 & 18 Vict. c. 104).	149	Agreements, in a form sanctioned by the Board of Trade, to be made with all seamen, except those serving on coasting vessels of less than 80 tons, as to the amount of wages they are to receive, and as to advances and allotments.	Board of Trade.	—
	167	Any seaman, who has signed an agreement and is afterwards discharged before the commencement of the voyage, or before one month's wages are earned, without fault on his part, shall be entitled, in addition to any wages he may have earned, to due compensation for the damage thereby caused to him.	,,	
	168, 169	Agreement shall state the amounts and times of the payments of allotments of seamen's wages. The allotment notes shall be in the form sanctioned by the Board of Trade, which may be sued on summarily by certain persons and under certain conditions.	,,	

[§ 1184 (d).] **1184. Directions relating to the Method of Payment of Wages—*continued.*** [§ 1184 (d).]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Merchant Shipping Act, 1854 (17 & 18 Vict. c. 104).	170	Discharge and payment of wages of seamen on all British foreign-going ships who are discharged in the United Kingdom, shall be made before shipping master; and every master shall deliver to the seamen or shipping master a full and true account, in a form sanctioned by the Board of Trade, of all wages and deductions.	Board of Trade.	—
	173–74	Settlement of wages. Settlement by shipping masters of questions of wages.	,,	
	175	On settlement of wages a release, in a form sanctioned by Board of Trade, is to be signed before and attested by shipping master.	,,	
	177–80	Facilities shall, if the Board of Trade so direct, be given for remittances of the wages of seamen, and seamen's savings banks may be established.	,,	
		Legal rights to wages:		
	181	A seaman's rights to wages and provisions are to commence at the time he begins work, as specified in agreement for his commencement of work or presence on board ship.	,,	
	182	Any agreement of a seaman to give up rights to wages are to be void.	,,	
	183	No right to wages shall be dependent on the earning of freight.	,,	
	185	On the termination of his services owing to illness or wreck, before the period contemplated in the agreement, a seaman shall be entitled to wages for the time of service prior to such termination.	,,	
	186	Seamen's wages are not to accrue during refusal to work or imprisonment.	,,	
	187	Period within which wages are to be paid.	,,	
		Mode of recovering wages:		
	188	Seamen may sue for wages not exceeding 50*l.* in a summary manner.	,,	
	189	Suits for the recovery of wages in superior courts restricted to the sum of 50*l.* and over, except under special circumstances.	,,	
	190	No seaman engaged for a voyage to terminate in the United Kingdom can sue for wages abroad, except in cases of due discharge or of danger to his life.	,,	
	191	Masters are to have same remedies for recovery of wages as seamen.	,,	
		Relief to seamen's families out of poor rates:		
	192–3	Relief given to the families of seamen during their absence is chargeable on a certain proportion of their wages on their return.	,,	
		Wages and effects of deceased seamen:		
	194, 195	Masters are to take charge of or sell effects of seamen dying on board ships engaged in voyages to terminate in the United Kingdom, and enter the same and wages due in the official log, and hand the money and effects either to consul or shipping master, with full accounts, who shall remit them to the Board of Trade.	,,	
	199	If the wages and property of a deceased seaman do not exceed the value of 50*l.* the same may be paid over without probate or letters of administration to the persons entitled.	,,	
	202	All wages and effects of deceased seamen and apprentices received by the Board of Trade, to which no claim is substantiated within six years, shall be dealt with at the discretion of the said Board.	,,	
		Leaving seamen abroad:		
	209	Where wages are due to seamen left abroad on the ground of illness, the master must deliver a full and true account of them to the proper authority.	,,	
	228	Deduction of expenses of seamen's illness and burial from wages.	,,	
The Merchant Shipping Act, 1867 (30 & 31 Vict. c. 124).	7	Expenses of illness of seamen.	,,	—
	8	Forfeiture of wages of seamen during illness caused by own wilful act and default.	,,	—
The County Courts Admiralty Jurisdiction Act, 1868 (31 & 32 Vict. c. 71).	3	Any County Court having Admiralty jurisdiction shall have power to determine . . . . . (2.) Any claim . . . . . for wages not exceeding 150*l.*	,,	—

[§ 1184 (d).] **1184. Directions relating to the Method of Payment of Wages—*continued*.** [§ 1484 (d).]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Exercise of Authority.	
			Administrative Authority.	References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880.	3	Agreement shall, if the seaman desires, stipulate for allotment of any part not exceeding half of his wages, either to his relations or a savings bank. (Amendment of section 169 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854.)	Board of Trade.	——
	4 (1)	In the case of foreign-going ships, the owner or master of a ship shall pay to each seaman at the end of the engagement 2*l.*, or a quarter of the balance of wages due to him, whichever is least, and the remainder within two clear days after he leaves the ship.		
	4 (2)	And may also deliver the account of wages to the seaman himself at or before the time of leaving the ship.		
	4 (3)	If the seaman consents, the final settlement may be left to the superintendent of a Mercantile Marine Office.		
	4 (4)	Wages will run in favour of the seamen in cases of unreasonable delay until the settlement, provided the delay was not caused by the act or default of the seamen.		
	4 (5)	In disputes on wages not exceeding 5*l.* the superintendent may adjudicate.		
The Merchant Shipping (Fishing Boats) Act, 1883 (46 & 47 Vict. c. 41).	15	Stipulations in the agreement regarding wages.	,,	——
	24	*Wages and discharge of seamen in fishing boats and in sea-fishing service.* Skipper, not less than four hours before discharge to deliver accounts of wages, and deductions therefrom, in a form sanctioned by the Board of Trade to the seaman.		
	25	When paid by share in catch, seamen to have inspection of owner's accounts and books relating to catch.		
	26	Skipper to give seamen on discharge or on payment of wages, certificate of discharge.		
	27	Seamen discharged before the commencement of the voyage or during the voyage without fault to recover compensation in same manner as wages.		
	29, 30, 35	Forfeitures from wages.	,,	——
	34	How wages are to accrue.		
	46	Superintendent of Mercantile Marine Office to decide disputes as to wages, &c.		
The Merchant Shipping (Fishing Boats) Act, 1887 (50 Vict. c. 4).	4	The provisions relating to sections 24 and 25 of the last named Act extended to skippers of fishing boats.	,,	——
	6	Owners are to render accounts of profits to crews paid by share.		
The Merchant Shipping Act, 1889 (52 & 53 Vict. c. 46).	1	Every master is to have the same remedies for recovery of disbursements made on account of the ship as for recovery of wages.	,,	——
	2 (1)	Any agreement with a seaman under section 149 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, may contain a stipulation for payment to or on behalf of the seaman, conditionally on his going to sea, in pursuance of the agreement, of a sum not exceeding the amount of one month's wages, payable to the seaman under the agreement.		
	2 (2)	Save as authorised by this section, any agreement by or on behalf of the employer of a seaman for payment of money conditionally on his going to sea from any port in the United Kingdom, shall be void, and no money paid in satisfaction or in respect of any such agreement shall be deducted from the seaman's wages, &c.		
	2 (4)	Section 2 of the Merchant Seamen (Payment of Wages and Rating) Act, 1880, is repealed.		
	4	Where a seaman has agreed with the master of a British ship for payment of his wages in British sterling or any other money, payment shall, notwithstanding anything in the agreement, if made in any other currency than that agreed upon, be made at the rate of exchange for the time being current at the place where the payment is made.		

[§ 1185 (1).] 1185. Special Provisions for the Protection of Miners and Men Employed in the Railway Service. [§ 1185 (1).]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
		(1.) Protection of Miners.		
The Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887 (50 & 51 Vict. c. 58).	3	The Act applies to mines of coal, stratified iron, shale, and fire-clay.	Home Department.	——
	4–10	Employment of boys, girls, and women.		
	11–15	Payment of wages.		
	16–18	Single shifts.		
	19	Division of mine into parts.		
	20–23	Certificated managers.		
	33–38	Returns, plan, notices, and abandonment.		
	39–46	Inspection.		
	47	Arbitration.		
	48	Coroners.		
	47–50	General rules.		
	51–56	Special rules.		
	57–58	Publication of abstract of Act and of special rules.		
	59–70	Legal proceedings.		
	71–77	Miscellaneous.		
	78–84	Transitory provisions and repeal.		
	23, 25, 26, and 80.	The Secretary of State has power :— I. To appoint boards to conduct examinations for certificates of competency as manager of a mine. II. To define the districts for which such boards shall act. III. To make rules as to the places and times of examinations, and the form of the certificate. IV. To prescribe the fees for certificates of competency and certificates of service.	,,	Order of Secretary of State as to (II.) and (IV.), "London Gazette," 29th Nov. 1872, p. 5,875. Notice issued by Secretary of State as to appointments of secretaries of boards of examination, forms of application for examination, for certificates of competency, and for grant of certificates of service and fees. Notice circulated as a Home Office paper. Order of Secretary of State fixing fees payable for copies of certificates of competency and service, "London Gazette," 27th Nov. 1888, p. 6,742; "Dublin Gazette," 30th Nov. 1888, p. 1,271.
	39	Power for Secretary of State to appoint inspectors and assign them their duties.	,,	Order of Secretary of State transferring four parishes in Lanarkshire from the East Scotland to the West Scotland district, 18th Feb. 1889. Notice by Secretary of State as to the alteration of inspection districts, "London Gazette," 10th May 1892, p. 2,709.
	7, 12 (3), 18, 49, general rule 12.	Power for Secretary of State to exempt mines from certain provisions of the Act.	,,	These powers are more or less frequently exercised, but the exemptions are local in their character.
	72 and 79	Power for Secretary of State to revoke or alter orders for exemption granted under Acts of 1872 and 1887.	,,	Order of Secretary of State revoking as from 1st Jan. 1890, the Orders of exemption granted under 35 & 36 Vict. c. 76. s. 5. to certain specified mines. "London Gazette," 1st Nov. 1889, pp. 5780–2.
The Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act (35 & 36 Vict. c. 77).	15	Power of Secretary of State to appoint inspectors of metalliferous mines, and assign them their districts.	,,	Order of Secretary of State transferring four parishes in Lanarkshire from the East Scotland to the West Scotland district, 18th Feb. 1889. Notice by the Secretary of State as to the alteration of mines inspection, districts, Statutory Rules and Orders, 1892, p. 647. Notice by Secretary of State transferring all mines in Cheshire and Shropshire to the North Staffordshire district. "London Gazette," 1st April 1892, p. 1928. Notice by Secretary of State as to the alteration of mines inspection districts, "London Gazette," 10th May 1892, p. 2709.

[§ 1185 (2).] **1185. Special Provisions for the Protection of Miners and Men Employed in the Railway Service—*continued*.** [§ 1185 (2).]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
		(2.) Men employed in the Railway Service.		
The Employers' Liability Act, 1880 (43 & 44 Vict. c. 42).	8	For the purposes of this Act the expression "workman," means a railway servant and any person to whom the Employers and Workmen Act, 1875, applies.	Home Department.	—
The Railway Regulation Act, 1893 (56 & 57 Vict. c. 29).	1 sub-sec. 1	Board of Trade shall enquire into representations of railway servants as to excessive hours of labour.	Board of Trade	—
—	1 sub-sec. 2	Board of Trade may demand schedules of working time to be drawn up, and forwarded to it for approval.	„	—
—	sub-sec. 3, 4	If railway company refuse to comply, the Board of Trade may refer the matter to the Railway and Canal Commission, who shall have a similar power to order schedules of time to be submitted, a penaly of 100*l.* per day during which the default continues.	„	—

1186. Provisions for the Protection of Health in Factories and Workshops, &c.

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Public Health Act, 1875 (38 & 39 Vict. c. 55), as amended by Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	91 Sub-sec. 6	Any workshop or workplace not kept in a cleanly state or not ventilated in such a manner as to render harmless as far as practicable any gases, vapours, dust, or other impurities generated in the course of the work carried on therein, that are a nuisance or injurious to health, or so overcrowded while work is carried on as to be dangerous or injurious to the health of those employed therein, shall be deemed to be a nuisance liable to be dealt with summarily.	Local Sanitary Authority.	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, amended by section 3 of Act of 1891.	3	Every factory is to be kept in a cleanly state, free from effluvia, &c., to be well ventilated, and not to be overcrowded.	Home Department.	—
Ditto	4	If an Inspector of factories observe a nuisance in a factory or workshop which is punishable or remediable under the law relating to Public Health, but not under the Factory Acts, he must report the matter to the local sanitary authority.	„	—
Ditto	33	Every factory must be *limewashed* once in 14 months unless painted in oil once in seven years, when it must be *washed* once in every 14 months. The Secretary of State, however, may, exempt from this provision any class of factory, or part thereof not requiring it for the purpose of cleanliness.	„	Order of Secretary of State granting exemptions, "London Gazette," 22nd Dec. 1882, p. 6524.
Ditto	34	Bakehouses are to be *limewashed* once in six months, or where painted in oil, to be *washed* once in six months.	Home Department as regards wholesale bakeries. Local Sanitary Authority as regards retail bakeries.	—
Ditto (Amended by section 17 of the Factory and Workshop Act of 1883.)	35	Restrictions on use of rooms in bakehouses for sleeping places.	Local Sanitary Authority.	—
The Public Health (London) Act (54 & 55 Vict. c. 76).	26	Enforcement of conditions relating to cleanliness, ventilation, &c., in bakehouses, which are workshops.	„	—
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878.	36	Where dust is generated by grinding, glazing, or polishing in factories or workshops, an inspector may direct a fan or other proper means to be provided for preventing the inhalation of dust.	Home Department.	—
Ditto	37	A child, young person, or woman, shall not be employed in wet spinning, unless means are taken to prevent their being wetted, and to prevent the escape of steam.	„	—

[§ 1186.] 1186. PROVISIONS FOR THE PROTECTION OF HEALTH IN FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS, &c.—*continued.* [§ 1186.]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Alkali, &c. Works Regulation Act, 1881 (44 & 45 Vict. c. 37), as amended by the Alkali, &c., Works Regulations Act, 1892 (55 & 56 Vict. c. 30).	10 to 14 schedule.	Power for Local Government Board to appoint inspectors of alkali, sulphuric acid, and other works, and to prescribe the conditions under which such works are to be registered, and to make Provisional Order to prevent discharge of certain gases in salt works and cement works.	Local Government Board.	Order of the Local Government Board, dated 7th Jan. 1882, prescribing conditions for registration of works.—Order published in "London Gazette," Jan. 10th, 1882, p. 28.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1883 (46 & 47 Vict. c. 53).	2–6 sch.	No white lead factory is to be carried on, unless the occupier has obtained a certificate from the factory inspector of the district, and such certificate may be withdrawn if certain conditions specified in the schedule to the Act are not fulfilled.	Home Department.	——
Ditto -	15–18	It shall not be lawful to let or suffer to be occupied as a bakehouse, or to occupy as a bakehouse, any room or place, unless certain special conditions are fulfilled.	Local Sanitary Authority.	——
The Cotton Cloth Factories Act, 1889 (52 & 53 Vict. c. 62).	5	The amount of moisture in the atmosphere of a cotton cloth factory shall not at any time be in excess of such amount as is represented by the number of grains of moisture per cubic foot of air, shown in column I. of the table in Schedule A. of this Act.	Home Department.	——
Ditto -	6	One of Her Majesty's principal Secretaries of State may from time to time, by order, repeal or vary the table in Schedule A. of this Act, and substitute any new or amended table therefor.	„	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891 (55 & 56 Vict. c. 75).	1–5	Sanitary provisions as to factories and workshops -	Home Department and Local Sanitary Authorities.	——
Ditto -	8 sub-sec. 1.	Power for Secretary of State to certify that certain processes are dangerous, and provision as to special rules or special measures in factories or workshops, to which such certificates apply.	Home Department.	Certificates of Secretaries of State— "London Gazette": May 13th, 1892, p. 2832. June 7th, 1892, p. 3352. Dec. 27th, 1892, p. 7642.
The Public Health Act, 1875 (38 & 39 Vict. c. 55) [elsewhere than in London].	38	Privy accommodation for factories, &c. - -	Local Authority.	——
The Public Health (London) Act, 1891 (54 & 55 Vict. c. 76).	38	Sanitary conveniences for manufactories, &c. - -	„	——
The Public Health Acts Amendment Act, 1890 (53 & 54 Vict. c. 59). [Not in force in London, adoptive elsewhere.]	22	„ „ „ - -	„	——
The Public Health (London) Act, 1891 (54 & 55 Vict. c. 76). [London.]	2	Factories, workshops, and work-places not kept in a cleanly state and free from effluvia, not ventilated or overcrowded, to be nuisances.	„	——
The Canal Boats Act, 1877 (40 & 41 Vict. c. 60.); ditto, 1884 (47 & 48 Vict. c. 75).	1–3, 9 1, 2, 7–11	Prohibition of use of canal boats as dwellings. Regulations by Local Government Board as to registration of, number, &c. of persons allowed to dwell in, cleanliness and prevention of infection.	Local Government Board and Local Authority.	——

[§ 1187.] 1187. LIMITATION OF THE HOURS OF LABOUR. [§ 1187.]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16).	10–11	*In textile factories.*—Period of employment for young persons and women allowed: 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., or 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. On Saturdays to end at 1 p.m. or 2 p.m. or 12.30 p.m. or 1.30 p.m., according to allowance given for meals and to hour of commencement of work. Continuous employment for more than 4½ hours without meal of half an hour prohibited.	Home Department.	——
Ditto -	12	*In textile factories.*—Employment for children allowed: In morning or afternoon sets, or on alternate days only. Period of employment, same as young person (*see* above). Employment in two successive periods of seven days in a morning set or afternoon set prohibited. Employment on two successive Saturdays, nor on Saturday in any week if on any other day in the same week the period of employment have exceeded 5½ hours, prohibited. Continuous employment for more than 4½ hours without half an hour for meal, prohibited.	,,	——
Ditto -	13	*Non-textile factories and workshops.*—Period of employment, &c. for young persons and women in non-textile factories, and of young persons in a workshop, 6 a.m. to 6 p.m., or 7 a.m. to 7 p.m. On Saturdays, begin at 6 a.m. or 7 a.m. and end at 2 p.m. *Hours for meals.*—On every day (except Saturday) not less than 1½ hours (1 hour of which must be before 3 p.m.) and Saturday not less than half an hour. Continuous employment for more than five hours prohibited without half an hour for meals.	,,	—
Ditto -	14	*In non-textile factories and workshops.* — Period of employment for children allowed: In morning or afternoon sets, or on the system of employment on alternate days only, commencing 6 a.m. or 7 a.m. in the morning set and end at 1 p.m., or at dinner-time (if before 1 p.m.). In afternoon set to begin at 1 p.m. or at the termination of the dinner hour and end at 6 or 7 p.m. according to commencement of children in the morning set. Continuous employment for two successive weeks in a morning set, or ditto in afternoon set is prohibited. Employment on Saturday in any week in the same set in which she has been employed on any other day of the same week is prohibited. In the alternate day system, employment shall commence (except on Saturday) at 6 a.m. and end at 6 p.m., or 7 a.m. and end at 7 p.m. On Saturdays, employment shall commence at 6 a.m. or 7 a.m. and end at 2 p.m. Two hours for meals, and on Saturday, half an hour. Employment in any manner on two successive days, or on the same day of the week in two successive weeks, prohibited. Employment for more than five hours without half an hour for meal, prohibited.	,,	——
Ditto -	15	*Employment of women in workshops:* (1.) In a workshop where children and young persons are employed, women are subjected to the same restrictions and regulations as if they were young persons in a workshop.	,,	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891 (54 & 55 Vict. c. 75).	13	Paragraph 2 of the Act of 1878 is repealed by the following section: In a workshop which is conducted on the system of not employing therein either children or young persons, and the occupier of which has served on an inspector notice of his intention to conduct his workshop on that system. (*a.*) The period of employment for a woman shall, except on Saturday, be a specified period of 12 hours taken between 6 a.m. and 10 p.m., and shall on Saturday be a specified period of eight hours taken between 6 a.m. and 4 p.m. (*b.*) There shall be allowed to a woman for meals and absence from work during the period of employment, a specified period not less, except on Saturday, than one hour and a half, and on Saturday than an hour.	,,	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16)	16	*In domestic workshops:* (1.) Employment of children, young persons, and women. (2.) Period of employment of a young person, 6 a.m. to 9 p.m., and on Saturday 6 a.m. to 4 p.m. (3.) With 4½ hours for meals, and on Saturday 2½ hours. (4.) Period of employment of a child, either from 6 a.m. to 1 p.m., or 1 p.m. to 8 p.m., and on Saturday to 4 p.m.	,,	——

[§ 1187.] 1187. LIMITATION OF THE HOURS OF LABOUR—*continued.* [§ 1187.]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Exercise of Authority. Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16).		(5.) Employment before the hour of 1 p.m. or after that hour, in two successive periods of seven days, prohibited. Employment before 1 p.m. or after that hour on Saturday if on any other day in the same week he has been employed before or after that hour, prohibited. (6.) Employment continuously for more than five hours without an interval of half an hour for a meal, prohibited.	Home Department.	——
Ditto	17	Meal times of children, young persons and women to be simultaneous, and employment during meal times forbidden in a factory or workshop.	,,	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	15	In a non-textile factory or workshop, where a young person or woman has not been actually employed for more than eight hours on any day in a week, and notice of such non-employment has been affixed in the factory or workshop, and served on the inspector, the period of employment on Saturday in that week for that young person or woman may be from 6 in the morning to 4 o'clock in the afternoon, with an interval of not less than two hours for meals.	,,	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16).	19	Occupier of factory or workshop shall specify in a notice affixed in the factory or workshop the period of employment, hours of meals, and mode of employment of children.	,,	——
Ditto	20	Prohibition of employment of children under 10 years of age in a factory or workshop.	,,	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16).	21	Prohibition of employment of children, young persons, and women on Sunday in a factory or workshop.	,,	——
	22 (1-3)	Days to be observed as holiday and half-holiday to be allowed in factories and workshops.	,,	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1891.	16 (4)	Cessation from work shall not be deemed to be a half-holiday or a whole holiday unless a notice of the same has been fixed in the factory or workshop during the first week in January, and copy forwarded to the inspector of the district.	,,	——
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16).	44	(*a.*) Power of working male young persons above 16 in lace factories in the part of a textile factory in which a machine is moved by steam, &c. between 4 a.m. and 10 p.m., provided an allowance of nine hours is made for meals and absence from work. (*b.*) When such young person is employed on any day before the beginning of the ordinary period of employment in the factory, he shall not be employed on the same day after the end of that period. (*c.*) And when employed after the end of the ordinary period of employment he shall not be employed next morning before the beginning of the ordinary period of employment.	,,	——
Ditto	45	In non-textile factories and workshops male young persons above 16 may be employed in bakehouses between 5 a.m. and 9 p.m., provided— (*a*) an allowance of five hours is made for meals and absence from work between the above hours. (*b*) as to continuity of employment. (*c*) Same as (*b*) and (*c*) above.	,,	——
Ditto	46	Substitution by Secretary of State of another half-holiday for Saturday.	,,	——
Ditto	47	Employment of young persons and women in Turkey red dyeing on Saturday up to 4.30 p.m. allowed.	,,	——
Ditto	48	Continuous employment of children, young persons, and women in certain cases.	,,	——
Ditto	49	Giving half-holidays and holidays on different days to different sets of children, young persons, and women.	,,	——
Ditto	50	Employment of young persons and women by Jewish occupiers of factories or workshops.	,,	——
Ditto	51	Employment of Jews by Jews on Sunday in factories or workshops.	,,	——
Ditto	52	*Meal Hours.*—Exception as to meal times being simultaneous, and as to employment or remaining in room where manufacturing process is carried on during meal times.	,,	——
Ditto	53	*Overtime.*—Power to employ in factories and workshops young persons and women for 14 hours a day, provided two hours are reserved for meals, half an hour of which shall be after 5 p.m., and provided that employment shall not be for more than 5 days in any one week, nor more than 48 days in any 12 months.	,,	——

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Factory and Workshop Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16.)	54	Power to employ for half an hour after end of work where process is in an incomplete state.	Home Department.	—
Ditto - -	56	Employment of women for 14 hours a day to preserve perishable articles, provided two hours is allowed for meals, of which half an hour shall be after 5 p.m.; and provided that employment shall not be for more than five days in any one week, nor for more than 96 days in any one year.	„	—
Ditto -	57	Exception for factories driven by water power - - -	„	—
Ditto - -	58	*Nightwork:* Employment of male young persons at night not to exceed 12 consecutive hours; that meal hours are observed, and that such young person has not been employed during any part of the 12 hours preceding and not employed on more than six nights, or in the case of blast furnaces or paper mills, seven nights in any two weeks.	„	—
Ditto - -	59	Employment in certain letter-press printing works of male young persons of 16 not to exceed two nights in a week.	„	—
Ditto - -	60	Employment of male young persons in glass works not to exceed 60 hours in any one week; periods of employment not to exceed— 14 hours in four separate hours per week. 12 „ „ five „ „ „ 10 „ „ six „ „ „ or any less number of hours in the accustomed number of separate turns per week, so that such number of turns do not exceed nine. Such young person shall not work in any turn without an interval of time not less than one full turn. During each turn, same times for meals are to be allowed as in any other non-textile factory or workshop.	„	—
Ditto -	61	Special exception for domestic factories and workshops and certain other workshops from certain provisions of the Act.	„	—
Ditto -	62	Exceptions for certain descriptions of flax scutch mills from certain provisions of the Act.	„	—
The Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887 (50 & 51 Vict. c. 58).	5	A boy of or above the age of 12 shall not be employed in any mine below ground for more than 54 hours in any one week, nor more than 10 hours in any one day.	„	—
	6	An interval of not less than eight hours between the period of employment on Friday and the period of employment on the following Saturday shall be allowed, and in other cases of not less than 12 hours between each period of employment.	„	—
Ditto -	7	With respect to boys, girls, and women above ground— (1.) No boy or girl under 12 years of age shall be so employed. (2.) No boy or girl under 13 years of age shall be so employed. (*a*) for more than six days in any one week; or, (*b*) if employed for more than three days in any one week for more than six hours in any one day; or, (*c*) in any other case, for more than 10 hours, in any one day. (3.) No boy or girl of or above the age of 13, and no woman shall be so employed for more than 54 hours in any one week, or more than 10 hours in any one day. (4.) No boy, girl, or woman shall be so employed between the hours of nine at night and five on the following morning, nor on Sunday, nor after two o'clock on Saturday afternoon. (5.) An interval of not less than eight hours shall be allowed between the termination of employment on Friday and the commencement of employment on the following Saturday, and in other cases of not less than 12 hours between the termination of employment on one day and the commencement of the next employment.	„	—

[§ 1187.]

1187. Limitation of the Hours of Labour—*continued.*

[§ 1187.]

Authority now in force.	Section of Act.	Subject of Section.	Administrative Authority.	Exercise of Authority. References to Orders in Council, Rules and Regulations.
The Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887, (50 & 51 Vict. c. 58).		(6.) No boy, girl, or woman shall be employed continuously for more than five hours without an interval of at least half an hour for a meal, nor for more than eight hours on any one day, with an interval or intervals for meals, amounting altogether to not less than one hour and a half. The provisions of this section as to the employment of boys, girls, and women after two o'clock on Saturday afternoon, shall not apply in the case of any mine in Ireland, so long as it is exempted by order of a Secretary of a State.	Home Department.	—— These powers are more or less frequently exercised, but as the exemptions are local in their character, they are not published here.
The Shop Hours Act, 1892 (55 & 56 Vict. c. 62).	3	(1.) No young person shall be employed in or about a shop for a longer period than 74 hours, including meal times, in any one week. (2.) No young person shall to the knowledge of his employer, be employed on or about a shop having been previously in the same day employed in any factory or workshop . . . . . for the number of hours permitted by the Factory and Workshop Act, 1878, or for any longer period than will together with the time during which he has been so previously employed, complete such number of hours.	Local Authority.	——
Ditto -	4	Notice of the number of hours permitted by the Act, must be exhibited by the employer in a conspicuous place.		
The Railway Regulation Act, 1893 (56 & 57 Vict. c. 29).	1	If it appears to the Board of Trade, by or on behalf of the servants or any class of servants of a railway company, that there is a reasonable ground of complaint with respect to the hours of labour of those servants. . . . . The Board of Trade shall order the company to submit to them. . . . . such a schedule of time for the duty of the servants, as will bring the actual hours of work within reasonable limits.	Board of Trade.	——

1188. Establishment of a Legal Day of Rest.

Authority.	Section of the Act.	Particulars of Act or Section.
The Observance of Sunday Act, 1448–9 (27 Henry VI. c. 5).	Whole Act	Forfeiture of goods shown in fairs or markets upon Sundays, Good Fridays, and principal feasts, with certain exceptions.
The Observance of Sunday (Sports) Act, 1625 (1 Chas. I. c. 1).	,,	Unlawful meetings, bull-baiting, bear-baiting, interludes, common plays, &c., forbidden under a penalty of a fine of 3*s.* 4*d.*
The Observance of Sunday (Carriers and Butchers) Act (3 Chas. I. c. 2).	,,	Carrier, &c. travelling on Sunday, penalty 20*s.*; butchers selling, &c. victuals upon that day, penalty of 6*s.* 8*d.*
The Observance of Sunday Act (29 Chas. II. c. 7).	,,	No tradesman, artificer, workman, labourer, or other person whatsoever, shall prosecute their ordinary callings on Sunday. None shall cry or expose to sale any wares. No drover, waggoner, butcher, or higgler, shall travel. No person shall use any boat, wherry, lighter, or barge, unless by special permission of the local magistrates. *Exceptions:* Milk may be sold before 9 a.m. and after 4 p.m. Food may be sold in inns, &c. The Hundred not responsible for highway robberies on the Lord's Day, but shall make fresh suit after the offenders. Service of process on the Lord's Day shall be void.
The Supply of Fish (Travelling on Sundays and Holidays Act) 1761 (2 Geo. III. c. 15).	7	Fish carriages bound for the metropolis may travel on Sundays.
The Disorderly House (Sunday) Act, 1780 (21 Geo. III. c. 49).	1–8	Any house opened for public amusement or debate on Sunday, to which persons shall be admitted by payment of money, shall be deemed a disorderly house.
The Fisheries (Scotland) Act, 1815 (55 Geo. III. c. 94).	11	Herring nets set or hauled in Scotland to be confiscated by officers of the fisheries.
The Metropolis (Traffic) Act, 1831 (1 & 2 Will. IV. c. 22).	37	Metropolitan hackney carriage drivers may ply for hire and be compellable to drive on Sunday.

[§ 1188] 1188. ESTABLISHMENT OF A LEGAL DAY OF REST—*continued.* [§ 1188.

Authority.	Section of the Act.	Particulars of Act or Section.
The Game Laws Act, 1831 (1 & 2 Will. IV. c. 32).	3	Game shall not be killed on Sunday.
The Elections of Officers of Corporations and other Public Companies on Sundays (3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 31).	1	Elections of officers of corporations and other public companies due to be made on Sunday are to be held on the preceding Saturday or following Monday.
The Adulteration of Bread, &c. Act, 1836 (6 & 7 Will. IV. c. 37).	—	Bakers are not to bake bread or rolls on Sunday, or sell bread or bake pies, &c. after 1.30 p.m. on that day. Act not to extend to Ireland.
The Adulteration of Bread, &c., Ireland, Act, 1838 (1 & 2 Vict. c. 28).	—	Bakers in Ireland not to bake bread or rolls on Sunday, or sell bread or bake pies, &c. after 1.30 p.m. on that day.
The Metropolitan Police Act, 1839 (2 & 3 Vict. c. 47).	42	No licensed victualler within the metropolitan police district shall sell liquor before 1 p.m. on Sunday, except for the refreshment of travellers.
The Procedure before Justices as to Indictable Offences, 1848 (11 & 12 Vict. c. 42).	4	Justices of the Peace are to have power to issue search warrants on Sunday in England and Scotland.
The Indictable Offences (Ireland) Act, 1849 (12 & 13 Vict. c. 69).	4	Justices of the Peace in Ireland are to have power to issue search warrants on Sunday.
The Petty Sessions (Ireland) Act, 1851 (14 & 15 Vict. c. 93).	11	Such warrants may be executed on Sunday.
The Metropolis Water Act, 1871 (34 & 35 Vict. c. 113).	6	Metropolitan water companies to supply sufficient water on Sundays as on other days.
The Pawnbrokers' Act, 1872 (35 & 36 Vict. c. 93).	33	Pawnbrokers are not to trade on Sundays.
The Intoxicating Liquor (Licensing) Act, 1872 (35 & 36 Vict. c. 94).	24	Public houses to be closed in the metropolis up till 1 p.m., between 3 and 6 p.m., and after 11 p.m.; and in other places up till 12.30 p.m., between 2.30 and 6 p.m., and after 10 p.m., subject to certain discretion vested in the licensing justices.
The Intoxicating Liquor Act, 1874 (37 & 38 Vict. c. 49).	3, 6, 7, and 32.	All premises in which intoxicating liquors are sold by retail shall be closed in the metropolis on Sunday night from 11 p.m. to 5 a.m. on Monday morning, and from 12 midnight on Saturday to 1 p.m. on Sunday; in other populous places from 10 p.m. on Sunday night to 6 a.m. on Monday morning, and from 11 p.m. on Saturday night to 12.30 on Sunday afternoon: and elsewhere from 10 p.m. on Sunday night to 6 a.m. on Monday morning, and from 10 p.m. on Saturday night to 12.30 on Sunday afternoon. Such premises shall be closed on Sunday afternoon from 3 or 2.30 to 6, according as the hour of opening is 1 or 12.30. Justices of the Peace have certain discretion.
The Remission of Penalties Act, 1875 (38 & 39 Vict. c. 80).	1	The Crown has power to remit penalties under 21 Geo. III. c. 49. (*See* above.)
The Factory and Workshop Consolidation Act, 1878 (41 & 42 Vict. c. 16).	21, 50, 51, and 72	A child, young person, or woman shall not be employed on Sunday in a factory or workshop except where Jews are employed by Jews.
The Spirits Act, 1880 (43 & 44 Vict. c. 24).	24	A distiller must not mash any materials, or brew, or make wort, or wash, or use a still, between 11 p.m. on Saturday and 1 a.m. on Monday.
The Sunday closing (Wales) Act, 1881 (44 & 45 Vict. c. 61).	1–5	In the principality of Wales all premises in which intoxicating liquors are sold or exposed for sale by retail shall be closed during the whole of Sunday except in the case of railway refreshment rooms.
The Municipal Corporation Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 50).	230	Sunday is regarded as a *dies non* under the Municipal Corporations Act.
The Bills of Exchange Act, 1882 (45 & 46 Vict. c. 61).	14	Sunday is regarded as a *dies non* under the Bills of Exchange Act, 1882.
The Herring Fishery (Scotland) Act, 1889 (52 & 53 Vict. c. 23).	5	It shall not be lawful to fish for herrings between sunrise on Saturday morning and one hour before sunset on Monday evening on the west coasts of Scotland between the points of Ardmamurchan and the Mull of Galloway.
The Revenue Act, 1889 (52 & 53 Vict. c. 42)	26	The sale of methylated spirits between 10 p.m. on Saturday and 8 a.m. on Monday is prohibited.
The Sunday Observation Prosecution Act, 1871 (34 & 35 Vict. c. 87).	1	No prosecution for offences under 29 Charles II., c. 7, can be instituted except by or with the consent in writing of the Chief Officer of Police of the District, or with the consent in writing of two Justices of the Peace, or a Stipendiary Magistrate having jurisdiction in the place where such offence is committed.

GEOFFREY DRAGE,
Secretary.